Transplant Abuse in China Continues Despite Claims of Reform

JULY 2018
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China is a highly sophisticated nation with rapidly evolving capabilities in medicine and the life sciences. China’s organ transplant services are relatively young but have quietly emerged as the largest in the world. Unfortunately, China’s policies for obtaining organs to meet both internal demand and requests from transplant tourists from outside China have not kept pace with the skill and expertise present in the nation’s transplant community. China, as this outstanding, thorough and well-documented report shows, continues to permit abuses of human rights and the minimal ethical treatment of its citizens in permitting killing in order to obtain organs for transplant.

A core moral rule articulated with the arrival of technologies that permit the use of cadaver sources for organs for transplant is that the donor must be dead prior to procurement. Moreover, transplant teams cannot cause the deliberate death of donors nor can they accept organs known to originate from persons who have been killed for their parts. These aspects of what has come to be known as the ‘dead donor rule’ are recognized by the international transplant community, professional associations of those working in the field of transplant and the regulatory requirements of governments where cadaver procurement is allowed. China, as the report shows, is not, despite protests to the contrary, following the ethical and legal obligations it bears in order to conduct cadaver organ procurement.

China continues to lack a well-organized cadaver procurement system. It has no law recognizing brain death. As the numbers and testimony and history documented in this report show the nation continues to rely on a flow of organs from executed prisoners to provide a supply of organs for internal use and to sell to foreigners who come to gain rapid access to transplants they could not secure in their native lands.

Using executed prisoners for obtaining organs is morally abhorrent in many ways. Prisoners selected for execution cannot provide persuasive consent to the use of the organs after death. Nor is there any monitoring or auditing going on by independent authorities to show the validity of prisoner consent. Prisoners are being killed and organs taken with little attention to brain death and their humane treatment as donors. And some who are being executed are being killed for reasons that legal and ethical experts around the world do not accept as legitimate rationales for capital punishment. This is especially true when prisoners are executed for political, religious or spiritual beliefs.

The report must be attended to by both the transplant community and governments all over the world. They must make it clear that a ‘killing for parts’ policy will result in China’s being excluded from full participation in transplantation, medical research and medical meetings no matter the prowess displayed by Chinese transplant medicine. There continues to be an abhorrent violation of basic human rights at the core of Chinese transplant procurement policy. Killing cannot be a component of any ethical cadaver procurement system. Read this report and then push your government to act to redress what must end.
In October 2017, a major South Korean TV station sent investigative journalists to the Oriental Organ Transplant Center at Tianjin Central Hospital, one of China’s largest transplant centers. The journalists reported that the transplant center generally quoted to patients wait times for organs ranging from days to weeks. They also noted that the center solicited monetary “donations” from patients in exchange for scheduling transplants even more quickly. Operating rooms were observed to be in use around the clock. Even though China claims to have stopped performing transplants for foreign patients, the international transplant department alone performed eight transplants the day before the visit, and the center housed foreign patients in a nearby hotel in addition to its own wards with 500 transplant beds (see section “2017 On-Site Investigation Found Thriving Transplant Tourism to China”). These findings suggest that the center continues to perform thousands of transplants per year (see section “Case Study: Oriental Organ Transplant Center at Tianjin First Central Hospital”).

This is but one example that reflects the current scale, on-demand nature, and abundance of organs in China’s organ transplant industry. These observations call into question the Chinese government’s claims about its complete transition to ethical organ sourcing practices. In recent years, Chinese authorities made a series of contradictory statements and false claims regarding organ sourcing after it came to light in 2006 that prisoners of conscience throughout China were being killed on demand for organs. In 2015, China asserted that it had ceased extracting organs from executed death-row prisoners and transitioned entirely to voluntary donations. However, the number of voluntary donations is far from sufficient to supply the volume of on-demand transplants currently being performed. International observers have raised concerns that the Chinese reforms were only a “semantic trick” (see section “Death-Row Prisoners”).

To determine the extent to which an ethical organ donation and transplantation framework has been implemented, we examined the industry’s nature, scale, and organ sources by analyzing hundreds of transplant hospitals, government and industry statements, official policies and legislation, and the broader operation of China’s transplant system. This extensive review revealed that the seemingly overnight transition to ethical organ sourcing has not been implemented in practice.

As executed death-row prisoners decreased in number over time, China began piloting an organ donation program in 2010 and announced its nationwide expansion in 2013. Chinese officials asserted that the donation framework was developed in just a few years, a process that took other countries decades. Official accounts indicate that the percentage of organs sourced from donations jumped from 23% in 2013 to 80% in 2014, with voluntary donations officially becoming the sole official organ source in 2015. It is not plausible that such a complete transition in this system could have taken place in just one or two years (see section “Apparent Overnight Transition to Ethical Organ Sourcing”).

Underscoring the improbability of this transition are longstanding cultural inhibitions, a lack of institutional and legal conditions to protect, facilitate, and govern voluntary donations, as well as a lack of public trust in the Chinese medical system, which have kept the number of voluntary donations extremely low. As of the end of 2017, China had 373,536 registered organ donors. Compared to the proportion of
registered and actual donors in the United States, this number would have yielded fewer than 29 donors in China. Furthermore, the sum of reported donation numbers (mainly from non-registered donors in ICUs) from various regions was far fewer than the official number of transplants, let alone the actual volume performed in hospitals (see section “Apparent Overnight Transition to Ethical Organ Sourcing”).

Despite this purported shift to a less readily available source of organs, China’s transplant industry has continued to expand. The latest evidence shows that China continues to perform transplants on demand at a scale far greater than its official figure of 10,000-15,000 per year. That number has been systematically deflated and falsified (see section “Hiding and Falsification of Data”) and can be exceeded by just a few of China’s 173 government-approved transplant centers. In fact, China came to perform more transplants than any other nation in just a few years after the industry took off in 2000, despite a dearth of voluntary organ donations. Moreover, the industry has continued to grow rapidly even after the killing of prisoners of conscience for organs gained international attention in 2006 (see section “Scale of China’s Transplant Industry”).

China has not enacted fundamental laws recognizing brain death or governing organ sourcing, donation, procurement, allocation, and transplantation. Its legal framework contains numerous loopholes that allow for unethical organ sourcing through channels outside of the medical system (see section “Current Regulations Embed Loopholes for Illicit Organ Sourcing”).

Agencies providing regulatory oversight for the donation system remain empty shells. China’s top transplant industry spokesperson admitted in a media interview that China has only one person managing and overseeing the entire organ donation process, compared to 1,500 in the U.S. (see section “Entire Chain of Organ Transplantation Is in the Hospitals”). China’s Organ Procurement Organizations (OPOs) are established inside ministry-approved transplant centers; they operate without oversight and include the same surgeons who are involved in unethical organ procurement and transplantation. The heavily publicized national organ donation and allocation system does not function in practice on the scale that is claimed and serves as a façade used to launder illicit organs (see section “Apparent Overnight Transition to Ethical Organ Sourcing”).

This raises a question as to the true source of transplanted organs in China. Because the official organ source of voluntary donations can far from support the number of transplants performed, most of the organs must be coming from another source. Much evidence suggests that these organs are taken from prisoners of conscience in extrajudicial killings. Falun Gong practitioners remain the largest group of prisoners of conscience in China, and they have been systematically detained, imprisoned, tortured, and forcibly given blood tests and medical examinations both in state custody and in their homes. The exponential rise of China’s organ transplant industry paralleled the Chinese Communist Party’s campaign to eradicate Falun Gong (see section “A State-Driven Crime”).

The harvesting of organs from prisoners of conscience for transplantation supports the government’s campaign to destroy groups it labels “enemies of the state,” serves its United Front efforts to gain influence with foreign dignitaries and the elite of overseas Chinese, and provides fame, promotion, and wealth incentivization to hospitals and doctors who participate in these abuses (see section “Roles of the Communist Party and Government Agencies”).
Nevertheless, China has created a false impression of reform by presenting falsified data and blueprints of an ethical donation and transplantation system, as well as hosting international experts on guided visits. It thereby gained recognition and endorsement from international organizations. Academic institutions and commercial entities have also renewed their collaboration with China (see section “Global Impact”).

In addition to perpetuating thriving inbound transplant tourism, China is seeking to make organs procured in the mainland available to residents in other regions in its geographical area as part of its “One Belt, One Road Initiative.” Given that China’s transplant system continues to be supported by the killing of innocents, by expanding agreements to share organs with other parts of Asia, “One Belt, One Road” regions, and beyond,\textsuperscript{32, 33, 34, 35} the Chinese regime risks implicating the international community in its crimes (see section “Expansion of the ‘Chinese Mode’ of Donation and Transplantation”).
About the China Organ Harvest Research Center

The China Organ Harvest Research Center (COHRC) is a nonprofit organization founded in 2017 that conducts and presents authoritative research on organ transplant abuse in China, including the killing of prisoners of conscience for organs. COHRC researchers seek out and analyze evidence from a wide range of Chinese and overseas sources. In addition to publishing reports and providing consultation to government entities and non-government organizations, the center has presented its research findings at national ethical and medical conferences. Before establishing this organization, the group's lead researchers had studied the Chinese organ transplantation system for over a decade and contributed to reports cited in articles by CNN, The New York Times, PBS, The Globe and Mail, and The Times of London.

Killing for organs is a crime against humanity and a new form of state terrorism. COHRC believes it is our shared responsibility to raise awareness of these atrocities. We look forward to collaborating with other researchers, organizations, enterprises, policymakers, journalists, and human rights advocates to help end this barbaric practice and safeguard human dignity.

Research, Editorial, And Advisory Team

Grace Yin is the lead researcher and author of this report. She has systematically researched and analyzed the organ transplant system in China for over a decade. She has presented the research at national academic conferences and provides consultation on China’s transplant abuses to governments and medical organizations. Her early research focused on telecommunications and information processes, earning national science and technology awards in China.

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Five experts, including two independent scholars and three China and medical specialists, participated in research or provided research support but wished to remain anonymous. Three China scholars who wished to remain anonymous served as academic advisers. The main cover image was adapted by Olli Törmä from original work created by Wei Jane Chir.

Acknowledgements

Special thanks to David Matas, Ethan Gutmann, and David Kilgour for their contributions to the content and comments.
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Overview

China’s organ transplant industry is relatively young but has quickly emerged as the world’s largest despite a dearth of donations. All along, concerns have been raised regarding the sources of organs used in this system. Chinese officials repeatedly changed their explanations as evidence of abuses emerged over time. In response to growing international condemnation, the Chinese regime announced in 2015 that it was no longer going to use organs from executed death-row prisoners, having transitioned entirely to voluntary donations. However, available evidence indicates that such claims are misleading and that large numbers of organs continue to come from prisoners—primarily prisoners of conscience.

In 2006, allegations first came to light that prisoners of conscience were being killed on demand for organ transplants in detention facilities and hospitals throughout China.36 37 38 Since then, international researchers have continued to investigate these allegations. Among them, two Canadians—former Secretary of State for Asia-Pacific, David Kilgour, and human rights lawyer David Matas—came to “the regrettable conclusion that the allegations are true.”39 They later compiled their findings in the book Bloody Harvest.40 Meanwhile, London-based investigative journalist Ethan Gutmann independently researched the topic over the course of seven years and reached similar conclusions in his book, The Slaughter.41

Unfortunately, organ harvesting from illicit sources has not ended. As the organ transplant industry in China has continued to grow at a rapid pace over the past decade, so has the harvesting of organs from illicit sources.

Investigators joined forces and researched hundreds of transplant hospitals around China. Kilgour, Matas, and Gutmann published Bloody Harvest/The Slaughter: An Update42 in June 2016. Spanning 680 pages and nearly 2,400 references, the report uncovers the true nature and scale of these abuses. It states, “The ultimate conclusion is that the Chinese Communist Party has engaged the State in the mass killings of innocents, primarily practitioners of the spiritually-based set of exercises, Falun Gong, but also Uyghurs, Tibetans, and select House Christians, in order to obtain organs for transplants.”43

The present study updates past research with the latest developments and analyzes newly available evidence to answer the following questions:

- What is the current scale and trajectory of China’s organ transplant industry?
- What is the current functioning of the voluntary donation system and the extent of China’s transition to an ethical organ transplant framework?
- What is the speed with which organs are being provided, and does evidence exist that would indicate continued harvesting of prisoners for on-demand transplantation?
- What are some of the potential sources of organs other than voluntary donations?
- What are the factors driving the ongoing abuses?
A team of researchers at the China Organ Harvest Research Center examined China’s transplant hospitals, government and industry statements, policies, legislation and regulations, and media reports in Chinese, English, and other languages, as well as the history and operation of China’s organ donation and transplantation system.

**On-Demand Transplants**

Investigators discovered the existence of an industry in which organ transplants are conducted on demand; they are scheduled in advance, have short wait times, and use organs taken from living sources.

Since the early 2000s, hospitals have advertised and quoted wait times ranging between days and weeks, including for re-transplants in case of failure. The China Liver Transplant Registry reported a large number of emergency liver transplants for which organ sources had to be found within days or even hours. In elective cases, waiting times for liver transplants were commonly listed in weeks.

Transplant surgeries are mostly scheduled ahead of time, as seen in individual and institutional accounts reflected in hospital profiles, media reports, and other sources. For example:

- An Israeli patient traveled to China for a heart transplant scheduled two weeks ahead of time in 2005.
- A hospital conducted 5 liver transplants and 6 kidney transplants simultaneously in 2006.
- A hospital performed 4 heart transplants simultaneously in one afternoon in 2013.
- A liver failure patient received a same-day transplant upon transfer to a hospital in 2016.
- A hospital performed 16 organ transplants (10 heart, liver, and kidney and 6 corneal) in one day in October 2016.

One hospital advertised “donors seeking matched recipients” and promised, “in case of failure, [to] continue to perform transplants until one is successful.” Doctors could prepare multiple organ sources or procure multiple organs for the same patient in quick succession to have spares in case of mismatch. It is not uncommon in China for a patient to receive multiple transplants of the same organ. Furthermore, the vast array of transplantable organ types, with their prices openly listed on hospital websites, gives the impression that any body part can be replaced as needed.

Liver extraction procedures with warm ischemia times of under 5 minutes became a Chinese industry standard well before 2009. Such short warm ischemia times could not have been obtained using “no-heartbeat cadavers” as claimed, given that China had no donation system before 2010.

One hospital website emphasized, “In China, we carry out living donor kidney transplants. It is completely different from cadaveric kidney transplants that you hear about in Japanese hospitals,” when China had no voluntary organ donations and few living donor transplants (see section “Actual Donation Situation”).

The above shows that it is common practice in China to excise vital organs from living bodies for organ transplants.

**Continued Growth After Exposure**

After the allegations of forced organ harvesting attracted international scrutiny in 2006, the Chinese government acknowledged sourcing organs from death-row prisoners while attributing illicit transplants to a
chaotic market. The Ministry of Health started a new approval system and issued permits to 164 transplant centers, creating the illusion that most of the 1,000 transplant hospitals stopped performing transplants in July 2007. Hospitals systematically understated the number of transplants they performed. Furthermore, the Chinese regime waged a public relations campaign through its spokespeople, media and agents to create a false impression that the number of transplants performed in China had gradually decreased.

The reality, however, is that under this new system, large, Ministry-approved institutions achieved even greater development with decreased competition and full government support. Many other hospitals continued performing transplants without permits. As a whole, organ transplantation in China has continued to grow steadily.

Organ procurement and transplants being performed around the clock have routinely overwhelmed medical teams. One hospital trained almost all of its general surgeons to perform kidney transplants independently. Many transplant centers have had bed utilization rates of 100-200%. Transplant centers have expanded significantly with more beds and new wards, wings, and buildings.

Official Transplant Volume Challenged

The number of transplant surgeries performed in China is treated as a state secret and has been falsified at every level due to inexplicable organ procurement sources and financial interests, including tax evasion and under-the-table distribution to hospitals and doctors. As a result, the true number may forever remain unknown.

Chinese officials have often claimed that China performs on average a total of 10,000 transplants per year, with that number increasing to 15,000 in 2017. However, we analyzed data concerning individual hospitals and doctors and found that this figure is surpassed by just a few hospitals alone; China in fact came to perform the most organ transplants of any country just several years after 2000. As a point of reference, the United States has performed an average of 6,000 liver transplants annually since 2000. This volume can be matched by just a few hospitals in China.

Based on government-imposed minimum capacity requirements for transplant hospitals, the 164 transplant hospitals originally approved by the Ministry of Health would have a combined capacity of approximately 70,000 transplants per year. This is equivalent to a capacity of more than one million total transplants since 2000.

We compared the combined minimum capacity with data from our investigation of each of the 164 approved transplant centers, as well as news reports and the number of transplants performed by individual doctors and institutions, and the size of the immunosuppressant market. Most of the approved hospitals far exceeded the minimum capacity requirements, including some with hundreds of dedicated transplant beds and utilization rates greater than 100%.

Even this is far from the full picture. China had more than 1,000 hospitals performing organ transplants as of July 2007. Many of them continued to perform transplants despite not having received approval. These hospitals have become the candidates for which Huang Jiefu, Chairman of the National Organ
Donation and Transplantation Committee and former Deputy Minister of Health, hopes to issue permits to increase the number of transplant centers in China to 300 and eventually 500.\textsuperscript{89 90 91 92}

**Latest Developments Since Claimed Reform**

The increased transplant center capacity still could not meet demand even after China announced that donations had become the sole source of organs for transplants.\textsuperscript{93 94 95} Huang Jiefu attributed the limiting factor not to organ availability but rather to a lack of qualified hospitals and experienced doctors.\textsuperscript{96} He has also advocated making organs procured in China available to other regions,\textsuperscript{97 98} implying that China has an abundance of transplantable organs.

In May 2017, the government increased the number of approved transplant hospitals from 169 to 173.\textsuperscript{99} According to official sources, China performed 50\% more transplants in 2017 than the year before.\textsuperscript{100 101} Huang Jiefu declared in August 2017 that China would increase the number of approved transplant hospitals to 300 and perform the most transplants in the world by 2020.\textsuperscript{102}

TV Chosun, a South Korean national TV network, conducted an on-site investigation in October 2017\textsuperscript{103} and found that Tianjin First Central Hospital still conducts transplants at full capacity. Operating rooms were observed to be in use at all hours, with rotating medical teams performing transplants late into the night. A nurse in the international department told the reporter that the international transplant department performed 8 transplants (1 pancreas; 3 kidneys, and 4 livers) the day before the journalists arrived. Medical staff quoted wait times between days and weeks. They also solicited monetary donations to the hospital foundation in exchange for scheduling a transplant surgery even sooner.

Despite Huang Jiefu’s claim that China had ceased performing transplants for foreign patients, the center continues to operate dedicated transplant wards and hotel facilities for international patients from the Middle East, South Korea, and other regions. A map in the hospital lobby indicates that its international transplant wards occupy three floors in buildings used specifically for transplantation. In addition to using its own facilities, the hospital rented out a floor in a nearby hotel to house Korean patients. A nurse revealed that there had been more organ recipients from the Middle East than from South Korea, with at least one patient whose transplant costs would be paid directly by his country’s embassy.

Phone investigations conducted between July 2016 and June 2017 found that organ sources remain ample and of high quality, with some hospitals claiming to have surplus organs.\textsuperscript{104 105} One hospital even offered free liver transplants for the first ten children to register.\textsuperscript{106} However, most transplant organs did not come from the national donation and allocation system because the hospitals could not access it.\textsuperscript{107}

All these developments have occurred in the absence of significant voluntary donations and regulatory oversight in China’s organ transplant system. This raises a question as to the true source of transplanted organs in China.
Apparent Overnight Transition to Ethical Organ Sourcing

In response to international criticism, Chinese officials acknowledged that almost all transplant organs came from death-row prisoners and, later, from voluntary donations.

However, international organizations estimate that death-row executions in China numbered in the thousands each year since 2000. The number of executions has also declined since then. A decade later, transplants that relied on death-row organs were becoming “a stream without a source.”

China did not have an organ donation system until March 2010, when it piloted the first program in 19 provinces and cities. Despite receiving only 207 donations in its first two years, the program was expanded nationwide with the announcement of a national organ allocation system, the China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS), in August 2013.

Chinese government figures stated that 23% of the organs used in 2013 came from donations. Huang Jiefu later stated that 80% of transplant organs in 2014 came from donations and that China stopped using death-row organs completely in January 2015. Huang claimed that China built up its organ donation and transplant framework in only several years, whereas other countries took decades.

However, this miraculous one-year jump in donation figures appears to have been conceived after the fact to bridge the gap to the supposed “new era” of ethical organ procurement. As of the end of 2017, the official count of registered donors was 373,536. Compared to the proportion of registered and actual donors in the United States, this would have yielded fewer than 29 donors in China (see section “Official Number of Registered Donors Yields Only Dozens of Actual Donors”). Furthermore, the sum of reported donation numbers in each region (mainly from non-registered donors in ICUs) was far fewer even than the official number of transplants, let alone the actual volume performed in hospitals.

Longstanding impediments to organ donation in China include cultural inhibitions, a lack of legislation for brain death, an insufficient legal framework to guarantee ethical donations, and a general lack of trust in the medical system.

At the end of 2015, almost a year after the announced completion of China’s transition to ethical organ sourcing, its donation system did not function in practice because the “National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee…exists in name only.” In March 2017, Huang Jiefu told the media that China had only one person managing and overseeing the organ donation process, compared to 1,500 in the United States. No agency provides oversight or enforcement for the day-to-day process of organ donation, procurement, and transplantation (see section “Empty Shell of China’s Donation System”).

As China’s donation and procurement system is designed, Organ Procurement Organizations (OPOs) are established inside ministry-approved transplant centers, which carry out and manage all aspects of organ donation, determination of death, organ procurement, and reporting. Huang Jiefu admitted in a media interview that “Organ resources—all recipients and donors, the entire chain of organ transplantation is in the hospitals.”
One of the vice chairs of the OPO Alliance, who was also head of the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC)'s medical policy and control bureau, was indicted for bribery in 2016. OPO coordinators are usually the core members of teams who were previously involved (and continue to participate) in unethical organ procurement and transplantation, and most organs are sourced illegally (see section “Opaque Operations”).

While COTRS is designed to manage all donors and recipients in the country, it still requires donations to function. Furthermore, only 31,000 potential recipients had been registered on the official website as of March 2017. A phone survey ending in June 2017 showed that most transplant hospitals in China could not access COTRS, implying that most transplant organs did not come from the donation system.

The above findings indicate that China has not established a transparent, ethical organ donation system. Commercialization and a lack of transparency have led potential donors and families to lose confidence in China’s organ donation system.

Huang Jiefu said in 2017 that 70% of organs came from brain-dead donors; the other 30% were mainly from donation after brain death followed by cardiac death (DBCD). However, 90% of doctors in China were unaware of a standard procedure to determine brain death as of late 2014; this remained the case in 2017. This contradiction suggests widespread abuse of brain death determination in China.

China has not enacted fundamental laws governing organ sourcing, donation, procurement, allocation, and transplantation. Its administrative policies and regulations are heavily influenced by interest groups and are not enforced in the medical system, nor can they control the military, judiciary, and other entities. This leaves loopholes that allow for unethical organ procurement through side channels. Compared to the true scale of the transplant system, death-row prisoners (who were re-categorized as voluntary citizen donors starting in 2015) and voluntary donations combined can account for only a small fraction of all transplants performed in China. These findings suggest that the heavily publicized donation and allocation system, including COTRS, serves as a façade used to whitewash illicit organ sources and does not contribute significantly to the actual scale of transplants performed in China.

### A State-Driven Crime

China began to experiment with human organ transplantation in the 1960s. The first case of an organ being harvested from a political prisoner during execution was recorded in 1978, and the organ was transplanted into the son of a senior Communist Party cadre.

In 1984, multiple government bodies and ministries jointly promulgated the “Provisional Regulations on the Use of Corpses or the Organs of Executed Prisoners,” which allowed the bodies and organs of prisoners to be used at will by the State under certain conditions.

More cases of political prisoners being killed for organs were reported in Xinjiang in the 1990s, with many of the organs harvested while the prisoners were still alive.
The Chinese government prioritized organ transplantation in its national strategy starting in 2000 by investing heavily in research, development, industrialization, and transplant personnel training. The number of transplant centers in China grew from 150 before 1999 to 570 by the end of 2004 and more than 1,000 in 2007. China’s transplantation industry became the most prolific in the world in only a few years. 

This exponential rise in transplants occurred alongside the Chinese Communist Party’s campaign to wipe out Falun Gong practitioners. Since this campaign began in July 1999, Falun Gong practitioners in China have faced imprisonment and torture in forced labor camps, black jails, prisons, brainwashing centers, and secret military detention facilities. They have also been forcibly subjected to blood tests and medical tests related to organ function, both in custody and in their homes. By May 2017, China’s public security system had built a national database of more than 40 million individuals, including dissidents and migrants.

To eradicate Falun Gong, the central Communist Party leadership established a unified chain of operations through various levels of the extralegal “610 Office” and the Political and Legal Affairs Committee. This system of persecution has also enabled the procurement of organs from Falun Gong practitioners on demand. The People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department has served as the core operations unit overseeing secret detention facilities and concentration camps, as well as the dispatch of organ sources (living “donors”) and supervision of organ procurement. The entire state apparatus, including military units, armed police, the judiciary, medical industry, and organ brokers, has been used to carry out this crime.

Harvesting organs from Falun Gong practitioners not only supports the Communist Party’s campaign to destroy what it declared to be its number one enemy, but also provides financial and promotion opportunities for civilian and military hospitals. Organ transplantation has always been a health benefit offered to the Communist Party’s elite. This benefit is also extended to foreign dignitaries and the elite of overseas Chinese as a means to gain influence as part of the regime’s United Front (see section “Roles of the Communist Party and Government Agencies”).

Since the organ harvesting crimes began, a number of events have intentionally or unintentionally provided evidence of the killing of innocents for organs. These include officials’ speeches at an award ceremony for innovations that included an organ preservation solution that resulted in better organ function for transplantation after lethal injections (see section “Wang Lijun’s Organ Procurement Innovations”).

In addition, more than 100 million patrons in the West have seen the plastinated bodies of these same victims in China as exhibits for popular consumption. Plastinated body parts from China have also been sold to medical schools and universities throughout the West. Plastination exhibits give an immediate, widespread, publicly visible reality to these abuses that would ordinarily not be available (see section “Plastinated Bodies”).

Whistleblowers have contributed to the effort to uncover the state’s roles and methods in perpetrating these crimes by providing information not otherwise available to the public. Among them are employees
in both military and civilian hospitals, a medical university administrator, and Communist Party officials. The latest findings have corroborated their allegations (see section “Whistleblowers”).

Global Expansion and Implications

China’s purported reform has gained recognition by some international transplant organizations as a result of public relations campaigns, hosting experts on guided visits, and presentation of falsified data and aggressive blueprints at international forums, including Vatican summits on organ trafficking and transplant conferences. This has led academic institutions and pharmaceutical companies to continue collaborating with China’s transplant entities under the impression that their ethical concerns had been addressed (see section “Global Impact”).

Huang Jiefu visited Taiwan in December 2014 to promote the establishment of a "cross-strait organ exchange platform" to export human organs from the mainland to Taiwan, such that “patients would no longer need to travel from Taiwan to mainland China to undergo transplants.”

Huang promoted China’s organ transplant industry to overseas markets in August 2015, stating, “The future transplant costs in China will still be the cheapest, most accessible in the world, and of high quality.”

In November 2017, the China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation (COTDF) signed an organ sharing and allocation agreement with the Macau Health Bureau and said that the arrangement would significantly alleviate the organ shortage in Macau. Residents of Macau, Hong Kong, and Taiwan can already register for organs through COTRS. Training for medical personnel in Macau under the “Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation began in January 2018. As of the end of 2017, a total of 519 Hong Kong residents and 50 Macau residents had received organ transplants in mainland China as part of COTRS.

At a national human organ donation and transplantation conference in 2017, Huang presented organ transplantation as part of China’s “One Belt, One Road Initiative”, which aims to strengthen economic and political ties between China and other parts of Asia, Europe, East Africa, and Oceania. In November 2017, the Tahoe Investment Group, which had donated 100 million RMB to COTDF, signed a memorandum of strategic cooperation with the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center to import its leading technology, including organ transplantation.

When most organs in China are procured by the killing of innocents, the expansion of organ sharing arrangements also exports these crimes beyond China’s borders.
Conclusions

- China came to perform more transplants than any other nation in just a few years after the industry took off in 2000 despite the absence of a voluntary organ system and a declining rate of death-row executions.\textsuperscript{167} 168 169 Its transplant industry has continued to grow after the killing of prisoners of conscience for organs gained international attention in 2006.

- Despite its claim that donations have become the sole organ source since 2015, China continues to perform transplants on demand on a scale far greater than its official figure of 15,000 per year. Additionally, large numbers of foreigners continue to travel to China for organ transplants despite official statements to the contrary.

- The national organ donation and allocation system (COTRS) is used as a façade to launder illicitly obtained organs. As of the end of 2017, the number of registered donors in China would have yielded less than 29 donations per year. Furthermore, the number of reported donations from various regions, including from ICUs, also cannot support the official number of transplants, which is already understated. Agencies purported to provide regulatory oversight for the donation system remain empty shells.

- The vast majority of organs transplanted in China continue to be procured from prisoners of conscience in extrajudicial killings that began in 2000. The harvesting of organs for transplantation serves the Communist Party’s campaign to destroy what it declared to be an “enemy of the state,” serves the Communist Party’s United Front efforts to gain influence with foreign dignitaries and the elite of overseas Chinese, and provides fame and financial gain with which to incentivize hospitals and doctors to participate in medical genocide.

- China’s illusion of progress has led some international organizations to endorse and even promote its donation and transplantation system. This false appearance of reform was created by its seemingly overnight transition to ethical organ sourcing, ambitious blueprints, and transplant center showcases.

- The “Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation continues to be supported by the killing of innocents behind the scenes. China’s expansion of influence in the field and organ sharing agreements with other parts of Asia, “One Belt, One Road” regions, and beyond, as well as the desire of international organizations to adopt this model, have far-reaching implications for the world.
Data Sources and Methodology

Due to state censorship and widespread falsification of public data in China, the true transplant volume and organ sourcing cannot be precisely calculated or determined. However, there is a Chinese saying that goes, “One can tell autumn’s arrival by observing the falling leaves.”

Regarding the scale of the industry:

- The minimum system-wide transplant capacity is calculated using the minimum bed count requirements for the original 164 approved transplant hospitals imposed by the Ministry of Health.
- The above data are validated by an analysis of the transplant scale of each individual hospital based on its qualifications, capacity and number of transplants conducted, revenue growth, bed counts and utilization rates, personnel strength, funding, relationships with other hospitals, and other attributes.
- The above data are further corroborated with media reports and the size of the immunosuppressant drug market.

Regarding organ sources:

- To determine the sources of organs used, we tracked the timeline and evolving policies surrounding the sources identified by China: executed death-row prisoners and recently introduced voluntary donation programs, including from relatives, cadavers, and donations after brain and cardiac death.
- To determine the degree to which voluntary donations are governed, facilitated, and protected by law, we examined China’s legislation, regulations, industry standards, technical specifications, and potential loopholes exploited by the Chinese regime.
- To determine the feasibility of this system to guide and oversee organ donation and transplantation in China, we examined the architecture, implementation, and operation of China’s donation, allocation and transplantation system.
- To determine the extent to which China’s transplantation system has transitioned to the exclusive use of donated organs, we tracked the history of donor registration and calculated the equivalent number of deceased donors based on the ratio of registered donor deaths and actual donors in the United States.
- To determine the accuracy of official donation figures, we compared them against calculated donation volumes and records of organ donations in various regions, including data from ICUs and donation offices.

Regarding victims:

- To determine the minimum gap of unaccountable organs, we compared the number of possible transplants from officially acknowledged sources against the minimum total transplant volume estimated above.
- To determine the causes and drivers of the killing of prisoners of conscience for organs, we identified Party and State policies, as well as the roles of the Party and government agencies involved, based on public information, insiders’ testimonies and admissions.
The data were primarily sourced from Chinese medical journals, media reports, official statements, government and hospital websites, web archives, government policies, legislation and industry regulations, national strategies and plans, research programs and funding allocations, awards, patents, and other public sources. Researchers also made phone calls to hospitals in China to verify the status of their organ transplant programs and other information.

In addition to our new findings, we include updated and supplemented portions of previous research for context. Case studies and a comprehensive database of Chinese transplant hospitals are available separately on our website.\textsuperscript{170}
China, the most populated nation on earth, has become home to a booming organ transplant industry. About 20 kinds of organ transplants are performed in China, and there are millions of patients waiting for transplants.

I. Fast Growth of China’s Transplant Industry Since 2000

While China began to conduct research and clinical experiments in human organ transplantation in the 1960s, it was not until 2000 that the industry entered a period of tremendous growth. The government has incorporated organ transplantation into its national strategy and invested heavily in research, development, and personnel training in transplantation technology. Liver and kidney transplants have become routine surgery in clinical practice, and new techniques for transplantation and postoperative care have been adopted.

Before 1999, there were 150 transplant institutions in mainland China. By the end of 2004, there were 570 transplant centers, including 56 for heart transplants, 166 for liver transplants, and 348 for kidney transplants. Since then, China has had the largest deceased-donor kidney and liver transplant programs in the world. In 2007, more than 1,000 hospitals applied for permits from the Ministry of Health to continue performing transplants.

According to He Xiaoshun, a member of the Expert Committee of the Human Organ Donation Commission and Vice President of the First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, the year 2000 was a watershed moment for the organ transplant industry in China; the number of liver transplants in 2000 reached 10 times that of 1999. By 2005, the number had tripled further.

Wu Mengchao, President of the Affiliated Eastern Hepatobiliary Surgery Hospital of the Second Military Medical University and the “father of hepatobiliary surgery in China,” said in May 2011, “in terms of liver transplants, our quantity has been the largest in the world. The quality and result are also good. We have caught up with international standards.”

Since 2000, the United States, with 130 million registered organ donors—half of all U.S. adults—has performed an average of 6,000 liver transplants a year. In China, despite the paucity of donors, this number could be matched by just a few hospitals.

The surge in transplants, while mostly absorbed by the domestic population, was accompanied by a corresponding boom in transplant tourism from other countries, making China a global center for those in need of new vital organs.
II. On-Demand Transplants

The 2013 article on the left by the state-affiliated *Phoenix Weekly* underscored the growth of organ tourism to China within the past decade and highlighted how organs are supplied on-demand and matched quickly with no waiting time. It also said that the number of transplants performed in China exceeded that in the U.S.183 The article stated:

“In the past decade, with the trend of ‘organ transplant tourism,’ many instances of unbelievably efficient transplant surgeries have appeared in the press. One doctor performed 246 liver transplants in one year. A patient received two kidney transplants within 48 hours… International medical experts have doubts about China’s huge organ sources: as a routine surgery, organ transplantation itself is not difficult; the difficult part is mainly matching and searching for organs. When the international community requires years of waiting to find a matching liver or kidney, why does the ‘searching miracle’ only happen frequently in China?”

“International medical experts have analyzed the phenomena in mainland China’s organ transplant market. They think China must have an enormous underground human organ bank, or even a living donor organ bank, in which donors have their blood types tested and other related documents prepared ahead of time. When there is ‘demand’ on the market, these living organ donors are sent to ‘hospitals’ (slaughterhouses)…”

“…a special characteristic in mainland China is that there is no wait time, and matched organs are found practically on demand …”

The article has since been deleted from its original website.
Case Study: Patient Receives Same-Day Liver Transplant at Huashan Hospital in 2016

A liver failure patient received a liver transplant on the same day that he was transferred to Huashan Hospital of Fudan University in Shanghai in April 2016.184

According to a fundraising website in mainland China, on April 28, 2016, a patient with severe liver failure was transferred from the 5th Shanghai People’s Hospital to Shanghai Huashan Hospital. At 22:30 the same day, the patient was taken to the operating room. At 01:00 on April 29, a matching liver was delivered to the operating room … at 08:00, the transplant surgery was successfully completed.

To pay the surgery fee of more than 600,000 RMB, the patient’s daughter borrowed money from relatives and friends. She also raised funds from a fundraising website at the same time. The following are excerpts from this web page:

Source: Easy Fundraising Website
Status: ID has been submitted, the medical certificates have been submitted
Patient name: Lu Sanjiafu (鲁三家福)
Beneficiary: Lu Xiaoqian (鲁晓倩)
Relationship: father and daughter

“On April 24, 2016, we were told by doctors at the 5th Shanghai People’s Hospital, ‘Your father has severe liver failure. He must be hospitalized immediately due to his life-threatening condition.’ The doctors said they would take conservative treatment as the first step. If the situation did not improve, he would have to be transferred to another hospital for a liver transplant.”
“Unfortunately, in the several days that followed, my father’s situation worsened very quickly, and the doctors issued a medical crisis notice. We tried every means to contact transplant hospitals. At last, with someone’s help, my father was accepted by Shanghai Huashan Hospital on April 28th.”

“Luckily, upon his admission to Huashan Hospital, the doctors immediately talked with us and said there was a matched liver source that day. If we agreed, they would arrange the transplant surgery right away. The transplant cost would be at least 600,000 RMB.”

“We signed the agreement with the hospital and then began to borrow and raise money immediately ... Finally, we managed to get the money and pay for the surgery ...”

“At 22:30 on April 28th, my father was taken to the operating room. At 01:00 on April 29th, a matched liver was delivered to the operating room ... At 08:00, the liver transplant surgery was successfully completed ...”

Established in 1907, **Huashan Hospital** was formerly the Chinese Red Cross General Hospital and has a high reputation domestically and internationally. The Fudan University Organ Transplantation Research Institute was established at this hospital in February 2002. The institute has achieved many "firsts" in China’s transplant field.

Ding Qiang, President of Huashan Hospital and Deputy Director of the Organ Transplantation Research Institute of Fudan University, specializes in kidney transplantation. Wang Zhengxin, director of the liver transplant center, specializes in complicated liver transplants, transplants involving liver cancer, and postoperative management. He acknowledged that he had completed about 800 liver transplants as of April 2015.
“We will continue to perform transplants until one is successful and will not charge for the repeat surgeries in case of failure...”

—Kunming Kidney Disease Hospital

Case Study: Donors Seeking Recipients

This was the guarantee of Yunnan Kunming Kidney Disease Hospital, an “organ transplant hospital that has donors seeking matched recipients.” The hospital made this statement when answering a patient’s question online on July 17, 2007, one year after China’s forced organ harvesting was exposed.

This hospital specializes in kidney and liver transplantation and was designated as an organ transplant center for Yunnan Province. It has approximately 100 transplant beds distributed among standard and luxury wards and 20 ICU beds. Its reputation has attracted patients from over ten countries and regions. 190 191

The well-known transplant expert Gao Wei formerly served as its president in charge of technology. 192 Gao was also the chief surgeon at Kunming Forensic Hospital, one of the earliest facilities to research “deaths induced by drug injection.” 193 Kidney transplants was its first pillar. 194 Although neither hospital was approved for transplants in 2007, as of April 2018, the Kunming Kidney Disease Hospital’s website redirected to Boya Hospital, which has a strong transplant team. 195 The forensic hospital’s website still shows that it completed thousands of solid organ tissue typing tests between 2001 and 2008. 196

Guarantees to every patient to find a healthy kidney in the shortest possible time.

Provides the shortest possible cold and warm ischemia times.

This is the only organ transplant hospital in China that has donors seeking matched recipients. In case of failure, we will continue to perform transplants until one is successful and will not charge for the repeat surgeries.
Short Waiting Times

In countries with advanced healthcare capabilities and well-organized organ donation systems, patients usually wait many months or years for a donor organ to become available. Yet, in China, where organ donation is culturally taboo and there is not yet an effective organ donation system, matching organs can be found whenever needed, suggesting that there is a large number of readily available organ sources waiting to be matched to patients.

![Median Kidney Wait Time in Days](image)

*Sources: *United States Renal Data System **The Guardian*

The organ transplantation department of the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University, China International Transplantation Network Assistance Center (CITNAC), said on its website:

As for kidney transplantation, it may take one week to find an HLA-matched donor, the maximum time being one month ... If an abnormal situation with the donor's organ is discovered, the center will be responsible for choosing another donor for the patient and commence the operation again within one week.

*Screenshot of the CITNAC website*
Shanghai Changzheng Hospital’s organ transplant department stated on its application form for liver transplantation in 2006 that the average waiting time for liver transplants was one week\textsuperscript{200} and that the shortest waiting time was 4 hours.\textsuperscript{201} Between 2003 and 2006, the hospital performed 120 emergency liver transplants for patients who required a transplant operation within 72 hours.\textsuperscript{202} It is worth noting that these cases took place at a time when China did not have an organ donation system.

According to the China Liver Transplant Registry’s 2006 Annual Report, of the 8,486 liver transplants performed in 29 facilities in China, 4,331 were classified as either emergency or elective. Emergency transplants comprised 1,150 (26.6\%) of classified cases, which means that these liver transplants were performed within 72 hours.\textsuperscript{203} Waiting times for elective liver transplants were usually quoted in weeks.

Given that most liver transplants use the whole liver and there was no organ donation system in China before 2010, finding donor organs for such a large number of emergency transplants would have been nearly impossible.
Hospitals Perform Multiple Transplants Simultaneously

Another common pattern we observed was hospitals routinely performing multiple transplants a day. It was no longer seen as a special achievement when one department conducted more than 10 or even 20 kidney transplants within 24 hours. We list examples below.

![ABUNDANT ORGAN SUPPLIES](image)

*Figure: Highest publicly reported numbers of transplants conducted in one day at hospitals in case studies below.*

Sixteen organ transplants (10 heart, liver, and kidney and 6 corneal) were performed at the Calmette International Hospital in Kunming between 8:00 am on October 19, 2016 and early the next morning. About 140 medical personnel directly participated in the transplant surgeries. This report has been removed from the hospital’s website, but an archived version is available. In March 2017, the hospital performed 15 transplant surgeries in 24 hours.205

**Xinqiao Hospital**, affiliated with the Third Military Medical University in Chongqing, once carried out 24 kidney transplants in one day. It had conducted a total of 2,590 kidney transplants by 2002.206

On December 1, 2008, *Qilu Evening News* reported that the General Hospital of Jinan Military Command was capable of performing 6 kidney transplants simultaneously. It set a record of 16 kidney transplants within 24 hours. Its annual transplant volume ranked among the nation's top 10 for ten consecutive years.207

The Liver Transplant Center at **West China Hospital** has five full sets of imported liver transplant equipment, allowing five liver transplant operations to be performed simultaneously.208 The center once performed seven liver transplants in one day, setting a national record at that time.209

On February 18, 2014, sixteen doctors of the Hepatology Center at **Fuzhou General Hospital of the Nanjing Military Command** carried out five simultaneous liver transplants within seventeen hours.210

At **Wuxi People’s Hospital**, Chen Jingyu, “the number one lung transplant surgeon in China,” often conducted four or five lung transplants a day.211

The **Xiangya Hospital of Central South University** conducted 17 transplants on April 28, 2006, including 7 kidney transplants simultaneously, 2 liver transplants, and 8 corneal transplants.212
Beijing Chaoyang Hospital reportedly conducted 21 transplant surgeries in one day in the early 2000s. The founder of the transplant center at the Second People’s Hospital of Shanxi, Wu Xiaotong, often spent 12 hours a day performing transplant surgeries one after another. In August 2006, the center recorded over 100 patients waiting for transplants at any given time. It conducted 11 kidney transplants on August 15, 2006.

Multiple Transplants for the Same Patient

In mainland China, it is not unusual for doctors to procure multiple organs for use as spares or to perform multiple transplant operations due to rejection, both in quick succession, on the same patient. These cases have even included third and fourth transplants. On one occasion, eight pairs of kidneys were procured for the same patient.

For example, Tan Jianming, Vice President of the Fuzhou General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command, had reportedly performed more than 4,200 kidney transplants as of 2014. Among his patients was a 35-year old male at Shanghai General Hospital in September 2003. In two weeks, Tan was able to acquire 4 sets of kidneys with blood samples, but none of them matched. In March 2004, Tan managed to obtain 4 more sets of kidneys in rapid succession for the same patient, the last of which matched successfully. Thus, 8 pairs of kidneys were explanted for just one patient.

In 2006, a chief surgeon named Wang Guangce published a study analyzing 50 kidney re-transplant cases at the First Affiliated Hospital of Henan University of Traditional Chinese Medicine. Among the 50 cases, 46 were second transplants, 3 were third transplants, and one was a fourth transplant for the same patient. The duration between transplants and re-transplants ranged between 2 hours and 8 years. Five of the cases were orthotopic re-transplants where a second kidney was found and transplanted within 10 days of the original transplant. This indicates that in 5 such cases, a second kidney was found and transplanted within 10 days. In at least one case, another kidney was found within 2 hours.

In another example, surgeon Zhu Tongyu at Zhongshan Hospital Affiliated to Fudan University performed a fourth kidney transplant for the same patient.

Shen Zhongyang at the Tianjin Oriental Organ Transplant Center performed two separate liver transplants for the movie star Fu Biao. Shen stated that among this center’s patients, secondary transplants due to improper handling accounted for 10% to 20% of all cases.
Replacing Any Body Part as Needed

The hospitals surveyed performed a wide variety of transplants: kidney, liver, heart, lung, spleen, adrenal gland, pancreas, combined liver-kidney, combined pancreas-kidney, heart-lung, heart-kidney, small intestine, liver-pancreas-duodenum, pancreas-duodenum-kidney, liver-pancreas, liver-small intestine, pancreas-kidney, parathyroid, thyroid-parathyroid-thymus, abdominal organ cluster, all 7 abdominal organs, and 8 large full abdominal organs. The list has 23 kinds of single-organ and multi-organ transplants, including cornea, bone marrow, testicle, bone, skin (including facial), breast, hair, larynx, and many other types of tissue transplants.

For example, following the first successful multivisceral transplant in Asia in 2004, He Xiaoshun's team at the First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University continued its key technology research and moved this type of transplant from clinical trials to routine application.221

Permits from the Ministry of Health (or its successor, the National Health and Family Planning Commission) are required to conduct six types of solid organ transplants, including kidney, liver, heart, lung, pancreas, and small intestine, whereas cell and tissue transplants do not require permits. However, the vast majority of institutions have expanded into multiple types of transplants beyond the ones for which they have received permits.

For example, Peking University Third Hospital carries out transplants of heart, lung, cornea, stem cell, bone marrow, vascular grafts, and hair, in addition to the types for which they have approval: liver, kidney, pancreas, and small intestine. This hospital performs at least eleven types in total. Zhongshan Hospital of Xiamen University has approval to perform only heart transplants but also performs nine types of transplants, including kidney, liver, pancreas, spleen, lung, heart-lung, small intestine, islet cell, corneal, and bone marrow. Wuxi People’s Hospital is approved only for lung transplants but also carries out eight other types: kidney, liver, heart, pancreas, cornea, stem cell, bone marrow, and vascular grafts.

The number of transplant types conducted by 165 Ministry-approved hospitals are shown below:

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Number of transplant types carried out by hospitals (note: not all types require permits from the Ministry of Health)
III. Organs Extracted from Living Bodies

China Medical University’s China International Transplantation Network Assistance Center (CITNAC) openly emphasized:

“In China, we carry out living donor kidney transplants. It is completely different from the cadaveric kidney transplants you hear about in Japanese hospitals and dialysis centers … Compared to cadaveric kidney transplants in Japan, what is offered here is much safer and more reliable.”

Even after forced organ harvesting in China was exposed, this statement remained on the center’s English website until August 29, 2007.

The center adopted a rapid liver procurement technique that involves excising all abdominal organs simultaneously, which can reduce both damage to the liver and warm ischemia time.

Living transplants in mainland China differ from those in the rest of the world. In China, it is common practice to excise whole vital organs, such as a pair of kidneys or a whole liver, from living sources, thereby killing the “donor.” This had started before the organ donation system was first piloted in 2010.
High-Quality Organ Sources

Chinese transplant hospitals claim to have ample supplies of young, healthy organ donors. For example, Dr. Liao Jixiang, an organ transplant coordinator at People’s Liberation Army Hospital No.303 in Nanning, Guangxi Province, revealed on May 30, 2017, “Because in order to do a [transplant] surgery, there must be someone who has departed …”

“We often have a lot of [organ sources] here and use those people from their teens to twenty years old, those kids, that kind of quality is very good … and we can’t use them all … for example, after procuring 100 livers, maybe our own center only does 20 transplants, and the other 70 or 80 are reallocated [to other transplant centers]. So, we usually keep and use the good ones, that’s for sure.”

In medical papers published by doctors at these hospitals, donors are often described as “free of hepatitis, fatty liver, malignant tumors and chronic disease with no long-term medication history or history of alcohol consumption.” Most of these papers cited warm ischemia times (WIT: the period of time from circulatory arrest to the initiation of cold organ preservation) of less than 10 minutes, with some even listed as 0 minutes. The majority of organs were reportedly sourced from brain-dead donors, cadavers, non-heartbeat cadavers, and healthy young cadavers. A few examples are listed below:

Table: Warm ischemia times for liver transplants reported in medical publications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical Institution</th>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Organ Source</th>
<th>Warm ischemia time (min)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nanjing Medical University Affiliated Hospital</td>
<td>2005-2007</td>
<td>112 cadavers, 15 living donors</td>
<td>0-10, average 3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Artillery General Hospital</td>
<td>2004-2007</td>
<td>103 healthy young cadavers</td>
<td>0-5, average 3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai Changzheng Hospital</td>
<td>2001-2004</td>
<td>240 cadavers with undisclosed identities</td>
<td>0-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tianjin No.1 Central Hospital</td>
<td>2003-2005</td>
<td>195 non-heartbeat cadavers</td>
<td>0-8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zhang Xiaodong, director of the Kidney Transplant Center at Beijing Chaoyang Hospital, said, “After the heart stops beating, the circulation stops, and this will cause organs to fail. The tolerable WIT is 3 to 4 minutes for hearts, 5 to 8 minutes for livers, and 30 minutes for kidneys.”

Organs with such short warm ischemia times were unlikely to be sourced from cadavers or brain-dead donors, given that the above cases took place at a time when China did not have an organ donation system.

Organ Procurement Standards and Innovations with “Chinese Characteristics”

Despite the limited supply of death-row organs and lack of donations, warm ischemia times of 0 to 5 minutes with “no-heartbeat cadavers” have become a standard practice for Chinese transplant doctors, who compete to develop their own procedures for excising organs to achieve the desired short warm ischemia times.
Tianjin Medical Journal published a study in 2009 that analyzed 1,600 liver procurements performed between 2004 and 2008 at the Oriental Organ Transplant Center in Tianjin. Among these 1,600 cases, most livers were taken from young, healthy males with an average age of 34.5 years. Based on this study, Shen Zhongyang, director of the center, created a surgical procedure for extracting livers from “no-heartbeat cadavers” that could keep the warm ischemia time to 5 minutes or less.

However, such short warm ischemia times could not have been obtained using “no-heartbeat cadavers” as claimed, except after executions, given that China had no donation system before 2010. This suggests that living people were killed through this type of organ extraction and turned into “no-heartbeat cadavers.”

The number of livers used by the Oriental Organ Transplant Center alone exceeded the number of citizen organ donations in all of China. Between 2003 and August 2009, only 130 citizens successfully donated their organs after death in mainland China. This translates to fewer than 30 donors per year.

Death-row prisoners also could not have supplied enough organs to carry out these transplants. The highest estimate for death-row executions in China is 10,000 per year out of a population of 1.3 billion. Proportionally, Tianjin’s population of 12 million would result in fewer than 100 executions each year, or fewer than 500 in the five years between 2004 and 2008. The number of viable livers from this population is far from enough to provide for the 1,600 liver transplants in the 2009 study.

Nevertheless, Shen’s procedure with “Chinese characteristics” has been adopted as an industry standard for liver procurement in China. In a similar example, Director Zhu Jiye of Peking University People’s Hospital stated in 2013 that all 4,000 liver and kidney transplants the hospital performed in one year before 2010 came from death-row prisoners. This organ source is not a plausible explanation based on the same analysis above.

Other well-known transplant centers have also developed organ excision procedures to minimize warm ischemia times. Liu Yongfeng, director of China Medical University’s Institute of Organ Transplantation, created a technique for rapid extraction of an abdominal organ by excising surrounding organs simultaneously, which he claimed could reduce both organ damage and warm ischemic time. This procedure is now widely used in many hospitals throughout China.
CHAPTER II  Drivers of Growth

I. National Strategy and Funding

Since 2000, organ transplantation, one of the “comprehensive, leading future emerging industries” meant to drive China’s future global development, has assumed a high priority as a national strategy. As such, the government has invested heavily in research, development, and personnel training in transplantation technology to meet the needs of this rapidly growing industry.

The Five-Year Plan of China is a series of social and economic development initiatives that are part of China's national plan for economic development shaped by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) through plenary sessions of the Central Committee and national congresses.

Since 2000, the government has continuously incorporated organ transplantation into its Five-Year Plans for multiple ministries. In 2001, establishing organ transplantation regulations was listed as part of the Tenth Five-Year Plan for the Ministry of Health. In 2004, organ transplantation technology was added as a major research area and key technology in the Tenth Five-Year Plan for National Health, Science and Technology Development of the People’s Republic of China, as well as in the Eleventh Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program in 2008, and once again in the Twelfth Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program in 2011.

China’s National Program on Key Basic Research Projects, the 973 Program, is a foundational research and major development project guided by national strategic demands. It is meant to be “strategic, forward-looking, comprehensive” and assume a leading role in China's development of important scientific technology.” The program was established to “solve major scientific issues that are part of national strategic needs, provide a scientific basis for sustainable development of the national economy and society, and provide for innovation for the future formation of high technology.”

The High Technology Research and Development Program, the 863 Program, aims to address high-tech issues of national long-term development and national security; it is meant to be “strategic, cutting-edge and forward-looking.” This project intends to develop high technology with independent intellectual property rights, to coordinate the integration and application of high technology, and lead the development of future emerging industries.

A large number of organ transplantation projects have been developed as a result of funding from these major national programs as well as from other sources within the central government. The military and local governments have also invested heavily in domestic medical institutions to facilitate basic research and development in organ transplantation and promote its industrialization. These strategies are illustrated by the examples below:
Case Study: First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University

The new surgery building at the First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-Sen University opened in August 2014.

This hospital performed the first successful kidney transplant in China in 1972 and the first liver transplant with venovenous bypass in China in 1993. It is described as the birthplace of China’s second surge of liver transplants. Alongside liver, kidney, heart, and lung transplants, it also routinely conducts upper abdominal multi-organ transplants. It is one of the most renowned kidney transplants center inside and outside of China. Huang Jiefu was the director of the transplant department before becoming Deputy Minister of Health in November 2001.

An archived web page of its organ transplant department from 2013 showed that this department has engaged in over 50 research projects under the 863 Program and the Twelfth Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program, as well as a project under the National Natural Science Foundation during the three previous years.

As of April 2018, the academic leader of the center, He Xiaoshun, has presided over 30 research projects with total funding of more than 40 million RMB. From 1996 to 1998, he received only 80,000 RMB from the National Natural Science Foundation despite having worked in this field for over ten years. In the seven years from 2001 to 2008, he received research funding of 850,000 RMB, a 10-fold increase. From 2008 to 2015, his team obtained research project grants totaling 12 million RMB, a 14-fold increase in 7 years, including a 2.88 million RMB project under the 863 Program on key transplantation technology between 2012 and 2015. He’s team has also secured 33 million RMB in research funding from 2016 to 2020, which is almost triple the funding for the 7 years between 2008 and 2015.

A portion of He’s other projects are listed below:
Table: Part of projects of He Xiaoshun’s Team\(^{254}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding Source</th>
<th>Project Name</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Funding Amount RMB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Natural Science Foundation</td>
<td>Recombinant Adiponectin Ameliorates Liver Ischemia Reperfusion Injury via Activating the AMPK/eNOS Pathway</td>
<td>Sep 2009 – Dec 2012</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Health</td>
<td>Clinical and experimental research for improving organ quality from donation after cardiac death</td>
<td>Jan 2010 – Dec 2012</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Natural Science Foundation</td>
<td>Calpain 2-mediated autophagy defect increases susceptibility of fatty livers to ischemia–reperfusion injury</td>
<td>Aug 2011 – Dec 2015</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>863 Program</td>
<td>Strategies of Diagnosis and Treatment for Infectious Diseases Influencing Graft Survival</td>
<td>Jan 2012 – Dec 2015</td>
<td>2,880,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>863 Program</td>
<td>Establishment of Key Surgical Techniques and Diagnostic Criteria for Transplantation of Intestine and Abdominal Organ Clusters</td>
<td>Jan 2012 – Dec 2015</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangzhou Science and Technology Plan</td>
<td>Application of MicroRNA Markers in Predicting Early Rejection after Liver Transplantation</td>
<td>Jan 2012 – Mar 2015</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Natural Science Foundation</td>
<td>Protective Effect and Mechanism of Mesenchymal Stem Cells Implanted with DCD Donor Liver at Normal Temperature</td>
<td>Aug 2015 – Dec 2019</td>
<td>684,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanyuebaijie Development Project</td>
<td>2014 Guangdong Outstanding Talent Special Fund</td>
<td>Jun 2015 – Mar 2018</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong Province Science and Technology Plan</td>
<td>Guangdong Provinicial Key Laboratory of Organ Donation and Transplantation Immunology</td>
<td>Dec 2014 – Aug 2017</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong Province Science and Technology Plan</td>
<td>Construction of a Cooperative Base for International Cooperation on Organ Transplantation</td>
<td>Sep 2015 – Dec 2017</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong Provincial Natural Science Foundation - Major Basic Research Cultivation</td>
<td>Protective Effect and Mechanism of Mesenchymal Stem Cells Implanted with DCD Donor Liver at Normal Temperature</td>
<td>Aug 2015 – Oct 2017</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Project Development and Emerging Cross-Disciplinary Funding Plan</td>
<td>Standardization of multi-center clinical data for liver donation after cardiac death and accurate molecular assessment of donor livers</td>
<td>Dec 2015 – Dec 2016</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun Yat-sen University &quot;Five Five Projects&quot;</td>
<td>“Five Five Projects&quot; Special Funds</td>
<td>Oct 2015 – Oct 2020</td>
<td>25,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From "Follower" to "Leader" of Worldwide Transplantation Technology

Since the advent of organ transplantation technology, China has trailed developed countries in the field. This hospital website states that in the past two decades, He Xiaoshun's team has focused on key technology research and made breakthroughs in the areas of non-ischemic and multivisceral transplantation.

Multiple-organ transplantation is relatively new in the transplant field. He’s team advanced multiple organ transplantation from clinical trials to routine application. His team performed the first successful multi-organ transplant in Asia in 2004 and has conducted the most simplified multivisceral transplants in the world.

Ischemia-reperfusion injury is unavoidable in traditional organ transplants and is an important factor in graft survival. He created a liver transplant technique that maintains blood flow through the organ using a continuous extracorporeal blood supply. It can completely avoid ischemia-reperfusion injury and achieve significantly better liver function than traditional liver transplants, marking a transition from cold to warm organ preservation. He explained how this is achieved:

Prior to the removal of the liver from a living donor, the liver blood vessels are cut and connected to a "multi-organ function repair system," which takes over the blood supply and maintains blood flow to the donor’s liver. Before the liver is implanted into the recipient, the surgeons cut off and connect the recipient’s blood vessels to the system, allowing the recipient's circulatory system to take over the donor liver before withdrawing the machine. Throughout the process, the blood in the donor liver is kept warm, maintaining liver function and viability in an ex vivo state for a long time.

This technique can also be applied to heart, lung, kidney and other transplants.

José Núñez, advisor to the World Health Organization, said that He’s new method could be the future for all organ transplant surgeries. Campbell Fraser, former president of The Transplantation Society, added, “I think China is heading to be the center of innovation in transplantation. So now we’re not defending China. China is on the forefront at the edge of technology, patient care and developing new solutions to transplantation.”

Robert Porte, Director of the Liver Transplantation Program at University Medical Center Groningen in the Netherlands, led a six-person team to this hospital to study the non-ischemic liver transplant technique. Porte also signed a cooperate agreement with the hospital to expand the technique internationally.

He’s research on multivisceral transplantation was conducted well before 2004, when China did not have an organ donation system. In addition, the experiments and trials must have been conducted on living bodies, as there were no brain death standards defined in China at the time.

Transplants Conducted at Industrial Scale Despite Dearth of Donations

In 1998, the hospital's transplant surgery department was formed and moved into a new ward with 40 beds and equipped with amenities such as central air conditioning, televisions, and en suite bathrooms. In addition to patients from China, it also provides kidney transplants to patients from over ten countries and regions, including the United States, Japan, Hong Kong, and Taiwan.
In addition to the open transplant beds, the department claimed to have access to 50 mechanized beds that could be reallocated to transplants when needed. If a patient requires a transplant and there is a matching donor, the patient can immediately be admitted and receive preoperative examinations and surgery.

A *Guangzhou Daily* reporter witnessed the entire process of 5 liver transplants and 6 kidney transplants being conducted simultaneously at this center in March 2006. This event took place right after China’s living organ harvesting was brought to light. At its height, this center performed 19 kidney transplants in one day and set a record with 6 liver transplants and one multi-organ transplant in one day.

Its new surgery building with 600 beds opened in August 2014, further increasing the transplant capacity of the hospital.

Professor Zheng Keli, the deputy director of the National Kidney Transplant Study Group who worked with Huang Jiefu to establish the hospital’s organ transplant department, had performed more than 3,000 kidney transplants as of July 2012. The department’s current director, He Xiaoshun, had reportedly completed 1,300 liver transplants as of November 2015.

On June 30, 2015, Dr. Han with the Hepatobiliary Surgery Department spoke on the phone with an investigator from the World Organization to Investigate the Persecution of Falun Gong (WOIPFG) posing as a patient seeking a liver transplant. When the “patient” mentioned that Huang Jiefu had performed more than 500 liver transplants in the previous year, Dr. Han revealed, “We do more than 1,500 transplants [per year].”

In celebration of its 100th anniversary in October of 2010, the hospital stated that “tens of thousands of patients have received liver or kidney transplants” here. However, its current website shows that He Xiaoshun had led this center in performing only 7,000 liver, kidney, heart, pancreas, and small intestine transplants, including 3,600 kidney transplants, since 1972.

The website of its ophthalmic center stated that it had performed more than 40,000 corneal transplants and ocular surgeries.

Guangdong Province has led China in organ donation for seven consecutive years since China first piloted a donation system in 2010. The claimed donation figures are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deceased Donors</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Guangdong Province had a population of 111.69 million at the end of 2017. Its donor rate reached 3 per million in 2015, in 2015, 4.9 in 2016, and 5.9 in 2017, the highest of any province in China. Even so, all the donors in the province would have been insufficient for this one hospital. Meanwhile, there are 18 transplant hospitals in the province approved by the Ministry of Health.
Transplant Centers Funded by Large Government Investments

Most transplant institutions in China are supported by both government funding and the products of the technology development they promote. Below, we list more examples of large projects on which other organ transplant centers have embarked.

In order to consolidate and develop its national leading position in the field of organ transplantation, the Tianjin Municipal Party Committee and Municipal Government have invested about 170 million RMB since 2002 to build a new 17-story organ transplant center with 500 beds at the Oriental Organ Transplant Center at Tianjin First Central Hospital. This center claims to be the largest transplant center in Asia. Shen Zhongyang, the director of the center and the Institute of Organ Transplantation at the Chinese People's Armed Police General Hospital, was named the “father of liver transplantation in China.” He was appointed as the chief expert of the organ transplant program under the national 863 Program and named a subject expert in biological and medical technology under the same program.

The Eastern Hepatobiliary Hospital, affiliated with the Second Military Medical University in Shanghai, is a People’s Liberation Army Hepatobiliary Surgery Center and Research Institute and considered a top priority location in this field of development. In addition to its liver transplant department, most of its surgical departments can also perform liver transplants, including two special treatment departments designed for foreign patients and at least half of its six liver surgery departments. In October 2015, the hospital had 742 beds before it opened its new campus in Pudong New District with 1,500 beds.

As of July 2012, its website showed that it was conducting research in 150 projects with total funding of 130 million RMB. It had won more than 100 awards at national, provincial and ministerial levels, such as the National High Scientific Achievement Award, the National Science and Technology Conference Award, the National Scientific Improvement Award, and the National Natural Science Foundation Award. Its website has not been updated since then.

Dou Kefeng, the director of the PLA Organ Transplantation Institute at Xijing Hospital affiliated with the Fourth Military Medical University, has taken the lead in 37 research projects, including: three sub-projects of the national 863 Program, two projects of the Eleventh Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program, one major project and 16 other projects under the National Natural Science Foundation, and two major military Eleventh Five-Year scientific and technological research projects. Its total ongoing research funding exceeded 26.5 million RMB.

This transplant institution has a total of 110 beds, including 15 ICU beds equipped with the most advanced automatic disinfection laminar flow system in China, negative pressure rooms, and 95 advanced transplant beds. It has long-term partnerships and regular collaboration with internationally acclaimed organ transplant centers, including the Thomas E. Starzl Organ Transplant Center at the University of Pittsburgh in the U.S., the Organ Transplant Department at Kyoto University in Japan, Bismuth Liver Center in France, and Das Deutsche Herzzentrum (German Heart Center) in Berlin.

The Organ Transplantation Research Institute at Wuhan Tongji Hospital affiliated with Huazhong University of Science and Technology has undertaken over 30 science and technology research projects in the past decade, including those under the 863 Program and 973 Program, major projects funded by the National Natural Science Foundation, clinical key projects supported by the Ministry of Health, major
projects under the Hubei Province Natural Science Foundation, and other research projects commissioned by the Ministry of Health.

The Institute of Organ Transplantation Research at Xi’an Jiaotong University has recently taken the lead in 46 national and key departmental projects, including those under the 973 Program, the Eleventh Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program, National Natural Science Foundation, and a provincial Key Discipline.

In addition, other prestigious universities and affiliated hospitals, as well as almost all military and civilian medical universities and their affiliated hospitals, are rapidly developing their organ transplant research and receiving large amounts of national funding.

II. Lucrative Industry

A reform in China’s health system starting in the 1990s forced hospitals to rely on the sale of services and pharmaceuticals to cover their expenses. Under this system, hospitals have had to chase profits to survive. Transplantation—a new service, not covered by price controls, that provided private revenue and required anti-rejection drugs afterward—became a primary way for hospitals in China to make money.

Huang Jiefu said in 2015 that a liver transplant cost at least 600,000 RMB (about $96,000 USD) and that a kidney transplant cost more than 300,000 RMB (about $48,000 USD). He predicted in 2006, “The trend is that organ transplantation is becoming a tool for hospitals to make money.”

Dong Jiahong, director of the hepatobiliary surgery department at Beijing Tsinghua Chang Gung Hospital, revealed to Xinhua News Agency in October 2014, “For a liver cancer patient, an average liver resection may cost 20,000 to 30,000 RMB. Liver transplantation may cost over 200,000 RMB, and there are follow-up costs each year.”

Guangzhou Southern Weekend reported in March 2010 that since 2000, the sale of organs for transplants has become “a mine of high-grade ore that can’t be exhausted.”

The website of the Organ Transplant Center of the People’s Liberation Army Hospital No. 309 in Beijing openly stated, “Our Organ Transplant Center is our main revenue source. Its gross income in 2003 was 16,070,000 RMB. From January to June of 2004, income was 13,570,000 RMB. This year (2004) there is a chance to break through 30,000,000 RMB.”

Its revenue further rose from 30 million RMB in 2006 to 230 million RMB in 2010, an increase of nearly 8-fold in just four years. This example shows that the growth in organ transplantation continued after 2006.

The annual income of Daping Hospital affiliated with the Third Military Medical University also increased from 36 million RMB when it began to conduct organ transplants at the end of the 1990s to over 900 million RMB in 2009, an increase of nearly 25-fold.
Selling Organs

Because there were no guidelines for transplant fees in China, hospitals charged fees ranging from tens of thousands to hundreds of thousands of RMB. The fees included organ acquisition, including preservation and transportation costs, surgeries, and pharmaceuticals. Fees varied and depended on organ types, domestic versus foreign patients, transplant centers, regions, and urgency.

A common assumption is that the increase in fees is due to a shortage of organ supplies. This does not appear to be the case, however, as Huang Jiefu stated in 2015 that the limiting factors for organ transplantation in China lie primarily in medical costs and the availability of transplant hospitals and doctors rather than that of donors, which were “abundant.” Nevertheless, compared to the number of patients waiting for transplants, hospital capacity and organs remain scarce resources. The profit-maximizing strategy for hospitals has been to provide transplants to those most willing and able to pay.

International patients are charged up to hundreds of thousands of U.S. dollars more than domestic patients—fees that are many times the cost of treatment and pharmaceuticals. This takes advantage of the extremely inelastic nature of the market as such patients would otherwise have to wait years for a transplant. At the same time, patients who are less able to pay are made to wait much longer.

**Fees Paid by International Patients**

Huang Jiefu publicly stated in May 2007, “China is one of the cheapest countries in the world for organ transplants. Liver transplants [cost] about 1/10 of those in the U.S., and for kidney transplants it is about the same ratio [1/10].”

The surgery fee at Jiangsu Provincial People’s Hospital was one-eighth to one-tenth that of the same surgery in other countries as of 2003.

An on-site investigation by TV Chosun in October 2017 found that the regular kidney transplant cost for Korean patients at Tianjin Central Hospital was 120 million to 140 million South Korean won (about 900,000 RMB or $120,000 USD). A donation of 100,000 RMB [about 15 million won or $13,000 USD] above the regular charge could expedite the transplant from weeks to days. International patients from the Middle East, South Korea, and other regions were charged different prices than Chinese patients.

As of 2007, the website of the China International Transplant Network Assistance Center (CITNAC), which was established under the organ transplant department of the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University, listed transplant prices for foreigners. Kidney transplants cost more than $65,000 USD, liver transplants were $130,000, and lung and heart transplants each cost around $150,000.
List of transplant prices on the CITNAC website archived on May 19, 2007

As reported in 2006 by the Taiwanese broker Yeson Healthcare Service Network, a heart transplant at Zhongshan Hospital in Shanghai could be obtained for as little as $119,000 USD—a fraction of the $860,000 USD such an operation would cost in North America.303

However, transplant fees are not always low and depend on recipients’ urgency and ability to pay. For example, in 2014 and 2015, Yang Guang, an expert in Chinese domestic affairs who resides in Denmark, revealed the inside stories of two hospitals affiliated with a medical university in northeastern China where organ transplant prices for foreigners are not fixed. Usually, the hospitals charged $500,000 to $1 million USD. In some cases, those with money, desperate for organs, have been charged up to $2 million USD for a transplant and hospital stay. A Japanese woman who received a young girl’s liver was charged $5 million USD.304

**Trends and Factors in Liver Transplant Costs**

The main factors driving transplant costs include surgery and hospitalization costs, pharmaceuticals (including the ongoing regimen of anti-rejection drugs), and the cost of the donor organ.

Different hospitals charge different fees for transplants but generally follow a common trend. From a few of China’s main transplant centers, we have seen an overall decrease in transplant fees along with a decline in medical and pharmaceutical costs in the few years after 2000, when organ transplantation in China saw tremendous growth. We use the cost of liver transplants for domestic patients as examples.
Table. Summary of liver transplant costs for domestic patients at Wuhan Tongji Hospital.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1995-1999</th>
<th>By 2000</th>
<th>By 2001</th>
<th>By 2002</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surgery Length (hours)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transplant Cost (RMB)</td>
<td>300,000 - 400,000 &lt; 800,000</td>
<td>190,000 on average</td>
<td>150,000 &lt; 150,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Between 1995 and 1999, liver transplant surgeries at Wuhan Tongji Hospital required 10 hours. The cost averaged between 300,000 and 400,000 RMB and peaked at 800,000 RMB. By 2000, the cost had decreased to 190,000 RMB with a surgery time of 7-8 hours.\(^{305}\) By 2001, the institute could keep the liver transplant cost below 150,000 RMB on average; the surgery took 4-5 hours, which represented the best in the country. In August 2001, the institute performed a liver transplant for 110,000 RMB, the lowest nationwide.\(^{306}\) By 2002, Tongji Hospital had reduced its liver transplant operation time to 4 hours and the cost to below 150,000 RMB.\(^{307}\)

The director of the hospital’s organ transplant research institute stated that the decrease in costs was due to the maturation of technology, decrease in operation times, lowered costs of blood transfusions due to reduced bleeding during surgery, shorter anesthesia times, fewer postoperative complications, and shorter hospital stays.

The decrease in medical costs is also reflected at Shanghai General Hospital, which in 2002 eliminated the need for blood transfusions in one-third of its liver transplant surgeries. The entire operation time was reduced to four and a half hours, and the lowest cost was 142,000 RMB.\(^{308}\)

A 2003 investigation of liver transplant costs showed that early-stage recipients had an average pharmaceutical cost of 198,000 RMB every six months after surgery. The same cost for late-stage patients was more than 230,000 RMB. Transplant recipients also need long-term anti-rejection drugs, which cost more than 30,000 RMB per year.\(^{309}\)

In 2004, Nanjing Drum Tower Hospital’s hepatobiliary department director Ding Yitao told a reporter that the hospital’s liver transplant fee averaged 150,000 RMB. Postoperative anti-rejection drugs cost around 3,000 RMB per month for domestically produced products and 5,000 RMB for imported drugs.\(^{310}\)

In the same year, the People’s Liberation Army Hospital No. 309 charged 200,000 RMB for liver transplants and 300 RMB per day for anti-rejection drugs.\(^{311}\) Earlier the same year, the Oriental Organ Transplant Center charged approximately 250,000 RMB for liver transplants. By 2006, the fee had increased to 400,000 RMB for international patients but remained approximately 200,000 RMB for domestic patients.\(^{312}\)

Transplant costs steadily declined in the years between 2000 and 2006, when abusive organ harvesting was brought to light, due to technological advances and abundant organ sources. The dramatic decline in surgery and treatment costs made transplants affordable for a wider range of patients. The ready availability of organs, maturation of technology, and increase in both domestic and international patients created an exceptional growth in China's organ transplant industry.
From these descriptions of costs for liver and kidney transplants from different sources, we see that fees in recent years are significantly higher than those before 2006. However, pharmaceutical costs have trended downward. These trends suggest that transplant doctors and facilities cannot meet demand and that profits for hospitals and doctors represent an increasingly large portion of transplant fees.

In 2009, the cost of a liver transplant at Peking University First Hospital was between 160,000 and 200,000 RMB and included surgical fees, in-hospital monitoring, pharmaceuticals, and examination fees for around three weeks after the operation.\(^{313}\)

Lu Shichun, director of the Beijing You’an Hospital transplant center, revealed in a 2011 media interview that the fee for liver transplants differed among transplant centers and averaged around 400,000 to 500,000 RMB.\(^{314}\)

An August 2015 report indicated that liver transplants in China cost approximately 600,000 RMB.\(^{315}\)

In 2016, Wuhan Union Hospital, a sister institution of Tongji, still kept its fees low and advertised that liver transplants there cost around 150,000 RMB.\(^{316}\) This suggests that this hospital still has abundant organ sources and a short hospitalization period.

**Kidney Transplant Costs**

Below are the average costs of kidney transplants in different regions between 2000 and 2004 as reported in academic papers.\(^{317}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Transplant Centers</th>
<th>Average Hospitalization (days)</th>
<th>Average Cost (RMB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beijing</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>109,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>74,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tianjin</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>74,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiangsu Province</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>74,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henan Province</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>125,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hubei Province</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>104,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunan Province</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>81,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong Province</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>122,900</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We found lower prices in various media reports from earlier years:

The *Qilu Evening News* reported on July 28, 2003 that the General Hospital of Jinan Military Command charged 30,000 to 40,000 RMB for a kidney transplant and 20,000 to 40,000 RMB per year for immunosuppressive drugs thereafter.\(^{318}\)
It was reported in April 2006 that patients paid only 50,000 RMB for a liver at the Second Hospital of Dalian Medical University. This figure included only the organ procurement cost.\textsuperscript{319}

According to an archived web page from 2008, Shanghai Hospital of the Second Military Medical University advertised an average hospitalization fee of 50,000 RMB for kidney transplants.\textsuperscript{320}

In 2010, at the First People's Hospital of Changde, the average cost for a kidney transplant was about 80,000 RMB from a cadaveric donor or about 60,000 RMB between relatives with no complications.\textsuperscript{321}

It was reported that in early September 2014, a patient paid 600,000 RMB in cash to the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhengzhou University, which was able to find a matching kidney for him in one day. The transplant surgery was done the following day.\textsuperscript{322}

In August 2015, Jingchu Network indicated that kidney transplants in China cost approximately 300,000 RMB.\textsuperscript{323}

A People’s Daily report from November 16, 2015 indicated that the First Affiliated Hospital of Xi’an Jiao Tong University Medical College charged “hundreds of thousands of RMB” for a kidney transplant.\textsuperscript{324}

\textbf{Heart and Lung Transplant Costs}

Chen Jingyu, director of the Lung Transplant Center at Wuxi People’s Hospital and “the top lung transplant surgeon in China,” said in 2013, “A lung transplant surgery in the U.S. itself takes $300,000 USD. It has the highest cost among the large organ transplant types. This does not include the cost of postoperative follow-up or the long-term use of immunsuppressants. In China, lung transplant recipients are severely ill, weak, and recover slowly after surgery. We do this work on a budget and still need 300,000-500,000 RMB, with postoperative follow-up and immunosuppressants costing around 60,000 RMB.\textsuperscript{325}

As of 2016, a heart transplant averaged around 250,000 RMB with 3,000 to 5,000 RMB per month for postoperative immunosuppressant medication at the Fuwai Cardiovascular Disease Hospital, an affiliate of the Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences.\textsuperscript{326}

Shanghai Chest Hospital of Shanghai Jiaotong University charged between 200,000 and 300,000 RMB for a lung transplant in 2016.\textsuperscript{327}

\textbf{Selling Pharmaceuticals}

Tissue type or human leukocyte antigen (HLA) compatibility between the donor and recipient impacts the rate of rejection and amount of immunosuppressants required after a transplant operation. Because HLA antigens are inherited, it is difficult to find a perfect match with an unrelated donor. The sales of these pharmaceuticals also provide doctors with a source of kickbacks, contributing to some doctors’ aggressive pursuit of even marginal recipient prospects.
Dong Jiahong, director of the hepatobiliary surgery department at Beijing Tsinghua Chang Gung Hospital, said, “For a liver cancer patient, liver transplantation may cost over 200,000 RMB, and there are follow-up costs. Most transplant patients will suffer from rejection issues and need to take immunosuppressants for life. Add in antiviral drugs preventing the recurrence of hepatitis B, and the cost is between 50,000 to 100,000 RMB a year.”

Because immunosuppressant regimens are individualized, they vary among hospitals and patients. Our hospital survey shows that the annual cost for post-transplant immunosuppressants ranges from 10,000 to 60,000 RMB. The cost decreased over time as domestic immunosuppressants gained market share.

III. Technology Research and Development

In the past decade, hospitals and individuals have achieved many innovations that enabled the rapid growth of China’s transplant industry. These achievements include expanded transplant recipients, prolonged organ preservation, lower rejection rates, and shortened operation times.

Immunosuppressants

As transplant patients rely on post-transplant immunosuppressants to avoid organ rejection, the rapid development of China’s immunosuppressant technology has greatly contributed to the unprecedented growth of China’s organ transplant industry.

The Chinese government incorporated organ transplantation into its national strategy and listed the research and development of immunosuppressants as key national scientific research projects. For example, the High Technology Research and Development Program (863 Program), National Program on Key Basic Research Projects (973 Program), 985 Project of the State Key Universities, and China National Natural Science Fund all invested heavily in promoting immunosuppressant research and development. Many domestic transplant related institutions engaged in R&D early on.

Such ample government funding produced fruitful results:

- Cyclosporin, the first domestic immunosuppressant, was made by the North China Pharmaceutical Group.
- A project on research and development of a series of immunosuppressant products for organ transplantation conducted by the Lunan Pharmaceutical Group.
- “A novel immunosuppressant Fingolimod: research advances” and “Research advances in the application of immunosuppressant in organ transplantation” published by the Institute of Basic Medical Sciences, Academy of Military Medical Sciences.
- Research in immunosuppressant withdrawal after liver transplantation by the Guangdong Provincial Organ Transplant Center, Sun Yat-sen University Institute of Organ Transplantation.
- Studies in basic immunology for organ transplantation conducted by the Fudan University Organ Transplant Center.
By 2004, domestic drug development had begun to catch up, taking almost half of the market share from imported and joint-stock drugs. This greatly lowered the cost of immunosuppressant medications and lifted an economic barrier for many patients who otherwise could not afford to receive organ transplants. It thereby contributed to a rapid growth in transplant volume in China before 2004.\textsuperscript{334}

In March 2006, just before the exposure of forced organ harvesting in China, the Southern Medicine Economic Institute under the China Food and Drug Administration reported that the domestic immunosuppressant market at the time was nearly 10 billion yuan with more than 100 manufacturers of nearly 30 drugs.\textsuperscript{335}

According to the 2011 “China Science and Technology Development Report,” China has established a series of new demonstration bases for piloting the production of raw materials and preparations of immunosuppressants. China has also improved its research capacity, development and manufacturing of domestic immunosuppressants, achieved the localization of new immunosuppressive products, reduced medical costs for transplant patients, realized earnings from exports, and strengthened the international competitiveness of the Chinese organ transplant immunosuppressant industry.\textsuperscript{336}

As the patents of several major imported drugs expired, China began to produce a large volume of imitation products in addition to domestically developed drugs. These producers have achieved the same efficacy as imported immunosuppressants but at much lower prices, thereby increasing the market share of domestic drugs. Major producers include Huadong Medicine Co., Ltd, North China Pharmaceutical Group Corporation, and Zhejiang Hisun Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.\textsuperscript{337}

Expanded Transplant Recipients

China has 130 million hepatitis B carriers\textsuperscript{338} and 40-50% of the world’s liver cancer patients,\textsuperscript{339} in addition to over half the world's new liver cancer patients (about 350,000 cases per year).\textsuperscript{340} For the 8 million end-stage liver patients (including those with liver failure, cirrhosis, and liver cancer), the most effective treatment is transplantation.\textsuperscript{341}

The establishment of the "Hangzhou Criteria"\textsuperscript{342} and "Fudan Criteria"\textsuperscript{343} removed the previous restrictions from the Milan and other international criteria, which required an individual tumor’s diameter to be 5 centimeters or less for the patient to qualify for a liver transplant. This requirement has now been loosened to 8 centimeters under the Hangzhou criteria and 9 centimeters by the Fudan criteria.

Zheng Shusen served as the academic lead of the transplant center at the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University. His Hangzhou Criteria increased the potential liver recipient population by 51.5% over the Milan Criteria. He has studied and worked out the immunosuppressive regimen against HBV reinfection under the continuous funding of the 973 Program from 2003 to 2009. This solution can reduce the recurrence rate of HBV and significantly reduce the cost of postoperative immunosuppressive drugs.\textsuperscript{344}

His team has helped develop transplantation at Peking Union Medical College Hospital, Huashan Hospital of Fudan University, Xinhua Hospital Affiliated with Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, the First Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University, Zhongshan Hospital of Xiamen University, and other institutions.\textsuperscript{345} This center has also established remote
diagnostic systems with the **First Hospital of Zhejiang Province** and other hospitals in Zhejiang, Fujian, Guizhou, Xinjiang, and other areas. It has shared expertise from its transplant capabilities with hospitals in more than 20 provinces and cities in China and has propelled the development of the country’s organ transplant industry.\(^{346}\)

Fan Jia, the president of **Zhongshan Hospital of Fudan University**, created the “Shanghai Fudan Criteria.” He also serves as the director of the Fudan University Organ Transplant Center and the director of the Shanghai Liver Cancer Clinical Medical Center.

Between 2011 and 2016, he presided over 14 major research subjects at the national, provincial, and ministerial levels, including the 973 Program, 863 Program, the Eleventh National Five-Year Plan. As the first finisher, he won 8 national, ministerial and provincial awards, including the second prize of National Science and Technology Progress. He also won 5 national and provincial awards as a main finisher, including the 1st Prize for Scientific and Technological Progress.\(^{347}\) By 2012, he had performed more than 7,000 liver cancer surgeries, including over 1,300 liver transplants.\(^{348}\)

**Improved Organ Matching**

Professor Tan Jianmin at **Fuzhou General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command** pioneered HLA and amino acid residue matching technology in China, enabling donors and recipients to be genetically matched before transplantation, which significantly improves transplant outcomes. The method reportedly decreased matching time from more than 24 hours to less than 4 hours and increased the match rate between donors and recipients from 1.2% to 39.9%.\(^{349}\) He was the second-place recipient of the 2001 National Science and Technology Advancement Award.\(^{350}\)

Tan also established an anti-HLA antibody screening method that significantly reduces acute rejection events. This technique has since been applied all over the country with Fuzhou General Hospital establishing collaborative relationships with more than 100 hospitals in 19 provinces and cities and organ sharing relationships with 15 transplant centers.

**Prolonged Organ Preservation**

Among the hundreds of transplant-related patents in China, about half are related to anti-rejection drugs and organ preservation solutions. For example:

**Shanghai Changzheng Hospital** of the Second Military Medical University was one of the first in China to perform kidney transplants and claims to lead kidney transplant technology in China. Its Organ Transplant Center was appointed as the first organ transplant research institution by the General Logistics Department of the People's Liberation Army. The web page of the center claims, “After over 20 years of clinical application, our kidney and multi-organ preservation solutions are used by 95% of transplant hospitals in China and has been proven to be an outstanding representative of domestic organ preservation solutions.”

The center receives on average more than 10 projects each year from the National Natural Science Foundation, military science and technology funds, and the Shanghai Science and Technology Commission for a total annual amount of 3 million RMB. The center has 120 transplant beds.\(^{351}\)
Shortened Operation and Hospitalization Times

At No. 107 Hospital of Jinan Military Command, deputy director Du Yingdong of the liver transplant center claimed, “Over 10 years ago, it took us over 10 hours to complete a liver transplant surgery. Now our technology has matured, and a liver transplant only takes 4 to 5 hours. Sometimes, 3 to 4 surgeries can be completed in one day. The speed of development has caught up to that of high-speed rail.” In April 2012, the hospital opened a new ward building, adding 700 beds.

Shen Zhongyang, the director of Tianjin Oriental Organ Transplant Center, set a world record for the fastest liver transplant surgery in 2003, taking 2 hours and 4 minutes between making the opening incision and closing the abdomen. No blood transfusions were used during the operation. The previous record was 3 hours.

The Liver Surgery Department at Zhongshan Hospital of Fudan University serves as the Shanghai Liver Cancer Clinical Medical Center, one of China’s two major liver cancer research facilities. The hospital performed its first liver transplant in 1978. Since 2001, liver transplantation at this hospital has seen rapid development, with increased variety, more innovations, shorter operating times (4 to 6 hours on average), less bleeding, and fewer complications. Some patients are discharged 9 days after their operation. Transplant recipients include patients with liver cancer as well as other end-stage liver diseases. Its quantity and success rate of liver transplantation lead both the Shanghai region and the country.

In February 2015, it moved into the new Shanghai Liver Cancer Medical Center building. It has 230 beds, with its scale and medical capabilities among the world’s best. It started accelerating the transplant process by performing surgery on patients immediately after their initial outpatient examination and hospital admission. This has attracted patients from more than 10 countries and regions, including the United States, the United Kingdom, Japan, Canada, South Korea, Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan.
IV. Industrialization and Proliferation

Organ transplantation in China began in 1960. Kidney transplant experiments were expanded around the country in the 1970s. By the late 1990s, around 100 kidney transplant facilities had been opened nationwide, each averaging a dozen annual operations. The first clinical liver transplant was carried out in 1977. Liver transplantation soon declined to a standstill in the mid-to-late 1980s. It rose to 16 cases in 1997, 27 in 1998, and jumped to 115 in 1999 before surging in subsequent years. There were about 150 transplant centers in 1999.

Since 2000, a large number of national and military transplantation technology research centers and key laboratories have been established, incubating new transplant technologies and leading to the rapid development of the industry. The Ministry of Health (MOH) appointed military and civilian medical institutions with strong technical capabilities as well as large organ transplant centers to establish technical training sites and promote new transplantation technologies to facilitate the transformation of new technologies to productive forces. A large number of transplant doctors have been trained in a short amount of time to meet the needs of China’s rapidly growing transplant industry. Some examples are listed below.

Liver Transplant Training Centers

In June 2006, then Deputy Minister of Health Huang Jiefu collaborated with the China Medical Board (CMB) in New York to provide one million USD to assist in the establishment of transplant standards and registration systems, domestic laws and regulations regarding transplantation in China, strengthen professional training, and expand liver transplant-related research achievements. The project established three liver transplant training centers in China: the Peking Union Medical College Hospital, the First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, and Tianjin First Central Hospital.

According to the application material for a foundation, Shen Zhongyang, the president of Tianjin First Central Hospital and the director of the Oriental Organ Transplant Center, has pioneered research in the field of clinical liver transplantation and built the largest organ transplant center in Asia. He has helped 66 medical institutions in 22 regions of mainland China to carry out clinical liver transplant surgeries. In July 2006, the Oriental Organ Transplant Center became China’s liver transplant training center and, as of 2012, had trained over 385 transplant doctors who then became the core personnel in their departments across the country.

Tissue Typing Training Center in Northwestern China

In 2003, Xi'an Jiaotong University and the Terasaki Laboratory in the United States jointly established the Organ Transplant Tissue Typing Technology Training Center in northwestern China. By December 2012, this center had guided more than 10,000 kidney transplants for 23 hospitals in 13 provinces. It guided other hospitals in liver, kidney, heart, lung, and small intestine transplants in western China. It trained more than 500 medical professionals from other domestic institutions, with some of them becoming academic leaders. Since 2000, this center has held annual programs for continuing education in kidney transplantation for students from large general hospitals in 14 provinces and autonomous regions.
Transplant Engineering and Technology Research Center in Central-South China

In 2005, the Transplant Medicine Engineering and Technology Research Center affiliated with the Ministry of Health was officially established at the Third Xiangya Hospital of Central South University. Its mission was to build an important national base specializing in clinical transplantation research and related industry development. The center also collaborated with the World Health Organization and the International Xenotransplantation Association to develop international xenograft norms (the Changsha Standard). The center received funding from the National Natural Science Foundation and other key projects in clinical disciplines from the Ministry of Health. The hospital also concentrated manpower, material, and financial resources to industrialize related research results.

A “New Era” of Lung Transplants

The lung transplant center at Wuxi People’s Hospital claims to have completed more than half of all lung transplant surgeries in the country. It was reported in July 2014 that the team under its founder, Chen Jingyu, often performed four or five lung transplants a day.

Chen led his team to spread its advanced techniques to more than thirty Class 3A hospitals in more than ten cities and provinces, including Beijing, Guangzhou, Nanjing, Hangzhou, Wuhan, and Jilin. Chen’s profile stated, “A new era of lung transplantation in China has begun, and Chen’s team has filled in many gaps in this area.”

Mobile Heart Transplant Hospital

Liao Chongxian founded the heart center at Zhongshan Hospital of Xiamen University. Based on his experience in the United States, Liao created a “mobile heart transplant hospital” model and travelled around the country to instruct and personally participate in heart transplants. The center’s website says that the department performs heart transplants on a large scale and has helped more than twenty Class 3A hospitals to perform heart transplants in the past 10 years.

Building a Remote Medical Network through Military Satellites

No. 181 Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command spent 250,000 RMB in early 2005 to build a remote medical network through military satellites, connecting over 200 military hospitals and more than 1,000 experts. This remote treatment model provides patients with a platform for accessing high-end medical resources. Its Kidney Transplant Center performed 8 transplant surgeries on December 30, 2012, including heart, lung, kidney, liver, corneal, and islet cell transplants.
CHAPTER III
Continued Growth Despite Exposure

After 2006, when international attention was brought to bear on allegations of abusive organ harvesting in China, hospitals deflated and removed public disclosures of their transplant numbers. The Chinese regime used its spokespeople, media, and agents to create a false impression for the international community that the number of transplants in China was gradually decreasing.

In fact, the regime simply adjusted its strategy to be less transparent. Furthermore, the Ministry of Health’s new approval system implemented in 2007 contributed to the illusion that most hospitals had stopped performing transplants.

On the contrary, there was a spike in transplant volume between March 2006 and May 2007 in a rush to clear the donor bank inventory, after which the industry continued to grow steadily. We observed that some smaller institutions that did not receive approval either performed fewer transplants or stopped altogether, while others that could still obtain organs continued to operate. However, large, approved institutions achieved even greater development with decreased competition and full government support.

Since the year 2000, organ transplantation has assumed a high priority in the government’s national strategy and as an emerging strategic industry to drive China’s future global development. It has continuously been incorporated in the National Five-Year Plan for multiple industries. National, military, and civilian agencies have invested heavily in research, development, and promotion of organ transplantation.

I. New Ministry Approval System Brought Stable Growth

After allegations were made in March 2006 that Falun Gong practitioners were being killed for organs in a death camp in Sujiatun, the Chinese regime remained silent for three weeks before its foreign ministry spokesman denied the existence of the camp. Then, the Ministry of Health attributed the illicit transplants to a chaotic market and announced that it would enact a new qualification system in July 2007 that would limit transplant operations to the largest hospitals and only after approval.

In the interim year, there was a spike in the number of transplants as hospitals around the country rushed to clear their donor bank inventory. For example, Hunan People's Hospital advertised on April 28, 2006 that it would offer 10 liver transplants and 10 kidney transplants free of charge. The Jilin Heart Disease Hospital offered promotions for heart transplant operations with reduced fees for a “quick sale”—the first five heart recipients were charged only 50,000 RMB.

In July 2007, among the more than 1,000 hospitals in China that conducted organ transplants, 164 received permits under the new system. This number was increased to 169 in January 2014 and further to 173 in May 2017. This system allowed the government and large transplant centers to monopolize and redistribute the organ market. As a result, they faced less competition and achieved even greater development than before.
Case Study: Steady Growth at the Liver Transplant Center at the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University

The Liver Transplant Center of the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University stated on February 28, 2011, “Our country’s liver transplantation business has entered a period of stable development. Under the leadership of academician Zheng Shusen, the liver transplant business at First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University is flourishing. It moved into a new building in 2007. Liver transplantation has become more systematic, professional, and large-scale.”

As of April 2018, Zheng’s team has completed over 40 national projects and received over 70 million RMB in funding. It was the chief leader for two of the scientific research projects under the 973 Program: foundational research in the application of immunological mechanisms of chronic graft dysfunction (2003-2008) and basic research on the application of organ transplantation immunology (2009-2013). In addition, the Liver Transplant Center took the lead in three projects under the 863 Program, three projects under the national Eleventh Five-Year National Key Technology Research and Development Program, projects supported by the National Natural Science Foundation, and a project supported by the Ministry of Health’s Professional Specialization Fund.

With four hepatobiliary and pancreatic surgical wards, three dedicated transplant wards, and an ICU, this 340-bed hepatopancreatobiliary department claims to be the largest transplant center in eastern China. It has a team of 134 medical professionals, including Zhen Shusen, a member of the Chinese Academy of Engineering, and nearly 40 senior transplant experts. Among them, 60% hold doctoral degrees.

Zheng once performed 5 liver transplants in one day on January 28, 2005 and a total of 11 in that week. He disclosed in a paper that he had conducted 46 emergency liver transplants between January 2000 and December 2004, with all the patients receiving orthotopic liver transplants within 72 hours. As of October 2017, Zheng had performed over 2,200 liver transplants.
Some transplant centers operated with bed utilization rates between 100% and 200%. This growth could even be seen at relatively small-scale hospitals that did not meet the Ministry’s requirements at the time for obtaining transplant approval. One example is as below.

**Case Study: A Small Hospital’s Leap**

**Zhengzhou No.7 People’s Hospital**, specializing in heart and kidney diseases, opened in 1991 with 200 beds. It was the first hospital in Henan Province to perform an allogeneic kidney transplant. Its urology department is designated as the Zhengzhou City Kidney Transplantation and Blood Purification Center.

Despite being a Class 2 hospital (with Class 3 being the highest), Zhengzhou No.7 was a “big player” in kidney transplantation in the province. When learning that only Class 3 Grade A hospitals would qualify for Ministry approval to perform transplants, the hospital’s vice president, Wei Yan, said that kidney transplantation accounted for “a majority” of its business: “If we’re not allowed to do these [transplant] surgeries, that means half of the hospital’s business can’t be done anymore. It would cause enormous impact to the hospital’s development.”

According to an August 2016 report, its kidney transplant department developed multiple techniques that achieved international standards over the previous twenty-plus years. The hospital’s kidney transplant quantity and quality consistently led the province, performing the first combined liver-kidney transplant and the first pancreas-kidney transplant in Zhengzhou City. Its 60+ medical personnel have “long been accustomed to being on-call 24 hours a day. In 30 years of work, Director Wang Changan has not taken any public holidays off, traveled, or even entered a movie theater.”

The hospital built two new wards, the first of which began construction in 2006 with 600 open beds. On December 29, 2010, the entire hospital moved to its new site with 800 open beds. After becoming a Class 3 Grade A hospital in 2014, it started to construct another new riverside ward with 1,000 beds, increasing its total capacity to 1,800 beds.
In March 2015, an internal communication indicated a 130% bed utilization rate in its kidney transplant department. However, it reportedly had only 46 beds and 50 kidney transplants, a figure that is most likely deflated by an order of magnitude given the growth trends outlined above.

Despite having approval only for kidney transplants, the Affiliated Hospital of Zunyi Medical College has also performed liver, bone marrow, cornea, stem cell, and other types of transplants. In 2012, its urologic surgery department reportedly had 51 beds and maintained a level of 100 patients, resulting in a utilization rate of around 200%. The department has since been expanded to 100 beds.

Continued Transplants by Non-Approved Hospitals

Some institutions that did not receive permits from the Ministry of Health in 2007 either reduced their transplant volumes, stopped performing transplants, or continued operating under increased secrecy. Nevertheless, many that did not have permits but were able to obtain organs continued to operate.

In fact, the Ministry of Health did not really close the door to hospitals that had not obtained approval for transplants in 2007. The Ministry later introduced pilot programs for donation after cardiac death (DCD) in 2011, and participating hospitals were encouraged to apply for approval to perform DCD transplants after procuring five donations after cardiac death.

At least 75 non-approved hospitals were issued permits for pilot runs of DCD transplants starting in 2011. The DCD pilot program required candidate hospitals to have performed no fewer than 20 liver transplants and/or 30 kidney transplants each year and have a 5-year survival rate of no less than 60%. In addition, surgeons were required to have at least 5 years of clinical transplant experience. These requirements imply that these 75 hospitals continued to perform non-DCD transplants after 2007. We list these hospitals in Appendix I.
To be able to apply for permits for DCD transplants, hospitals were required to complete at least 10 donations and transplants after cardiac death within the pilot period. By January 2014, five hospitals had been approved to conduct DCD transplants, extending the list of approved transplant centers to 169 hospitals.\footnote{413} Among the five newly added centers is the First Hospital of Foshan. Before it obtained approval, its website archived on November 1, 2012 showed that it had begun to perform kidney, liver, heart, lung, kidney-liver, and pancreas-kidney transplants.\footnote{414} It performed 5 kidney transplants and 2 liver transplants within a 24-hour period on December 28, 2004.\footnote{415} On March 1, 2005, its entire transplant team was brought together to perform 2 liver transplants and 6 kidney transplants within 8 hours; the operations lasted from eleven o’clock in the morning to seven o’clock in the evening.\footnote{416} It later performed 7 kidney transplants on December 29, 2005.\footnote{417} Similar situations occurred at the other four newly added transplant centers.

II. Expanding Capacity

To meet the ever-increasing demand for transplants, most hospitals have expanded their transplant wards and even constructed new buildings that often include VIP-style amenities to cater to transplant recipients from other countries.
Case Study: “ Miracle” in Asia’s Largest Surgery Building at Wuhan Union Hospital

The new surgery building at Wuhan Union Hospital opened in September 2006. It has 32 stories above ground and two below ground. The integrated surgery building has 1,050 beds and 42 operating rooms. It can accommodate 200 surgeries per day, a volume equivalent to that of five medium and large-scale hospitals. Its Urologic Surgery Department enjoys high academic status in China and has now become one of the largest kidney transplant centers in the region. Its Liver Transplant Center is a main component of its General Surgery Department. Its heart transplantation and combined heart-lung transplantation techniques and technologies are “state of the art.”
In June 2013, the *Wuhan Evening News* reported a “miracle” created by this hospital: Union Hospital’s Cardiac Surgery Department received notice that four donor hearts were available for transplant on the morning of June 20.

The same afternoon, the hospital’s vice president Hu Yu gave the order to perform four heart transplants simultaneously. More than 200 medical personnel, including 13 professors and 17 associate professors from the Cardiac Surgery Department, split into four teams, each of which independently completed donor selection, procurement, matching, and transplantation.

On June 21 at 10:43, four hearts were simultaneously transported to operating rooms at Union Hospital. At 11:50, led by Professor Dong Nianguo, Director of the Cardiac Surgery Department, four specialist teams began performing heart transplants at the same time. In the 22 minutes between 13:47 and 14:09, the four hearts were beating again in four end-stage heart disease patients.
Case Study: Expanded Surgery Building Busy 24 Hours a Day

Shanghai Renji Hospital is one of fourteen hospitals affiliated with Shanghai Jiao Tong University. Its Urology Department established a new wing and renal transplant ward in the Pudong district in November 1999. It has since expanded from its original 29 beds to 70 beds. It performs over 5,000 surgeries per year, with over 60% being large and extra-large operations. The number of surgeries increased by 300% in the same period of time.

Renji Hospital conducted its first liver transplant in 2001. After several years of development, it performed the most liver transplants of any hospital in Shanghai for eight consecutive years. It claims to have ranked first in China for liver transplants in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 and first in the world for pediatric liver transplants.

“There are too many, too many patients! We have surgeries here overnight, nonstop for 24 hours a day,” Dr. Chen Zheyong told a Wenhui Daily reporter in March 2016. As many as 120 surgeries are performed here in a day. The most difficult and advanced surgeries, including robotic surgeries, are all performed here. This does not include liver transplants, as liver sources coming from other areas are often brought back to the hospital late at night, so it is quite common to conduct surgeries until early morning.

“The operating room is like a secret garden in the hospital. We have no time to be in contact with the outside world. The lights are on 24 hours a day here. Seven or eight o’clock at night is the same as in the morning. One can’t tell day from night,” said Dr. Chen.
In 2005, Renji Hospital opened its East Surgical Building, which has 1,000 beds. The number of operating rooms has increased from 24 to 38. The Liver Transplant Center is located on the 14th and 15th floors of this new building. The Liver Transplant Center increased its bed count from the original 13 in September 2004 to 90 beds in June 2007. It further expanded to 110 beds in 2014. Its bed utilization rate and transplant volume also continued to hit new highs.

"Addicted" Transplant Surgeon

According to an online posting, “Renji Hospital Liver Transplant Center was officially established on September 20, 2004. The hospital recruited Xia Qiang as its lead surgeon. Although he had already completed several hundred liver transplants successfully, Xia was still relatively inexperienced within the Chinese transplant community at the time.”

In a report by Jiefang Daily on January 26, 2005, Xia said, “I’m obsessed with liver transplants. It’s like I’m addicted to it. I would feel uncomfortable if I don’t go to the ward to see patients for one day. I do at least two to five liver transplants a week.” Exactly how many liver transplants had he done? Xia had lost count. He remembers only his record of six liver transplants in one day. Even now, a classical liver transplant takes four to six hours; it would have taken even longer in 2005.

Xia said, “The management of my team is militarized. Every medical staff member must keep their cell phone turned on 24 hours a day because liver transplants may require going out for graft procurement or preparing for surgery at any time. We doctors must be on standby at all times.” In 2013, a Wenhui Daily article stated, “Renji Hospital conducts liver transplant surgeries continuously, and doctors could not get out of the hospital all night long.”
III. Overworked Doctors and Nurses

We observed reports of medical teams and individual doctors routinely struggling to carry out the volume of transplants demanded of them, including in recent years. Surgeons work overtime to procure organs and conduct transplants with surgical departments frequently carrying out multiple transplants simultaneously. It was common to see accounts of surgeons performing transplants for 20 hours without rest and getting little sleep each day.\textsuperscript{440} Doctors were so busy procuring kidneys that they are “often unable to go home for one or two weeks at a time.”\textsuperscript{441} One hospital even resorted to training almost all its nearly 100 general surgeons to conduct kidney transplants independently.\textsuperscript{442}

Case Study: Working Around the Clock

The \textit{Second Xiangya Hospital of Central South University} ranked 19th among the 100 most competitive hospitals in China in 2015.\textsuperscript{443} It employs 631 senior professionals, including 108 doctoral advisors and 248 master’s advisors. It began performing multi-organ transplants relatively early in China and is one of the seven hospitals approved to carry out the most types of organ transplants—liver, kidney, heart, lung, pancreas, and intestine.\textsuperscript{444} Its 26-story surgery building with 34 operating theaters opened in July 2005. The hospital was initially planned for 1,500 beds but actually opened with more than 2,500 beds.\textsuperscript{445} This hospital currently has 3,500 registered beds.\textsuperscript{446}

Under the direction of Peng Longkai, the Urological Transplant Department conducted more kidney transplants during a half-year period in 2002 than the total number for all previous years combined. Peng claimed that he had performed more than 2,000 kidney transplants.\textsuperscript{447}

One can infer the volume of transplants at this hospital from how busy its doctors have been. “Transplant surgeons often have to work for over 20 consecutive hours performing surgeries. They will start another round of operations after they rest for three or four hours. The surgeons are still at the operating table while the scrub nurses have changed several shifts. They often conduct a dozen operations over a period of 2 to 3 days. They once performed 9 kidney transplants in one day.”\textsuperscript{448}

The head of the organ transplant division, Qi Haizhi, and his team successfully completed a combined transplant of 8 abdominal organs, including liver, pancreas, spleen, and stomach in December 2010. This was a first in China and the second case in the world, creating a sensation.\textsuperscript{449}
Case Study: Kidney Supply Chain Overwhelmed

To the left was the portrayal of the busy lifestyle of the transplant team at Qilu Hospital of Shandong University. Members of the team were often unable to go home for one or two weeks at a time. On December 26, 2010, a report on its official website stated:450

“Due to the current international criticism of organ sourcing in China, the number of usable cadaveric donor kidneys has decreased significantly, causing an increase in uncertain factors and intense competition. However, due to the tireless efforts of Director Dong Laidong of the Organ Transplant Supply Department and Director Tian Jun of the Blood Purification Department, the number of cadaveric kidney transplants far surpassed that of last year, and the wait time for kidney transplants has not increased noticeably.”

Case Study: All Hands on Deck

The fervor in pushing transplant volume is not limited to national-level hospitals. We have found that transplantation has become a major business activity for municipal hospitals and subsidiary hospitals of state-owned enterprises, as exemplified by the case below.

The Dongfeng Company Hospital is operated by an automaker in Shiyan, a small industrial city in central China. In less than ten years, the explosive growth in this hospital’s transplantation activities “caused the local economy to prosper,” “elevated the city’s reputation,” and gradually replaced the Dongfeng vehicle as the new “business card of Shiyan.”451

As early as August 2000, it had conducted 10 kidney transplants, one thyroid transplant, and 3 corneal transplants in the same day. The hospital also performs liver, corneal, in situ parathyroid, bone marrow, and other types of organ and tissue transplants.452

The hospital’s vice president, Yuan Fangjun, stated in 2009, “Kidney transplantation is now a routine surgery. Almost all surgeons at our hospital can independently complete kidney transplants.”453 According to the hospital’s website, it has 10 surgical departments and more than 100 surgeons. How many transplants is the hospital performing to necessitate training almost all its surgeons in this procedure?

In addition, the hospital has a breast transplant department with more than 40 beds, 3 chief physicians, 2 associate chief physicians, 4 attending physicians, and 3 residents.454 These doctors’ web pages are no longer accessible.

“If I’m not at the hospital, I’m at the kidney procurement location. If I’m not at the kidney procurement location, I’m on the way between the hospital and the kidney procurement location.”

—Organ transplant surgeons at Qilu Hospital

“Almost all surgeons at our hospital can independently complete kidney transplants.”

—Yuan Fangjun, vice president of Dongfeng Company Hospital
Case Study: “A Decade of Memories”

In September 2012, in celebration of the tenth anniversary of its Urological Surgery Department, Xi’an High-Tech District Hospital published an article describing the department’s efforts in achieving annual revenues of 10 million RMB. This “glorious achievement” came five years after its establishment.

The article stated, “Thinking about those days, we would leave before dawn for the train station, airport, or another hospital to pick up one transplant patient after another. Regardless of the summer heat or the winter chill, 4 or 5 people were crammed into an old, dilapidated van, excising organs. Thinking of the 7 or 8 transplant surgeries done in one day and one night…”

"Our department has achieved a high reputation and attracted patients from not only Shaanxi, Inner Mongolia, Qinghai, Gansu, Xinjiang, Zhejiang, Guangdong, Henan, but also from abroad, such as Korea, Japan, and Israel.” However, the hospital claimed it had completed only 229 cadaveric kidney transplants and 3 relative-donor kidney transplants during the five years between 2003 and 2007. An average figure of fewer than 50 transplants per year with an annual revenue of 10 million RMB suggests that the transplant volume is underreported.

This hospital is part of a joint venture with a British hospital management company. It was not approved for transplants by the Ministry of Health in 2007 because it was a private Class 3B hospital, while the Ministry requires Class 3A categorization for approval.
Scale of China`s Transplant Industry

I. A State Secret

In 2015, former Deputy Minister of Health Huang Jiefu admitted in a television interview that the number of transplant surgeries performed is a state secret.457

Huang Jiefu: The death penalty is a state secret, right?

Xu Gehui (reporter): But patients are not a secret. I’m sorry, I really don’t understand.

Huang: Your organs come from executed prisoners.

Xu: Okay, so the sources of the organs can be a secret, but is the waiting list [for transplants] also a secret?

Huang: You can deduce the number of [executed prisoners] from the number of [transplants] performed. Then don’t you know the state secret?

Xu: Then it should be smaller than this number [of executed prisoners] …

Huang: What you’re saying is too sensitive, so I can’t be too explicit with you. It will be clear to you as long as you think about it. Because your country doesn’t have a transparent system, you don’t know where the [organs] come from. How many [transplants] are done is also a secret, so in fact, many things are actually a mess, and the number isn’t clear to you.

(End of transcript)

Due to inexplicable organ sources and fraud for financial gain by hospitals and doctors, the number of transplants is falsified level-by-level, all the way down to individual hospitals and doctors. As a result, the true number of transplants performed in China may forever remain unknown.

Yet as a Chinese saying goes, “paper cannot wrap fire.” While we cannot directly observe the number of transplants these hospitals have performed, we can still make extrapolations based on capacity, growth, transplant types performed, hospital bed count and utilization rates, professional personnel, and so on. Moreover, regulations published by the government provide useful information in determining the scale of transplant centers nationwide.

II. Numbers of Organ Transplant Centers and Ministry Approval System

According to statistics from the Administration of Hospitals under the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC), successor to the Ministry of Health in July 2015,458 there were 20,918 hospitals in mainland China.459 Among them were 1,151 Class 3 hospitals and 4,321 Class 2 hospitals.460
Class 3 hospitals are normally located in major cities. They are typically large-scale general or specialized hospitals with over 500 beds. Among them, 705 are Class 3 Grade A (“3A”) hospitals.\textsuperscript{461}

Huang Jiefu said in March 2006, “For a hospital to pass the evaluation to become a Class 3A hospital, it must have completed a fixed target of more than five organ transplants. Organ transplantation has become a resource for competition among hospitals to reach the standard and for their branding.”\textsuperscript{462}

In April 2015, Wuhan University Professor Ye Qifa, Executive Chairman of the China Organ Transplant Alliance and a specialist in major organ transplantation, stated to People’s Daily Online that before the introduction of the Regulations on Human Organ Transplantation in 2007, there were over 1,000 medical institutions in China performing organ transplants.\textsuperscript{463}

Dongfeng General Hospital website also reported that more than 1,000 hospitals in 2007 that were performing transplants.\textsuperscript{464}

On May 23, 2007, 164 hospitals were given permits by the Ministry of Health.\textsuperscript{465, 466} Essentially, these were the most qualified and capable national-level organ transplant centers at the time.

Many of the other hospitals that did not receive approval continued to conduct transplants. On August 8, 2013, the NHFPC added Wuhan University Zhongnan Hospital Human Organ Transplant Center, which performs transplants after cardiac death, and published a list of 165 hospitals approved to conduct organ transplants.\textsuperscript{467} Four more hospitals were added to the list in succession, bringing the number of qualified hospitals to 169 at the beginning of 2014.\textsuperscript{468} The number was increased to 173 in May 2017.\textsuperscript{469}

### III. System Capacity Estimation Based on Minimum Requirements

We focused on the 164 hospitals approved by the Ministry of Health in 2007 and calculate the minimum system transplant capacity using the Ministry’s minimum bed requirements for maintenance of certification.

On June 27, 2006, the Ministry of Health published a “Notice Regarding the Management and Regulation of Liver, Kidney, Heart, and Lung Transplantation Capabilities,” which imposed the following requirements for medical institutions carrying out organ transplants:\textsuperscript{470}

- Liver: 15 beds dedicated to liver transplants and no fewer than 10 ICU beds
- Kidney: 20 beds dedicated to kidney transplants and no fewer than 10 ICU beds
- Heart: 5 beds dedicated to heart transplants and no fewer than 10 ICU beds
- Lung: no fewer than 10 ICU beds

For the 164 approved hospitals, the minimum bed counts are as follows:
Table 5.1 Minimum transplant bed count requirements by the Ministry of Health.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permit Type</th>
<th>Hospitals</th>
<th>Minimum Transplant Beds</th>
<th>Minimum ICU Beds</th>
<th>Minimum Total Beds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver &amp; Kidney</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart &amp; Lung</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on an average one-month hospital stay, each bed could accommodate up to 12 transplant patients per year. In practice, kidney transplants generally require one to two weeks whereas liver transplants require three to four weeks of hospitalization. Since we are mixing kidney and liver transplants in our volume analysis, we use the maximum hospitalization duration of four weeks as the average length of stay for each transplant patient.

Our survey of 169 hospitals found widespread facility constraints, including transplant centers with bed utilization rates exceeding 100% and a long list of patients waiting for transplants. It is important to note that Huang Jiefu has publicly announced plans to expand the number of approved transplant hospitals from 169 to between 300 and 500 and to train 400 or 500 more young doctors. This suggests that the current systemwide capacity cannot keep up with demand. Thus, we are confident in assuming that the vast majority of the existing hospital capacity is being fully utilized to perform transplantation surgeries.

Table. A volume scenario of 164 hospitals permitted to conduct transplants based on transplant bed count requirements by the Ministry of Health.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permit Type</th>
<th>(A) Hospitals</th>
<th>(B) Minimum Beds</th>
<th>(C) = 12 * (B) Annual Transplants Per Hospital</th>
<th>(D)=(A) * (C) Annual Transplants in Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>6,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>23,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver &amp; Kidney</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>39,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart &amp; Lung</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>3,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>164</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>72,540</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given 100% bed utilization rates, our calculations indicate that all 164 hospitals combined could theoretically conduct 72,540 transplants per year.

After 2000, liver transplants gradually became a routine clinical procedure in China. Soon thereafter, kidney transplants also began to be carried out on a large scale with a few kidney transplant centers already exceeding 1,000 kidney transplants. Since many liver transplant centers also conduct kidney transplants, the rapid increase in the number of kidney transplants compensate for the relative delay in scaling up liver transplants.
We then multiplied annual figures for the approved hospitals by fifteen (years), excluding the first three years as ramp-up time. Following this method, we estimate that the total transplant capacity in approved centers over the 15-year period between 2003 and 2018 at 1,088,100.

This analysis is based on the minimum bed counts published under the Ministry of Health’s permit system in 2007. Even though the Ministry approved only 164 centers, most of which carry out far more transplants than the minimum bed counts can produce, it is relevant that more than 1,000 hospitals applied for permits to conduct transplants under this system, logically implying that they had met these minimum requirements.475

We do not attempt to estimate a conclusive total at this stage; instead, we present only a minimum range of possibilities, which likely do not reflect the full scale of transplants performed in China. The true scale and magnitude of transplantation surgery in China is left for the reader to conjecture.

IV. Corroboration with Other Data

To determine the extent to which hospitals meet these minimum capacity requirements, we examined hospitals’ bed counts through official sources, media reports, and accounts of the number of transplants performed by individual doctors and hospitals.

Actual Bed Counts of Approved Hospitals

The true number of transplants performed by hospitals in China has long been deflated and cannot be observed directly. Nevertheless, when hospitals report utilization rates of 100% or greater and facility constraints are cited as a limiting factor of transplant volume in China, bed counts can be used to estimate the scale of transplants performed. After the first investigation reports by Matas and Kilgour were released, hospitals began to deflate their transplant bed count figures as well.

We examined these 169 approved hospitals with regards to their capacity, record of growth, hospital bed counts and utilization rates, and professional personnel. The data show that most of them exceed the minimum bed counts, including some with hundreds of beds dedicated to organ transplantation.

We list in Appendix II hospitals for which we have bed count data for dedicated transplant departments and/or urology, hepatobiliary, and other surgery departments known to perform transplants.

This data set is what we were able to gather from publicly available information. Due to the lack of transparency and the hospitals’ active deletion of such data online, we likely have not discovered all dedicated transplant centers these hospitals operate or their true scale.

We further analyze hospitals with extremely low transplant bed counts compared to their true scale. Below are examples among military and civilian hospitals of varying sizes:
This hospital claims to be China’s largest and earliest comprehensive medical facility and research institute specializing in clinical application and experimental research of organ transplantation. It is capable of carrying out heart, lung, liver, kidney, spleen, pancreas transplants, combined pancreas-kidney, liver-intestine, and multiple abdominal organ transplants, among other difficult and complicated clinical transplants.\textsuperscript{476}

The website of its Organ Transplant Institute stated in May 2018 that its transplantation program, total number of transplants, and long-term survival rate have continuously led the nation over the past 50 years. It reportedly performed more than 500 liver transplants and nearly 3,000 kidney transplants during these five decades. It lists only 65 beds under its organ transplant research institute.\textsuperscript{477}

However, one of its archived web pages from 2016 stated, “the [organ transplant] institute has a basic research department and a clinical department. The Organ Transplant Basic Research Center is an open, large-scale, integrated scientific research base dedicated to organ transplant-related experiments and clinical research. It has large-scale, advanced equipment to meet the needs of in-depth research at the cellular, molecular, genetic, and protein levels. The clinical department currently has a 2,400-square-meter dedicated transplant ward of 86 beds.”\textsuperscript{478}

A November 2011 news report stated that this well-known facility carries out thousands of kidney transplant surgeries annually and has the most patients waiting for kidney transplants in the country.\textsuperscript{479}

If the figure of 3,500 total transplants were true, the hospital would have performed just over an average of 200 transplants per year (dividing by 16 years, assuming a negligible volume before 1999). This would require no more than one-third of its claimed bed count. The official bed count of 65 would allow the institute to conduct just over 1,000 kidney transplants per year, assuming a three-week hospitalization period and full utilization; most kidney transplants requires less than two weeks’ hospitalization. Thus, the actual bed count is likely to be higher than the published number.
General Hospital of Shenyang Military Command

This is one of the largest military hospitals in China. It is in the same city as the secret Sujiatun concentration camp that was exposed in 2006 for providing living organs for transplant from Falun Gong practitioners. The only indication of the actual scale of organ transplants performed there can be found on its official website.

Its website states that it has “one of the best-known transplant centers in the country” but claims to have only 36 inpatient beds. “Since it successfully carried out the first kidney allograft in 1978, the hospital has completed more than 1,700 kidney transplants.” This volume of less than 100 per year would not have necessitated 36 beds; even 10 beds would have been more than enough. Such low bed counts and transplant numbers do not match the hospital’s high national status.

Its kidney transplant department has 11 surgeons, including 7 with senior professional titles. Among them, Director Liu Long is a committee member of the Chinese Organ Transplantation Society and the deputy director of the PLA Organ Transplant Professional Committee.

The website of its hepatobiliary surgery department showed that it had 11 surgeons. Zhou Wenping, the department’s director, studied liver transplantation at Sweden’s Hudding Hospital from 1996 to 1997 and successfully performed the first liver transplant in the Shenyang Military Region in October 2002.

Its ophthalmology department is renowned in the PLA, especially for its specialty of corneal transplantation. It has the largest eye bank in northeastern China as well as in the entire military and is capable of readily providing supplies to meet the demand for corneal transplant patients.
This hospital performed the first kidney transplant in northwestern China in 1979. As of 1995, it had accumulated 100 kidney transplants. Its Organ Transplantation Research Institute was established in 2000 and has since witnessed a period of “glorious development.”\(^{484}\) As early as June 2000, it had completed over 1,140 kidney transplants.\(^{485}\) This hospital conducted the most kidney transplants in northwestern China and third most nationally. Its liver transplantation also consistently ranked first in northwestern China.\(^{486}\) In addition, this center had guided 23 hospitals from 13 provinces in carrying out more than 10,000 kidney transplants by December 2012, leading the development of liver, heart, lung, intestine, and other types of transplants and serving as a model for organ transplantation in mid-western China. It has trained more than 500 core technical personnel for other transplant centers; some of the graduates have become academic leads.\(^{487}\)

After the organ harvesting crimes were first exposed in 2006, overseas media began to track this hospital. It has since tried to hide the number of transplants performed, listing on its website that it has only 48 transplant beds.\(^{488}\) However, when our investigator called the transplant department under the guise of introducing a patient on behalf of another hospital and inquired whether the department had enough beds, its medical personnel indicated that there was no need to worry, that they could add beds if needed and even appropriate beds from other wards.

Its website states that it had performed 3,596 kidney transplants as of December 2012.\(^{489}\) With only 69 donations after cardiac death as of June 2013, producing 132 kidney transplants and 60 liver transplants, it purportedly placed first among all transplant centers in China. By March 2015, the center had reached a cumulative total of 400 living-donor kidney transplants.\(^{490}\) Even based on its stated numbers, it is unclear from where the other 3,000 kidneys were sourced.

\[\text{Xue Wujun, Director of the Organ Transplantation Research Institute and Vice Chair of the China OPO Alliance, during an interview}\]
Media Reports

Some doctors and hospitals unintentionally exposed clues of their transplant volumes when talking to the media. These numbers are far higher than the minimum requirements would suggest.

Below are a few examples of such reports.

In September 2013, Zhu Jiye, director of the Organ Transplant Institute of Peking University and the Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery of Peking University People’s Hospital told China Economic Weekly that “most of our nation’s organ transplants come from death-row prisoners. Our hospital conducted 4,000 liver and kidney transplant operations within a particular year. These organs all came from death-row prisoners.”

“2012年3月，原卫生部副部长、国家卫计委人体器官移植临床技术应用管理委员会主任黄洁夫表示，由于缺乏公民自愿捐献，死囚器官成为了器官移植的主要来源。

北京大学器官移植研究所所长、北京大学人民医院肝胆外科主任朱继生在接受《中国经济周刊》采访时表示：“2010年展开试点工作之前，死囚器官几乎占据了我国器官移植的全部来源。我们医院曾一年之内做过4000例肝肾移植手术，这些器官来源全部是死刑犯人。”

Peking University People’s Hospital

Screenshot of an article reprinted in September 2013 on People.com
(Originally published by China Economic Weekly)
When the First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-Sen University celebrated its 100th anniversary in October of 2010, a report posted on the news website of Xinkuai Paper stated that “tens of thousands” of patients had received liver or kidney transplants at its organ transplant center.\(^4\)

On April 4, 2006, *The Asia-Pacific Journal* published a report entitled “Japanese flock to China for organ transplants.” The report states that Mr. Suzuki, chairman of the Japan Transplant Recipients Organization, discovered that a hospital in a major city in China conducted 2,000 organ transplants in 2005 alone. Among the recipients, 30 to 40 were Japanese, and 200 were Korean.\(^4\)

In China’s organ transplant field, both financial interests and international scrutiny incentivize media reports, hospital websites, and even academic articles to underreport transplant figures rather than inflate them. Therefore, the total volume of transplants carried out by the hundreds of transplant centers since 2000 is most likely staggering.
Most Prolific Institutions and Individuals

Over the past decade, the Chinese authorities have not released the annual transplant volume of individual hospitals and claimed that only a total of about 10,000 organ transplants are performed each year. However, even from the data scattered on hospital websites, it is clear that just a few hospitals and individual surgeons would easily surpass this number. Most far exceed the minimum capacity requirements.

Much of previously published transplant data has been actively removed or deflated in China, especially after illicit organ harvesting first gained international attention in 2006. For example, some transplant departments’ official annual figures account for less than 10% of their bed and personnel capacity. Nevertheless, in some cases, one can compare numbers between different types of data from a variety of sources to get a sense of an institution’s true scale and its surgeons’ transplantation activity. Some of these surgeons have individually performed thousands of transplant surgeries.

Case Study: Oriental Organ Transplant Center at Tianjin First Central Hospital

Tianjin First Central Hospital established its Organ Transplant Surgery Division in 1998 with an investment of 100,000 RMB. The center broke ground in 2002 on its new 17-story building with 500 transplant beds. The Tianjin Municipal Party Committee and Municipal Government provided about 170 million RMB in funding, aiming to build Asia’s largest integrated organ transplant center.

The Tianjin First Central Hospital Organ Transplant Surgery Division was established in 1998. It later became the Oriental Organ Transplant Center in 2003. It is the largest transplant center in Asia and has ranked first in China for the cumulative number of transplants performed since 1998. Liver and kidney transplants became routine surgeries at the center in 1999.
The center’s archived web pages show that it broke ground on its new building in 2002. The Tianjin municipal government funded construction of the new building with plans for 500 transplant beds. The center reportedly aimed to perform 500 liver transplants and 300 kidney transplants per year. This implies that each transplant bed would accommodate fewer than two patients per year. It is thus apparent that the center began to deflate its transplant volume from an early stage.

On December 28, 2003, Xinhua reported the opening of the Oriental Organ Transplant Center with 500 beds. While its main focus was the development of liver and kidney transplants, it also developed pancreatic, bone, skin, hair, stem cell, heart, lung, corneal, and larynx transplantation.

An archived web page of this hospital from January 4, 2006, showed that this center had the facilities to carry out nine liver transplants and eight kidney transplants (17 transplants in total) simultaneously. Before its new transplant building was put into use, it rented out floors in nearby hotels to house foreign transplant patients.

According to a February 2006 interview with the center’s director, the building had actually opened with 700 beds and 310 professionals.

However, after forced organ harvesting in China was exposed, in September 2006, Tianjin Daily News reported that the center’s new building officially entered operation with 500 beds.
North China Net Surveillance and Services
Second round selection of good hospitals in Tianjin
Tianjin First Central Hospital

Currently, the center’s website shows only 200 total beds and that it has conducted 3,300 liver and 2,357 kidney transplants between 1998 and 2009. However, this bed count is even smaller than when the center was established in 2003, let alone the 500+ beds in its new building that opened in 2006. Its bed utilization rate reached 90% in October 2009 and 131% in 2013 before it added still more beds.

Even if the center had only 500 beds, when it achieved a 100% bed utilization rate (which would have been around 2010, given its growth trend), with an average liver transplant hospitalization time of 3 to 4 weeks, its transplant volume could have reached 6,000 to 8,000 per year. With its 131% bed utilization rate in 2013, the corresponding annual volume may have been as high as 7,800 to 10,400.

A site visit by investigative journalists in October 2017 revealed that the center housed international transplant recipients in a nearby hotel in addition to its own facilities. This expanded capacity would have been even greater than it was in 2013.

The day before the journalists’ visit, the international transplant department performed 8 transplants (this would have required no more than two or three theaters). If this was the average daily rate, the international department alone would perform more than 2,500 transplants a year. The domestic transplant facilities exceeded the size and density of the international department, so the domestic department would have performed more than 2,500 transplants each year.
Furthermore, the new transplant building had at least 17 operating theaters, which were in full use around the clock at the time of the 2017 investigation. Even if each theater accommodated one transplant surgery per day, they would yield a total of more than 6,000 transplants per year.

Shen Zhongyang, the director of the Oriental Organ Transplant Center and president of Tianjin First Central Hospital, is known as the founder of liver transplantation in China. He also serves as an expert consultant for the Health Bureau of the Central Government (which provides health services for top leaders in the central Communist Party leadership), the chief expert for key organ transplantation technology projects of the national 863 Project, and the director of the Organ Transplant Research Institute at the Chinese People's Armed Police General Hospital in Beijing.

A media report stated, “As a leader, Shen Zhongyang has virtually no time for himself. In the past ten-plus years, he has basically gone from one thing to the next, day and night. He hasn’t had a single meal at regular times, and he’s often at the operating table until midnight or the following morning.”

Other transplant doctors also have not rested: “The hospital’s transplant surgery division’s doctors hurriedly shuttle between wards and operating rooms with no time to greet one another. They kept saying, ‘These few days are crazy busy, with more than a dozen surgeries a day.’ Some doctors were even rushing surgeries all night long [and] did not sleep at all. Doctors complain that the off-season is only a month after the New Year; they are busy until the end of the year and normally don’t go home.”

Its current website claims that in 2005 and 2006, it created a world record of more than 600 cases of liver transplants annually. However, those numbers would not need 50 beds and could have been easily implemented by just a few of its doctors among its 310 medical professionals.

- The center’s director, Shen Zhongyang, had reportedly completed close to 10,000 liver transplants by 2014. His colleagues and the majority of the doctors he trained had each independently completed over 1,000 transplants by the same year.
- By 2011, Vice President Zhu Zhijun had completed 1,400 liver transplants with 100 from relative donors.
- Deputy Director Cai Jinzhen completed 1,500 liver transplants.
- By July 2006, Associate Chief Surgeon Pan Cheng had independently completed over 1,000 liver transplants and participated in over 1,600 liver graft procurements.
- Chief Surgeon Song Wenli of the Renal Transplant Department completed over 2,000 kidney transplants and over 100 combined transplants.
- Associate Chief Surgeon Mo Chunbo completed over 1,500 kidney transplants.
- Chief Surgeon Gao Wei completed over 800 liver transplants with 100 from relative donors as of 2014.

TV Chosun’s on-site investigation in October 2017 validated its transplant scale and found that this hospital is still conducting transplants at full capacity.
More Prolific Institutions and Individuals

The People’s Liberation Army Organ Transplant Center at No. 309 Hospital has 231 medical and research personnel. It had 224 beds in 2008, 316 beds in 2010 and 393 beds in 2012, though its website now says it has 330 beds. Its bed utilization rates reportedly lead that of similar military organizations. It once completed 12 kidney transplants overnight.

As of 2014, Tan Jianming, vice president of Fuzhou General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command, has led more than 4,200 kidney transplants. Tan was previously also part-time director of the Urology and Transplantation Department at Shanghai Jiao tong University’s First People’s Hospital and its Shanghai Organ Transplant Center.

Shanghai Changzheng Hospital affiliated with the Second Military Medical University, hosts two prolific doctors. Zhu Youhua, who is considered a leader in the People’s Liberation Army on kidney transplantation, completed 3,680 kidney transplants by 2010.

Fu Yaowen, founder of the First Hospital of Jilin University’s kidney transplantation program and blood purification center, completed 3,000 kidney transplants as of April 2009.

In a paper published in 2004, Yu Lixin, director of the transplant department at Nanfang Hospital of Southern Medical University, stated that the hospital had conducted 2,123 kidney transplants as of November 2001.

One particularly prolific institution is Xinqiao Hospital affiliated with the Third Military Medical University. Its Renal Diseases Research Center claimed that it had “conducted 2,590 kidney transplants by 2002 ... and once performed 24 kidney transplants in one day.”

By 2005, Guan Delin at Beijing Huaxin Hospital (First Affiliated Hospital of Tsinghua University) had experience in “over 2,700 kidney transplants, over 40 kidney transplants from relative donors, and close to 20 combined kidney-pancreas transplants.”

The Guangdong No.2 Provincial People’s Hospital’s organ transplant department was established in 1999. Its director, Liu Dong, had personally participated in more than 2,000 kidney and liver transplant surgeries as of April 2015. Deputy director Wu Jiaqing revealed that prior to August 3, 2006, the department performed “more than 10 organ transplant surgeries every day,” and that “beginning in August 2006, patients from 8-9 countries came to the hospital for organ transplants, including from Singapore, Cambodia, and France.”
Market for Immunosuppressants

As transplant recipients require immunosuppressants to prevent rejection, we can gauge the number of transplants performed in China using the size of the market for these drugs.

On August 22, 2016, Huang Jiefu, chairman of the China Human Organ Donation and Transplant Committee, said at the 26th International Congress of The Transplantation Society in Hong Kong that China accounted for 10,057 transplants (8.38%) of the total of 120,000 performed worldwide in 2015. Since China’s usage of immunosuppressants was about 8% of the total, he asserted, the two figures corroborate each other.538

The international community may also have questioned why China has not consumed a significant portion of immunosuppressants in the international market if there have been so many organ transplants in China.

As discussed earlier, the Chinese government invested heavily in research and development in immunosuppressants. As domestic manufacturers localized new immunosuppressive products and expanded their production capabilities, transplant hospitals in China came to use mostly domestic products instead of imported ones.

In a 2004 Guangming Daily report, Professor Zhang Yuhai, director of urologic surgery at Beijing Friendship Hospital, said that kidney transplant patients in the past mainly used imported or joint-venture immunosuppressive products, and that more than half of patients were now using domestic immunosuppressants, including self-financed patients and many covered by free public health services or medical insurance.539

China’s immunosuppressant market has dozens of brands, including products made by foreign investment companies, joint ventures, and imitation and domestic products; they even include brands of traditional Chinese medicine.540 There were more than 100 manufacturers and nearly 30 varieties in 2006.

In 2006, Health Times (owned by People’s Daily) interviewed Yan Lvnan, the director of the liver transplantation center at West China Hospital of Sichuan University. Dr. Yan said that West China Hospital was able to keep the cost of maintenance at 30,000 yuan in the first year and an average of 10,000 yuan per year thereafter; this was achieved by using immunosuppressants “reasonably,” which greatly reduced the cost.

In March 2006, the Southern Medicine Economic Institute under the China Food and Drug Administration reported that the domestic immunosuppressant market at the time was nearly 10 billion yuan.541

If each patient pays an average of 30,000 RMB per year for immunosuppressants, the 10-billion-RMB market in 2006 would have supported 333,000 patients. Organ transplantation grew significantly only after 2000 and would thus have averaged 50,000 to 60,000 per year, not the 10,000 per year claimed by the government.

International drug sales data, such as those from IMS indicating a 2.3-billion RMB market in 2009,542 reflect only part of the actual size of the Chinese immunosuppressant market.
Hiding and Falsification of Data

The Chinese regime has systematically hidden and destroyed evidence and data regarding its harvesting of organs from illicit sources. Our examination of hospitals shows that transplant figures claimed by the government and medical institutions have been manipulated because of the unaccountable organ sources and due to financial interests. This was especially true after forced organ harvesting first gained international scrutiny in 2006, since which time transplant data and relevant online information have been either removed or deflated, often by an order of magnitude.

I. Case Study: Inconsistent Transplant Numbers Between National and Hospital Data

In February 2017, Liver International retracted a 2016 study by Zheng Shusen’s team and imposed a lifelong embargo on submissions from these authors because of concerns that the study used organs sourced from executed prisoners. The disputed study analyzed 563 consecutive liver transplants performed by the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University from April 2010 to October 2014.

Zheng Shusen is the president of this hospital, an academician of the Chinese Academy of Engineering, and the director of the China Organ Transplantation Society. The hospital’s transplant volume in Zheng’s study was 3.4 times that of its claimed number of organ donations. Unable to explain the source of these organs, Huang Jiefu, Chairman of the National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee, said that Zheng’s study had overstated the number of voluntary donations and transplants, “Between 2011 and 2014, we had 1,910 liver donations. Zhejiang First Hospital had 166. The paper said it did 564 transplants. That’s definitely wrong.” However, Huang gave a different number at a Vatican summit on organ trafficking in February 2017, where he said there were 2,342 deceased liver donations from 2011 to 2014.

Huang’s claim that the hospital had 166 liver donations in four years implies an average of 44 per year. Zheng told the media in July 2014 that his hospital performed more than 500 organ transplants in 2013 and had already exceeded 300 by July 2014. He added that more than half of the transplants used donated organs. Zheng’s hospital received more than 400 (250+150) donations between July 2013 and July 2014. This one-year figure almost matched that of the four years in his study.

However, even Zheng’s figure of 500 transplants per year was most likely understated. His 340-bed hepatopancreatobiliary department has three dedicated transplant wards and claims to be the largest transplant center in eastern China with a capacity of thousands of transplants per year. It would be implausible for each bed to have accommodated only several transplants per year.

As of October 2017, Zheng himself had performed over 2,200 liver transplants. Zheng once performed 5 liver transplants in one day in 2005. He disclosed in a paper that he had conducted 46 emergency
liver transplants between January 2000 and December 2004, with all of the patients receiving orthotopic liver transplants within 72 hours.\textsuperscript{554}

On February 28, 2017, liver transplant coordinator Xie Qinfen (86-13968153957) at Zhejiang University International Hospital told an investigator, “Usually it takes about two weeks…usually we hear back the next day regarding the liver source … sometimes it’s very quick, sometimes there’s been cases where we could operate the next day. It depends on you, we can prioritize critically ill patients…it mainly depends on the hospital president, President Zheng has a lot of renown and connections.”\textsuperscript{555}

Below, we examine Huang Jiefu’s transplant record.

\textit{Figure. Peking Union Medical College Hospital and a special scene of the hospital: Thousands of people line up overnight to register for an appointment slot at this hospital, which treats both cadres and common citizens—a rarity among top-ranked hospitals in China}

The website of Peking Union Medical College (PUMC) Hospital, where Huang works, removed all its liver transplant numbers and claims that it had only 28 beds. However, in a 2013 interview, Huang Jiefu stated that he had performed more than 500 liver transplants in 2012 and that one of them in November was “the first voluntary citizen donation meeting Chinese standards.”\textsuperscript{556} Where did the hundreds of livers before that point come from?

At least a portion of Huang’s 500 transplants took place at PUMC. This hospital has a strong team of liver transplant doctors trained overseas, with 2 doctoral advisors, 3 master’s advisors, 5 professors, and 5 attending surgeons and physicians, all of whom hold doctoral degrees. They include Mao Yilei, Sang Xinting, Zhong Shouxian, and other high-profile transplant experts. Due to Huang’s administrative and political duties, his own transplant volume would likely not have been the highest.

Its urologic surgery department currently has 67 personnel and 80 beds. Its website shows that since its first kidney transplants were carried out in the 1970s, it has completed nearly 1,000 kidney transplants. However, this number has not been updated since 2004.\textsuperscript{557}
II. Case Study: China International Transplantation Assistance Center (CITNAC)

On October 16, 2007, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs made a rare, high-profile announcement that Hiroyuki Nagase, the CEO of a Japanese-funded company, had been arrested for illegal organ trading. The Ministry indicated that, since 2004, the Shenyang-based IPC Information Service Corporation had published online information about organ trafficking under the name of “China International Transplantation Assistance Center.”

The arrest occurred after the center’s website attracted international attention after China’s forced organ harvesting was exposed in 2006. The website contained information about organ transplant prices, the availability of kidney transplants from living sources, and how the Chinese government facilitated its high transplant volume. The website was available in Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Russian, and English. It was subsequently shut down after September 23, 2007.

*Screenshot of the CITNAC website as of August 29, 2007*

*The web page is not available*
*The web page you’re searching for may have been deleted, moved, or not accessible.*

*The same web page was no longer available as of September 23, 2007*
The China International Transplantation Network Assistance Center (CITNAC), which focused mainly on foreign patients, was founded in 2003 under the organ transplantation department of the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University. We refer to it by the name on its English website.\textsuperscript{563} While nominally foreign-owned, the center was established within a Chinese hospital. The government apparently used this structure and the prosecution of a foreign national to avoid culpability for illicit organ transplants carried out by a Chinese institution.

III. Deletion of Information

A number of hospital and transplant organization webpages and even entire websites were deleted after the first Kilgour/Matas report was released in 2006. In addition, we observed that some hospitals merged their dedicated transplant departments and centers back into their parent departments, such as hepatobiliary surgery, urology, etc. The more generic departmental structure obfuscates any remaining information regarding transplant resources and capacity.

Transplant Organization Websites

The Society of Transplantation website under Chinese Medical Association, before it was taken down in April 2006

The Society of Transplantation website (http://www.cstx.org/) under the Chinese Medical Association (http://www.cma.org.cn/) became inaccessible shortly after the harvesting of organs from Falun Gong practitioners was first publicized on March 9, 2006. Searching for the Society of Transplantation website stored on www.archive.org reveals that the website was taken offline in April 2006.
We also found a listing of active transplant-related websites published in 2004 that are no longer accessible, including China Organ Transplant Online established primarily by Beijing Chaoyang Hospital’s Urology and Kidney Disease Center, Transplant Space by the First Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University’s Organ Transplant Research Institute, the Chinese Renal Transplant Collaboration website by Zhengzhou Central Hospital’s Kidney Transplant Department, and the Central China Military Renal Transplant Collaboration website operated by the People’s Liberation Army Hospital No. 460’s urologic surgery department, among others.

Hospital Websites

Xiangya Hospital Deletes Report of Record-Breaking 17 Transplant Surgeries in One Day

On May 14, 2006, Xiangya Hospital of Central South University published a report titled “Our Hospital Again Sets a New Record in Organ Transplant Surgeries.” The report stated that the hospital set a new record by performing 2 liver, 7 kidney, and 8 corneal transplants in one day.

The report was deleted shortly after it was mentioned on an overseas website. Records on archive.org indicate that the article had been deleted by June 22, 2006. However, the title of the report was still listed on the “Comprehensive Medical News” page.

Clicking the link to the report results in the message, “The content you are looking for has been deleted, renamed, or is temporarily unavailable.” Other articles in the same list were still accessible.

Nevertheless, the original article is still available on the news website of Central South University, under the title “Xiangya Hospital Organ Transplantation Sets New Record: 17 Transplant Surgeries Completed in One Day.”

Other hospitals also deleted information regarding their transplantation activities, capacity and personnel from their websites.
IV. Causes of Underreporting

“Problems with the Organ Sources”

Wu Mengchao revealed in an interview with iNewsweek.cn on February 23, 2006, “There are problems with the organ sources, so it’s hard to organize cases after performing [transplants], and we can’t publish papers.”

Financial Interests

Tax evasion has become a common practice for enterprises and institutions in mainland China. It is not uncommon for transplant centers to maintain two sets of books for recording transplant surgeries.

In the industry’s early period of growth after 2000, because transplant volume was limited by technology and the cost of immunosuppressant medications, hospitals and doctors engaged in high-profile publicity to attract patients. Transplant volumes increased with the quick resolution of these obstacles. For self-financed hospitals, protecting themselves from the tax consequences of this surge in profits became a practical concern. Underreporting of transplant volumes became a way to evade taxation.

We examined such practices at Peking University People's Hospital. As of July 16, 2014, its website stated that the hospital had carried out a total of 600 liver and 510 kidney transplants since 2000. After becoming an approved transplant center in 2007, it claims to have performed “80 to 90 transplants per year.” In other words, the hospital publicly reported that it performed fewer than 1,200 liver and kidney transplants in over a decade.

However, in an interview with China Economic Weekly, Zhu Jiye revealed entirely different numbers: “Before the pilot [donation] program started in 2010, all of our organ sources came from death-row prisoners. Our hospital once did more than 4,000 liver and kidney transplants in one year. These organs all came from death-row prisoners.”

Zhu was describing events before 2010. The hospital’s transplant center moved into its new 470-bed surgery building in December 2005. Its website now claims it performs 120 to 130 liver and kidney transplants per year, which represents only 3% of the number stated by Zhu Jiye. It is unlikely that a transplant center with 470 beds would perform only 120 to 130 surgeries per year.

In another example, a senior military doctor who belonged to the General Logistics Department of the Shenyang Military Command wrote to the Epoch Times on March 31, 2006:

“The number of underground transplants performed in China exceeds the public figures by several times. For example, if the official number is 30,000 cases, then the actual number would be 110,000. This is also the root cause of plummeting prices of organ transplants in China … Because there is a huge pool of available living organs, many military hospitals report their transplants to their supervising authorities. At the same time, they also carry out organ transplants on a large scale in private. This leads to the fact that the actual numbers are much higher than the official statistics.”
V. Falsification of Transplant Data

In this section, we examine the scope and severity of the falsification of transplant data.

Ministry of Health Notices Show Hospitals Widely Underreport to Transplant Registries

According to Article 36 of the *Trial Regulations for Clinical Application and Management of Human Organ Transplantation Technology* issued by the Ministry of Health (MOH) in 2006, hospitals are required to report transplant surgeries conducted to its provincial health administrative department within 30 days via software developed by the MOH. Provincial administrative departments are to collect and report the cases to the MOH via this system.

It appears that this requirement was not fulfilled in practice. MOH Medical Regulation Notice #55 was issued in June 2009 and included a zero-tolerance policy stating any hospital found not in compliance with reporting requirements would have its transplant approval revoked. 573

However, the reporting situation still did not appear to change. One year later, the ministry issued a stricter regulation—Notice #105 of 2010—that required all transplants to be reported within 72 hours. Hospitals found to be in violation would have their transplant qualifications suspended. 574

These two regulations indicated widespread, extensive underreporting by transplant centers in mainland China.

After these notices were issued, has the situation changed?

In April 2011, *The Economic Observer* reported on wide gaps among the number of transplants the Oriental Organ Transplant Center reported in the transplant registry, its public data, and the real number of transplant surgeries it conducted. 575

The center registered only 7 liver transplants (including from both living and cadaveric donors) in 2010, yet it publicly reported 330 liver transplants. Hospital president Shen Zhongyang and Wang Haibo, who managed the National Liver Transplant Registry at Hong Kong University’s Queen Mary Hospital, both declined to explain this discrepancy.

Per our earlier analysis, this hospital’s transplant volume likely exceeded 6,000 to 8,000 per year and may have reached as high as 7,800 to 10,400 per year. Its registered volume was not even a small fraction of the actual number of transplant surgeries. It claimed to have performed the most transplants in China and was ranked first in the registration system consistently for more than a decade, suggesting that other transplant centers registered even fewer than 7 transplants per year.

This report came shortly after the Ministry of Health issued two regulations targeting the underreporting of transplants.
This example is one of many in which we see severe underreporting by China’s transplant centers. The transplant statistics reported by government authorities must therefore be far from reality.

This reporting system later became China’s transplant registry system. The health system officially operates six transplant registries, one each for liver, kidney, heart, lung, small intestine, and pancreas. The liver registry was established at Hong Kong University and was moved to the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University in 2014. The kidney and heart registries are based in Beijing and the lung registry in Wuxi. The data on these three sites are accessible only to those who have registry-issued login names and passwords. Registries for small intestine and pancreas transplants were not found.

For the book *Bloody Harvest*, David Kilgour and David Matas were able to garner information about transplant volumes from the China Liver Transplant Registry in Hong Kong. After the book’s publication, the China Liver Transplant Registry shut down public access to aggregate statistics on its site.

For a while thereafter, the names and locations of transplant hospitals reporting to the registry remained public. The registry listed 35 national hospitals (including 9 military) and 45 provincial hospitals (including 11 military). After David Matas referred to this data publicly, it was also removed from public view.

At the Transplantation Congress in Vancouver in August 2010, Wang Haibo, Assistant Director of the China Liver Transplant Registry, presented at the same session as did David Matas. Matas asked why public access to the registry data was shut down and if it could be restored. Wang answered that public access was shut down because people were misinterpreting the data; if anyone were to get access from then on, the registry first had to know the purpose for which the data was to be used and have some confidence that the data would not be misinterpreted.

These registries remain inaccessible to the public today.
Underreported Transplant Data

We found that underreporting of transplant volume is a common phenomenon among the 165 approved transplant hospitals. A series of representative case studies are presented below.

Case Study: PLA No. 458 Hospital

In 2016, a *Lifeweek* report titled “Medical Stories Behind the Lens” featured a segment regarding liver transplants at the PLA Hospital No. 458. On September 28, 2006, Dr. Sun Ningdong of the PLA 458 Hospital’s Hepatobiliary Surgery Department hosted his first photography exhibition. Sun was most proud of one photo that won many photography awards. “It’s Again the Dead of Night” depicts the scene of the hospital’s first liver transplant: “At that time, the surgery had already lasted 6 hours at night. Some people were dozing off, and some were moving. If you magnify it, you can see the eyes of the lead surgeon—they are really bright.” The 458 Hospital has now performed over 140 liver transplants...

This report shows that in the two years after its first liver transplant in 2004, this hospital carried out more than 140 liver transplants. Nine years later, however, its total number of liver transplants had not grown on paper. If this were really the case, the hospital could not have maintained its certification by the Ministry of Health.

The hospital also self-reported doing 20 liver transplants each year (the minimum requirement to maintain its Ministry approval). Based on this number, by 2013, it should have performed over 300 liver transplants. Using a conservative figure of 70 cases per year from the media report, it would have accumulated nearly 800 liver transplants to date.

The patient rooms at the PLA Hospital No. 458 liver disease center are well equipped with amenities, including five “presidential suites.” The center has 108 beds and can simultaneously carry out two liver transplants and one regular surgery. If we assume that each operating room is used only once per day (otherwise, only one operating room for liver transplants would suffice), it would have performed 700 per year, or 10,000 to date. We estimate that the hospital’s public numbers represent about 1/70th of its actual liver transplant volume.
Case Study: West China Hospital of Sichuan University

A profile of the West China Hospital of Sichuan University’s liver transplant center published on September 2, 2004 stated that its five full sets of imported liver transplant equipment allowed five liver transplant operations to be performed simultaneously and that the center had 72 beds. In July 2005, Prof. Yan Lvnan said at a symposium, “My department can do three to five liver transplants on the same day. The most we did was seven liver transplants in one day.”

The web page stated that the center had conducted nearly 800 liver transplants, including more than 260 from relative donors. Based on its bed count and an average hospital stay of 30 days, the center would be able to perform more than 800 transplants in a single year.

The liver transplant center no longer appears on the hospital’s website. The most recent search result states that the center “now routinely performs DCD (donation after cardiac death) liver transplantation, adult and pediatric living-donor liver transplantation, and split form liver transplantation, constituting approximately 100 cases per year.”

“Our center can perform five liver transplants simultaneously... The most we did was seven liver transplants in one day.”

— Prof. Yan Lvnan, the director of the Liver Transplant Center at West China Hospital
West China Hospital has Asia’s largest ultra-clean surgery department. According to the department’s engineering plan for purification, the hospital has 67 operating rooms, including at least 9 for the Urologic Surgery Department (3 original and 6 newly constructed), at least 8 for the General Surgery Department, and 6 for the Cardiothoracic Surgery Department.583

The hospital’s web page dated February 22, 2005, shows, “Since its first kidney transplant carried out in September 1978, the center has performed more than 4,000 kidney transplants.”584

By September 2014, the number of transplants listed had shrunk: “the center has performed more than 2,500 kidney transplants.585 From 2011 onwards, more than 200 kidney transplants have been completed annually.”586 This volume would require no more than one operating room.
Case Study: Xinqiao Hospital of the Third Military Medical University

Xinqiao Hospital claims to be the largest organ transplant center in southwestern China. It was one of the first hospitals to carry out kidney, cornea, pancreas-kidney, and other types of transplants. Its published report, “Urology Surgery History of PLA Nephrology Center,” states, “2,590 renal transplants have been performed...The center once performed 24 kidney transplants in one day.”

—Xinqiao Hospital

However, its website stated as of April 29, 2018, “Since our first kidney transplant performed in January 1978, our department has performed more than 2,100 surgeries to date, becoming the third site in the country to exceed 2,000 surgeries.”

Compared to its number from 2002 (2,590 cases), the current figure after 16 years is 490 cases short, which suggests that it has been falsified.
Case Study: Navy General Hospital

An archived web page of the Navy General Hospital claims that its hepatobiliary surgery department was among the first in China to carry out liver transplants.\textsuperscript{589}  

“Several thousand patients with end-stage liver cancer have gained a second life through liver transplantation at Navy General Hospital.”

As of 2012, its website stated, “Several thousand patients with end-stage liver cancer have gained a second life through liver transplantation at the Hepatobiliary Surgery Department of Navy General Hospital.”\textsuperscript{590} However, the same web page stated in 2015, “Since 1999, 300 liver transplants have been successfully carried out.”

The hospital’s new medical building opened on December 16, 2009. The 70,000+ square meter building represented a 400 million RMB investment. It has 724 open beds, 18 operating rooms, and a special ward for international patients and VIPs.\textsuperscript{591 592}

ICU ward and operating room in the new medical building at Navy General Hospital
Case Study: General Hospital of Jinan Military Command

The Jinan Military Command General Hospital’s website stated as of April 2018 that its Urologic Surgery Department had completed 3,000 kidney transplants since 1978.\(^\text{593}\) An archived web page from 2016 showed 1,500 transplants since 1978.\(^\text{594}\) However, according to the Qilu Evening News in 2008, the team was capable of performing 6 kidney transplants simultaneously. It set a national record of performing 16 kidney transplants within 24 hours. Its annual transplant volume has ranked among the nation's top 10 for ten consecutive years; this department ranks among the top ten in China and among the top five in the military.\(^\text{595}\) In addition, transplantation.org.cn reported in 2012 that the department’s director, Zhang Aimin, claimed that the hospital performed more than 2,500 kidney transplants between 1978 and 2012.\(^\text{596}\) The total on the hospital’s website in 2016 was 1,000 fewer than Zhang figure from 2012 alone.

Case Study: Third Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University

The Liver Transplant Center and the Sun Yat-Sen University Organ Transplant Research Institute are a national key specialty under the Ministry of Education and a national key clinical specialty under the Ministry of Health. The Center is a leading institution in southern China and an internationally influential clinical and research center in the Hong Kong, Macau, and Southeast Asia region. The Center has five wards. It currently has 113 open beds.\(^\text{597}\)

Chen Guihua, hospital president and director of the organ transplant center and research institute, is the director of the Guangdong Medical Association Organ Transplantation Subcommittee, vice director of the China Organ Transplant Association Liver Transplant Group, and director of the Guangdong Province Organ Transplant Research Center.

The center’s website has stated since February 2006, “Director Chen Guihua has served as lead surgeon for more than 1,000 liver transplants in recent years.”\(^\text{598}\) He oversaw 4 liver transplant operations simultaneously on the night of February 10, 2004 and conducted 246 liver transplants in 2005.\(^\text{599}\) However, after the exposure of forced organ harvesting in China, Chen's personal web page showed that he undertook only over 100 liver transplants.\(^\text{600}\)
Chapter VI  
Apparent Overnight Transition to Ethical Organ Sourcing

China performs transplants on a large scale and has an abundance of organs. Where do these organs come from?

I. Death-Row Prisoners

The Chinese regime has changed its story on organ sourcing several times.

As early as 2001, a doctor from China testified before the United States Congress\textsuperscript{601} that the Government of China was using organs from executed prisoners without consent. The Chinese government denied this claim until July 2005, when Huang Jiefu, then Deputy Minister of Health, acknowledged for the first time that the majority of transplant organs in China were obtained from executed prisoners.\textsuperscript{602}

After live organ harvesting from prisoners of conscience was exposed in March 2006, Chinese officials returned to the initial denial.\textsuperscript{603} \textsuperscript{604} Then, starting in January 2007, Huang consistently said that organs were sourced from executed prisoners.\textsuperscript{605}

In December 2008, Huang Jiefu published an article in \textit{The Lancet} entitled “Government Policy and Organ Transplantation in China,” stating that over 90\% of the organs were sourced from death-row prisoners.\textsuperscript{606}

“A Stream Without a Source”

Although the Chinese regime treats the number of executions as a state secret, international organizations have attempted over the years to estimate this number using various sources.

Amnesty International counted death-row executions published in media reports and official databases. According to Amnesty’s data, there were 8,401 executions between 1995 and 1999, with an average of 1,680 annually, followed by an average of 1,616 annually between 2000 and 2005,\textsuperscript{607} and 1,066 between 2006 and 2008.\textsuperscript{608} \textsuperscript{609} \textsuperscript{610} Since January 2007, when the law was changed to require that the Supreme People’s Court of China review all death penalty cases, the number of executions has decreased further. For example, in 2007, 15\% of death penalty cases were dismissed after review.\textsuperscript{611}

Amnesty stopped publishing estimates after 2008. Its 2017 report stated, “hundreds of documented death penalty cases are missing from a national online court database,” which “contains only a tiny fraction of the thousands of death sentences that Amnesty International estimates are handed out every year in China.”\textsuperscript{612}

The international community generally believes that the overall number of death-row executions in China has decreased since 2000, when it was thought to be approximately 10,000.\textsuperscript{613} \textsuperscript{614} According to \textit{The Economist}, in the first year of Supreme Court review, the number of death-row sentences decreased by
30%; executions also decreased to 5,000 in 2008. Huang Jiefu corroborated this trend by saying in 2013 that death-row executions had decreased by 10% each year for more than a decade and that there were in fact very few death-row prisoners.

In 2016, when reviewing this period of history, Huang stated, “Transplants that rely on death-row organs are becoming ‘a stream without a source.’ The transition from death-row organs to citizen donations is a matter of life and death for China’s transplant industry.”

Continued Reliance on Prisoner Organs

In March 2010, China piloted an organ donation program for the first time in 19 provinces and cities. The Ministry of Health and the Red Cross Society of China jointly ran this program. But as of 2012, many regions had no donations, and only 207 donors were reported nationwide.

In August 2013, the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC) issued the Trial Notice on Management Regulations for Human Organ Procurement and Distribution, requiring transplant centers to use the national organ allocation and sharing computer system, i.e. the China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS). Patients on the waiting list were to be entered into this national database, and donated organs would also go through this centralized distribution system.

At the China Organ Transplant Congress in November 2013, the Hangzhou Resolution was announced. Among the 169 registered transplant hospitals, 38 signed the resolution to stop using prisoner organs immediately, while most transplant hospitals showed no interest in developing donation programs.

However, the Hangzhou Resolution did not end the use of prisoner organs.

In March 2014, Huang explained to The Beijing News that transplant reform “is not about not using organs from death-row prisoners, but not allowing hospitals or medical personnel to engage in private transactions [for procuring] human organs.”

“We will regulate the issue by including voluntary organ donations by death-row prisoners in the nation's public organ donation system.”

“Once entered into our unified allocation system, they are counted as voluntary donations by citizens. The so-called death-row organ donation doesn't exist any longer.”

In December 2014, Chinese state-owned media declared that China would stop using death-row prisoners’ organs for transplants after January 1, 2015, and that citizens’ voluntary organ donations after death would be the only source of organs for transplants.

However, international observers raised concern that this reform only re-categorized previously unidentified organ sources as voluntary donations without substantive changes. A New York Times article stated, “Organs from prisoners, including those on death row, can still be used for transplants in China, with the full backing of policy makers, according to Chinese news reports, as well as doctors and medical researchers in China and abroad.”

A British Medical Journal article, co-authored by five medical experts from the United States, Germany and Canada, says, “The announcement of December 2014 itself is neither a law nor a governmental regulation” and asserts that the Chinese authorities are simply playing word games by “labelling prisoner organs as voluntary donations from citizens.”
II. Donation and Allocation System Used to Launder Organs

Clinical organ transplantation in China began in the 1970s but by 2003, the number of voluntary donations remained essentially zero. However, Huang Jiefu claimed that building up China’s organ donation and transplant framework, a process that took other countries dozens of years, took only several years in China after its pilot donation program began in 2010.

The China Organ Donation Administrative Center (CODAC) was established in July 2012. The pilot donation program was expanded nationally with the announcement of a national allocation and distribution system, the China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS), at the end of August 2013. Huang later stated that 80% of organs in 2014—just one year later—came from citizen donations, that it stopped using organs from death-row prisoners in 2015, and that its voluntary donation system has been the sole source of organs since then.

However, this alleged leap in progress is only a delusive response to international criticism. The government has successfully used the donation system and COTRS to create a false appearance of reform.

Difficulties in Securing Donations

For decades, voluntary donations have been the main source of transplant organs outside of China with donations after brain death making up the majority of deceased donations in Western countries. In China, however, deeply rooted traditional custom requires bodies to remain whole after death. Furthermore, China’s legislative framework is not capable of enforcing ethical donation. There remains a general lack of trust in the Chinese medical system by potential donors. Thus, China has had few donations all along.

After presenting the “huge progress” of China’s donation system at a Vatican summit on organ trafficking in February 2017, Huang Jiefu acknowledged one month later, “A recent survey showed that over 80% of internet users in China are willing to become organ donors. However, only 80,000 people have registered to become donors on the official website. This really doesn’t fit the image of our country.” “A big country like China needs at least 100 million registered donors to match our image.” Huang also mentioned, “This survey was based on the premise that the [donation] system and process are open and transparent, with no buying or selling [of organs].”

Survey of citizens’ fear that donated organs would be sold

A May 2012 study by the Guangzhou Public Opinion Research Center found that more than 80% of the 1,000+ respondents were concerned that donated organs might be sold.

A December 2008 report stated that almost all Chinese transplant doctors believed that voluntary organ donation would be “unachievable.”
Li Leishi, an academician at the Chinese Academy of Engineering, whose *Chinese Renal Transplant Manual* has become the working guide for the kidney transplant industry in mainland China, wrote in a paper, “In China, organ donation after a citizen’s death exists only theoretically. In actuality, it is not possible. There are no such conditions institutionally and legally … China has no standard for defining brain death, and organ donation has no legal protection.”

Even though the NHFPC’s 2013 *Regulations for Procurement* incorporated donation after brain death (DBD) and donation after brain and cardiac death (DBCD) into cardiac death classifications, and notwithstanding the launch of COTRS, over 70% of the 165 approved transplant centers showed no interest in developing civilian organ donation programs. Doctors indicated that no matter how good the computer matching and deployment system was, it wouldn’t work without a supply of organs. Even when a donated organ became available, it was often of poor quality and could not be used.

A 2013 news report attributed citizens’ unwillingness to donate organs to distrust in the donation system and cultural attitudes. The report pointed out however, that bigger impediments existed in the form of operational problems:

China’s *Regulations on Human Organ Transplantation* stipulate that citizens who opt out of organ donation before death cannot have their organs donated or procured by any organizations or individuals. The organs of those citizens who have not previously consented to donation may be donated with the consent of family members after their death. In practice however, most potential donors are disqualified because their families cannot be located or do not agree to donation even if the patient gave consent before death.

Organ donor coordinators stated in 2013 that among 100 potential organ donors, about half were ineligible because they could not meet the requirements for donation. Of the remaining donors, about 30 could not be used because of delays in organ recovery after death. Ten donations were overruled by relatives’ objections. In the end, there were fewer than five available donors.

In 2015, only 10.5% of intensive care patients in China had treatment withdrawn before death, while the rate is 65-79% in North America and 81-90% in Europe. This difference also reflects cultural attitudes that lead to lower donation rates in China.

Even in 2017, two years after donation was claimed to be the only source of organs, cultural attitudes still remained a huge impediment to organ donation, which requires consent from three generations of a potential donor’s family (including parents, spouse, and children). OPO representatives routinely encounter cold or angry responses from patients’ family members who cling to the hope that the ICU can miraculously save their loved ones, such as “Don’t you want to save people? You’re coming after organs!” Even if the wife agrees, donation is most likely stopped by relatives and friends: “If you donate your husband’s organs, who dares to marry you in the future?” Many transplant coordinators fail to obtain consent for months at a time.

For example, Zhu Naigen, who became the first donor coordinator in Anhui Province in 2011, traveled to dozens of hospitals throughout the province to solicit organ donations and met with refusals about 90% of the time. Of the remaining 10%, most of the families ultimately declined to donate as well due to objections from other family members. Zhu’s hospital, the First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical
University, expanded from one full-time organ donor coordinator to three coordinators who were responsible for all Class 2 hospitals in four cities. These coordinators initially obtained one or two donors per year and now handle a dozen donors per year.\textsuperscript{654}

The entire province recorded 3 donors in 2013, 4 in 2014, 7 in 2015, and 29 in 2016.\textsuperscript{655} In 2017, the province had 63 donors, including its first heart and lung donations.\textsuperscript{656} These donations would not have been a sufficient supply of organs for even one transplant hospital.

**Official Number of Registered Donors Yields Only Dozens of Actual Donors**

China claims implausible progress in voluntary donations. A list of claimed milestones is as below:

*Table: China’s official organ donation statistics and milestones*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Claimed Number of Deceased Donors</th>
<th>Calculated Number of Deceased Donors (see below)</th>
<th>Number of Registered Donors</th>
<th>Death Rate (per 1000 population)</th>
<th>Claimed Milestone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td>1087\textsuperscript{659}</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>A pilot organ donation program was launched in 19 provinces and cities in March 2010.\textsuperscript{660}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>132</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>433</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>There were 207 deceased donors in two years nationwide as of in March 2012.\textsuperscript{661}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>849</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>The pilot donation program was expanded nationwide with the announcement of the China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS) in August 2013. 23% of organs came from donations.\textsuperscript{662}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>1,702</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>22,660\textsuperscript{663}</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>China reported achieving a breakthrough, with 80% of organs coming from donations.\textsuperscript{664}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>2,766</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>China announced that it stopped the use of death-row organs as of January 1, 2015.\textsuperscript{665}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>4,080</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>104,538\textsuperscript{666}</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>203,676,373,536\textsuperscript{667}, 169,860\textsuperscript{668}</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14,996</td>
<td></td>
<td>373,536\textsuperscript{669}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the U.S., only 0.3% of deaths occur in ways that allow for organ donation. Among the 2,626,418 deaths that occurred in 2014 (the latest data available), 8,596 (0.3%) became actual deceased donors. In China, the 2014 death rate of 0.74% and 22,000 registered donors would result in approximately 164 deaths; if 0.3% of these deaths were eligible for donation, this pool would yield less than one donor. For the same year, Huang Jiefu claimed that there were 851 donors and that 80% of transplant organs came from donations. His announcement that China stopped using organs from executed prisoners in January 2015 means that organs must have been obtained from other sources, most likely illicit.

Below, we compare donation and transplantation figures between the United States and China for 2016.

**Table. Comparison of organ donation and transplantation statistics in the U.S. and China in 2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>U.S. (U)</th>
<th>China (C)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>324 million&lt;sup&gt;672&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Number of registered organ donors</td>
<td>130 million&lt;sup&gt;674&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Crude death rate</td>
<td>8.2‰&lt;sup&gt;676&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Estimated deaths of registered donors (=U2<em>U3; C2</em>C3)</td>
<td>1.07 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Deceased organ donors (claimed)</td>
<td>9,971&lt;sup&gt;678&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ratio of donations to death of registered donors (=U5/U4)</td>
<td>0.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Calculated donations using U.S. ratio (=C4*U6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Deceased donors per million population (=U5/U1; C5/C1)</td>
<td>30.8/million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Calculated donors per million population using U.S. ratio (=C7/C1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ratio of actual donors to registered donors (=U5/U2; C5/C2)</td>
<td>0.0077%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Transplants performed (claimed)</td>
<td>33,606&lt;sup&gt;680&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Number of organs contributed per donor (=U11/U5; C11/C5)</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The U.S. had 130 million registered organ donors in 2016. With a crude annual death rate of 8.2 per 1000 population, there would have been an estimated 1.07 million deaths of registered donors. There were 9,971 deceased organ donors. China had 104,538 registered organ donors in 2016 and a death rate of 7.7 per 1000 population, which would yield an estimated 805 deaths of registered donors. Even if its ratio of registered donor deaths and actual donors is similar to that of the U.S., this figure would translate to 7.5 donors. Based on these figures, it is implausible at best that China had 4,080 donors in 2016. Even CODAC’s figure of 373,536 registered donors at the end of 2017 would yield proportionally fewer than 29 actual donors.
A 2015 survey by the World Organization to Investigate the Persecution of Falun Gong found that most institutes managing organ donations did not answer calls made by investigators. The few offices that did answer the phone indicated that there were only tiny numbers of people who had registered to donate and that the number of successful donations was extremely low.689

Table: Organ donation statuses from a 2015 survey by WOIPFG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Findings from Phone Call</th>
<th>Status of Transplant Centers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dec 6, 2015</td>
<td>Red Cross Society of Beijing 86-10-6355-8766</td>
<td>Organ donation was still in the preparatory stage. It did not have a donation office at the time and had not yet begun organ donation.690</td>
<td>There were 20 large transplant centers in Beijing, many of which were capable of performing thousands of transplants per year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec 17, 2015</td>
<td>Shanghai Red Cross Huangpu District office 86-21-63365880</td>
<td>The office began to carry out donation work at the beginning of the previous year. The entire city of Shanghai had only 5 successful organ donations since the donation system began.691</td>
<td>There were 11 transplant centers in Shanghai approved by the Ministry of Health.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec 12, 2015</td>
<td>Tianjin Red Cross 86-22-2731-1180</td>
<td>Since an organ donation database was created in 2003, there had been a total of 170 donated organs.693</td>
<td>Tianjin’s Oriental Organ Transplant Center had over 500 transplant beds and an annual capacity for at least 5,000 transplants.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given that China conducts far more transplants than it officially acknowledges, it follows that the vast majority of transplant organs in China must be from sources other than voluntary donors.

Current Regulations Embed Loopholes for Illicit Organ Sourcing

Lack of legislation

The United States legislates matters pertaining to organ transplantation and donation on four levels: state laws, federal laws, federal regulations, and the United Network of Organ Sharing (UNOS) polices.694

- State laws primarily cover issues pertaining to the donation process, such as the criteria for declaring death (including brain death), the consent requirements with respect to donors, the scope of public education programs, and the composition of donor registries.

- Federal laws primarily outline the processes of organ procurement, allocation, and transplantation by establishing the Organ Procurement and Transplantation Network (OPTN) and guidelines for organ procurement organizations (OPOs).

- Federal regulations explain the framework of the OPTN and its relationship with its member OPOs and transplant centers. These regulations are only a small portion of the policies that dictate the responsibilities of the OPTN and its members.
Policies of the United Network of Organ Sharing (UNOS) further define the functions of the OPTN and describe the policies that OPOs and transplant hospitals must follow in order to be members of the OPTN.

OPTN policy 2.13 (Requirements for Controlled Donation after Circulatory Death (DCD) Protocol) defines the necessary guidelines for hospitals that participate in organ donation; these policies help OPOs and transplant hospitals develop necessary DCD protocols.

Since China began industrializing transplants in 2000, the following laws and industry regulations and guidance with respect to organ transplantation have been passed:

- Trial Regulations for Clinical Application and Management of Human Organ Transplantation Technology issued by the Ministry of Health (MOH) (2006)\textsuperscript{695}
  - Article 30: Medical organizations and their medical personnel cannot procure an organ from a living body without the consent of the donor and family members. Living transplants should not impair normal physiological functions of the donor for the purpose of living organ donation.
  - Article 28: Medical organizations’ procurement of cadaveric organs must use necessary procedures in accordance with social ethics.

  These articles were formally adopted as Regulations on Human Organ Transplantation at the 171st Executive Meeting of the State Council on March 21, 2007 and promulgated by Decree No. 491 of the State Council of the People’s Republic of China on March 31, 2007. They became effective on May 1, 2007.\textsuperscript{696}

- Eighth Amendment to the Criminal Law of the People’s Republic of China (February 25, 2011):
  - Article 234.\textsuperscript{697}

    Whoever removes any other person’s organ without such other person’s consent, removes any organ of a person under the age of 18 or forces or deceives any other person into donating any organ shall be convicted and punished according to the provisions of Articles 234 (intentional injury; organizing others to sell human organs) and 232 (intentional killing) of this Law.

    Whoever removes a dead person’s organ against the person’s will before his death or removes a dead person’s organ against the will of the person’s near relatives in violation of the provisions of the state, provided that there is no consent from the person before his death shall be convicted and punished according to the provision of Article 302 (stealing, insulting, or intentionally destroying a corpse) of this Law.

  - Article 302: Stealing, insulting, or intentionally destroying a corpse, bones, or ashes is to be sentenced to not more than three years of fixed-term imprisonment, criminal detention, or control.\textsuperscript{698}

In addition, there are departmental regulations, specifications, and guidance on donation after cardiac death:
The guide introduced China’s Classification Criteria for Organ Donation After Cardiac Death, including three kinds of death criteria for organ donation: DBD (Brain Death, China’s Class I criteria), DCD (Cardiac Death, China’s Class II criteria), and DBCD (Brain Death followed by Circulatory Death, China’s Class III criteria).

- **Trial Notice on Management Regulations for Human Organ Procurement and Distribution** by the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC) (2013)
  - Chapter 2, Article 5: The procurement of donated organs must be carried out by OPOs in accordance with the Classification Criteria for Organ Donation After Cardiac Death. The relevant OPO management regulations are to be formulated by NHFPC.

- **China Donation After Cardiac Death Work Guide by the Chinese Medical Association’s Organ Transplantation Society (2012)**

- **Standards for Determining Brain Death by the Brain Damage Control and Evaluation Center (Adult Quality Control Version) published in the Chinese Journal of Neurology in 2013**

**Loopholes Allowing for Illicit Organ Sourcing**

In general, China has not enacted fundamental laws recognizing brain death for donation or governing organ sourcing, donation, procurement, allocation, and transplantation. When there is no law to follow, there is no issue of breaking the law. These departmental regulations, administrative policies and guidelines were heavily influenced by special interest groups, were enacted in response to international pressure, and include loopholes for the use of illicit organs. Several are listed below:

- **On scope of application:** The 2013 Regulations for Procurement are only internal administrative regulations of the medical industry and do not apply to other departments or the state.

- **On death criteria:** the 2007 Regulations on Human Organ Transplantation do not regulate the standards for determining death. While the 2013 Regulations for Procurement introduced three classification criteria for donation after cardiac death, including brain death criterion, they lack regulatory oversight and leave loopholes for illicit organ procurement.

- **On organ sourcing:** There is no guarantee of legality or regulatory oversight. The legality of organs is to be inspected by ethics committees, but no standards have been set for this purpose. Thus, in practice, there are no restrictions. Each hospital has its own ethics committee that operates based on its own standards.

- **On cadaver organs:** There are no restrictions on the source of cadaveric organs, implying that as long as donor bodies are not living, organs can be procured. This loophole allows for the use of organs procured from illicit sources.
On transplant registration: Regulations only require the registration of transplants with (traceable) donated organs. As a result, China’s official transplant volume matches neither the sum of total transplants at the various transplant centers nor the sum of voluntary donations. Rather, it is fabricated based on the needs of the state to show consistency between the number of transplants performed and the number of traceable organ sources. For example, the Oriental Organ Transplant Center (which performs the most transplants of any Chinese hospital) registered only 7 transplants in 2010 and other hospitals registered even fewer transplants. The total number of reported transplants cannot even reach the already deflated official figure of 10,000 annually.

On regulatory bodies: The responsibilities of administrative departments are only to:

- Conduct annual inspections of the transplant centers in order to determine whether they meet the minimum requirements for transplant bed count and transplant doctors.
- Publish the list of authorized OPOs and their service areas to avoid conflicts.

These two regulations do not provide any meaningful oversight for organ sourcing, procurement, allocation, and transplantation. Rather, the 2013 Regulations for Procurement noted that management regulations for OPOs would be enacted by the NHFPC separately; these regulations have yet to be released.

Views of Insiders

Regarding the 2006 Trial Regulations for Transplantation (adopted by the State Council in 2007), Professor Chen Zhonghua, a pioneer of organ donation in China and director of the Tongji Medical College Organ Transplantation Research Institute, said in a Deutsche Welle Special Interview upon the release of the 2006 Regulations:

“This is a most shallow, rough set of regulations for organ transplantation. Its function is limited to regulating the bottom of the stream, which is the certification of qualifications for the hospitals and doctors carrying out transplant surgeries. It’s akin to a policy of access and serves to increase the concentration of organ resources.”

“These regulations are actually very weak, it must be passed by the Standing Committee before it can become law. If there is a violation, one can only impose administrative penalties on the offender (up to a license revocation), and there can be no criminal or civil proceedings; it can’t cross over to the judicial or police systems—and right now more organ sources come from them [than from the medical system].”

An April 2006 report by Sanlian Life Weekly stated, “China currently has a voluntary organ donation rate from living relatives of 1.1%. The control of over 98% of organ sources is outside of the Ministry of Health system.”

According to Chen, the premise that human organs are not to be bought or sold has become a sham in the industry. With most organ sources being controlled by the judiciary, police, and military, rather than the health system, implementation of any of the provisions would be difficult. Regarding the “interim” nature of the provisions, Chen explained, “Currently China’s organ transplant volume is too big. There is a lot of pressure from inside and outside the country to roll out regulatory measures.”
Empty Shell of China’s Donation System

Structure of China’s Donation and Transplantation System

Regarding China’s donation and transplant system, Huang Jiefu, the architect of this system, said in March 2016, “As an ‘infant,’ it’s still very incomplete, and there are still many challenges and problems … there are timebombs everywhere.”

After presenting at the Vatican summit on organ trafficking in February 2017, Huang stated in a TV interview in March that China’s organ donation system had a high-level design that had not yet been implemented at lower levels. He complained, “How many people does the United States have overseeing organ donation and transplantation? Fifteen hundred. We only have one person in the NHFPC actually overseeing organ transplantation. The administration of organ donation and transplantation for 1.3 billion people is a big project, but right now there’s only one person. Real oversight also requires enforcement ability, not just revoking a license, revoking a doctor’s qualifications—that’s not enough. The public security department and law enforcement agencies need to be involved.”

We describe the workflow and roles of the parties involved in China’s donation and transplant system in the chart below, which is based on the NHFPC’s 2013 Trial Notice on Management Regulations for Human Organ Procurement and Distribution and depictions by Huang Jiefu in journal publications.

In Huang’s presentation, China’s donation and transplantation system comprises branches for donation, procurement and distribution, clinical services (transplantation), post-transplant registration, and regulators. However, the donation and regulation units are not functional, and this process lacks the following key components:

- Third-party witnesses to the organ procurement and transplantation process
- Approval of organ sources by transplant centers
- Transparent registration of transplants by transplant centers
- Oversight of the organ donation, procurement, and transplantation process by regulatory authorities

As we addressed above, the administrative departments only perform annual inspections of hospital qualifications and publish lists of OPOs and their service areas; no agency provides oversight or enforcement for the day-to-day process of organ donation, procurement, and transplantation.

“The administration of organ donation and transplantation for 1.3 billion people is a big project, but right now there’s only one person.”

—Huang Jiefu, Chairman of the National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee
Structure of China’s Donation and Transplant System

Organ Donation Branch
China Organ Donation Administrative Center
Red Cross Society of China (RCSC): Provides publicity work for the donation program, donor registration, commemoration

Hospital ICUs, Emergency Departments
Brain Surgery Departments

Potential Organ Donors

Human Organ Procurement & Distribution Branch
OPO Alliance (Chairman: Huang Jiefu)
Organ Procurement Organizations (OPOs):
- Evaluate donors
- Sign legal documents
- Enter organs in COTRS for allocation
- Recover organs and act as witnesses
- Transport organs

Organ Sources from Medical System
Approved transplant hospitals

Organ Transplantation Branch
Expert Committee of China Organ Transplantation (Chairman: Huang Jiefu)
173 organ transplant centers

Human Organ Transplant Scientific Registration Branch
Director: Wang Haibo
- Liver Transplant Registry
- Kidney Transplant Registry
- Lung Transplant Registry
- Heart Transplant Registry

China Human Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee (CHODTC)
(Chairman: Huang Jiefu)

China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation (COTDF)

China Organ Transplantation Response System (COTRS)

Regulatory Branch
- National Health Administrative Regulatory Department
- Provincial HARD
- Organ Transplant Ethics Committee
Core Management Unit for Donation and Transplantation Exists in Name Only

The formation of the China Human Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee (CHODTC) was announced on March 1, 2014. It was reportedly placed under the leadership of the NHFPC and the Red Cross Society of China and intended to work as a central management unit to guide and oversee the human organ transplant and donation system in China. Huang Jiefu was named the committee’s chairman.\textsuperscript{712}

However, the committee is not a government organization or agency and is not listed under any of the NHFPC’s departmental structures.\textsuperscript{713} It has neither an official website nor dedicated personnel or offices. Rather, it appears to be a shell organization.

In November 2015, Huang Jiefu indicated that the organ donation system in China did not function in practice because its “National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee…exists in name only. The Red Cross and the National Planning Commission, the two most important organizations in organ donation, do not actually coordinate with each other. So far, no meeting has been held.”\textsuperscript{714}

In July 2012, before the establishment of the CHODTC, the Red Cross Society of China and the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC) jointly established the China Organ Donation Administrative Center (CODAC)\textsuperscript{715} to provide management and oversight of day-to-day organ donation, including the donation process and distribution. However, CODAC’s website does not list any personnel, though it was intended to have a staff of sixteen. The web pages on its Expert Committee also remain empty. CODAC is currently listed under the Red Cross, whose responsibilities have since been reduced to managing only online donor registration and publicity work.

China started establishing Organ Procurement Organizations (OPOs) within its approved transplant hospitals at the end of 2012.\textsuperscript{716} OPO personnel include transplant surgeons, neurosurgeons, intensivists, and nurses.

In September 2013, the NHFPC introduced the Management Regulations for Human Organ Procurement and Allocation (Trial).\textsuperscript{717} They do not regulate the management or oversight of OPOs; the NHFPC was to enact these regulations separately.

The OPO Alliance was formed one year later in November 2014 to demonstrate that organ donation in China was “in line with international standards.”\textsuperscript{718} However, organ procurement standards and technical specifications, while promised at its establishment, have yet to be released publicly.

Huang Jiefu is listed as the chair of the OPO Alliance. One of its vice chairs, who was also head of the NHFPC’s medical policy and control bureau, was indicted for bribery in 2016.\textsuperscript{719} His continued presence on the website, however, indicates that it has not been updated since then. Web pages on the alliance’s structure, news, laws and regulations, academic activities, and members’ affiliations remain inaccessible.

A third OPO was established in October 2013 in China after its host transplant center fulfilled the minimum requirement of 10 donations after cardiac death.\textsuperscript{720}

Data from the NHFPC in September 2013 showed that the percentage of organs from deceased donors relative to the total increased to 23\% from effectively 0\% three years earlier.\textsuperscript{721} Given the timeline of OPO development and the lack of implementation of its donation system, the Chinese regime’s claims
that 80% of transplant organs came from the donation system in 2014, and that donation has become the sole source of transplant organs since 2015, are implausible.

In 2013, when the media asked Huang Jiefu whether he had reservations about choosing the Red Cross given its numerous scandals and loss of credibility, Huang answered that China did not have another NGO [recognized by the government] to take on these tasks and that this was the best opportunity for the Red Cross to restore its public image. Huang explained that the Red Cross was responsible for “providing publicity work for the donation program, financial assistance, commemoration and third-party witnesses to donation and transplantation” and that these roles could not be covered by health administrators. Hospitals were not to be the sole parties determining the use of organs, mobilization of donations, and organ allocations.722

Despite Huang’s statements, the 2013 Regulations for Procurement did not have any specifications establishing the Red Cross as a third party for providing oversight; rather, OPOs were to cover all areas of procurement and transplantation for donated organs.

Even though the Red Cross donor registry yields only dozens of donations and few donations are procured from ICUs, Huang is forced to and intends only to use the two to “create an atmosphere” for, and the illusion of, ethical organ sourcing.

**COTRS Used as a Façade to Cover Up Illicit Organ Sourcing**

In a 2017 TV interview, Huang revealed that China’s organ donation system had timebombs everywhere that could be triggered at any time:723 “The timebomb I’m most worried about right now is the speed at which we’re building up our institutions. Compared to the requirements [transplant volume], and needs of the public, the gap is too big.”

The China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS) managed by Wang Haibo has been heavily publicized internationally as a major achievement in China’s organ donation and allocation system. Officially, all donors and recipients are entered into this system for transparent, fair matching and allocation.

As discussed earlier, the number of Red Cross registered donors would produce only dozens of actual donors nationwide each year. COTRS allocates only organs entered by OPOs who obtain consent for donation.724 It is not possible that the number of organs obtained by OPOs are able to supply the on-demand transplants performed in China with wait times of two weeks or less.

Huang told the media in March 2017, “COTRS had 28,000 patients on the waiting list last year.” “Currently, only 31,000 people have registered on the official website.”725

According to recent surveys conducted between July 2016 and June 2017 in nearly one hundred transplant hospitals, most doctors and transplant coordinators claimed the organs used were from “brain-dead donors” according to the “national standard.” They also revealed that most transplant organs did not come from the national organ allocation system (COTRS) because they could not access the system at all.726
On June 10, 2017, kidney transplant coordinator Director Wang at Yantai Yuhuangding Hospital in Shandong Province told an investigator that the national organ distribution and sharing system “is all a lie and only going through formalities…you know that website can’t do anything, it’s all just a formality. Each [hospital] has its own channels…all the donors are found by each hospital itself, not centrally allocated by that national system. [National allocation] is impossible, impossible. The [national organ distribution and allocation system] does not allow entry. Not just anyone can enter.”

As mentioned earlier, there has long been severe underreporting of transplant volume in China due in part to the undeniable need to obfuscate the realities of organ procurement. The China Liver Transplant Registry (also managed by Wang Haibo) contained wide discrepancies between reported and actual transplant numbers. For example, the Oriental Organ Transplant Center registered only 7 liver transplants in 2010, yet this center was the largest in China with more than 500 dedicated beds and was consistently ranked first in the registration system.

The above findings indicate that the donation system and COTRS include only a small portion of China’s organ sources and recipients.

When COTRS was launched, many doctors feared that “winter was coming” for China’s transplant industry. However, Huang Jiefu said that spring was coming instead. Despite the lack of donations and the use of COTRS to launder organs obtained from other sources, this illusion of reform has allowed China to re-enter the international transplant community.

Opaque Operations

Commercialization and Lack of Transparency

In the early years of China’s transplant industry, the Red Cross and its transplant coordinators in each region served as contacts between donors and recipients and as witnesses to the transplant process. They effectively controlled the donor organ sources. Transplant hospitals that wished to receive an organ were required to “donate” to the Red Cross in the name of financial assistance to donors; meanwhile, the Red Cross did not allow public inspection of its books to monitor how these funds were used. For example, the Red Cross in Shenzhen collected an average of 100,000 RMB for each organ, while in Jiangsu the amount was 50,000 RMB.

Due to the lack of donations and public trust, the Red Cross donation system has become another “stream without a source.” After the establishment of the OPO Alliance, transplant hospitals have controlled the files with respect to both donors and recipients. Compared to the Red Cross with its rather loose management, transplant hospitals have less transparency and better security. Thus, organ sourcing has shifted from the Red Cross to OPOs and ICUs.

The China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation (COTDF) was established under the OPO Alliance, with Huang Jiefu serving as the chair. As an economic entity, COTDF, along with transplant hospital foundations, sells organs, signs organ sharing and allocation agreements to export organs to other countries and regions, co-organizes organ transplant conferences, and accepts “donations” and funds.
As discussed in the recent on-site investigation of Tianjin Central Hospital by South Korean journalists, transplant patients were promised expedited transplants in exchange for donations to the hospital foundation of 100,000 RMB over and above regular surgery costs. Those transplant patients with lesser financial means still wait months or years for organs.

In a 2017 TV interview, Huang Jiefu described the initial condition of COTDF in 2013 after he took over the foundation, “At the time, only 1,060 RMB of the 8 million RMB of startup capital was left. Normally, this foundation would have been revoked. Because it’s a public foundation and the funds come from society, we’d have to investigate what happened and determine responsibility. Because it couldn’t pass an audit and lacked funding, the foundation’s operations were difficult. After Hong Kong businessman Li Ka-shing learned of this in July 2015, he decided to donate 8 million RMB of seed money to the foundation. That plugged this hole and allowed this foundation to continue to exist. The momentum these two years have been pretty good. The Macau Fok Ying Tung Charity Foundation has also pledged and begun delivering 30 million for us to develop this organ donation and transplantation work. China has regulations on public foundations and requires them to use [at least] 70% of their funds each year. But we have very few people who really understand organ donation and transplantation and don’t have that many activities and functions.”

Below is a selection of major donors listed in COTDF’s annual reports, including immunosuppressant manufacturers and other foundations.

Table: Major donors to COTDF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sponsor</th>
<th>Amount RMB</th>
<th>Stated Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Astellas</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>Liver transplant data analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Li Ka Shing Foundation</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>Starting funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roche</td>
<td>3,457,434</td>
<td>Public education and promotion for organ donation; OPO Alliance conference; OPO international exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st People Hospital in Kunming</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>OPO coordinator training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shanghai Jianneng Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. (Tx Creative Solution)</td>
<td>1,132,000</td>
<td>Organ transplant service charge standard, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Astellas</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>2016 and 2017 research, training and conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roche</td>
<td>1,280,000</td>
<td>OPO coordinator communication skill manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Transplantation Society (TTS)</td>
<td>US$50,000</td>
<td>International Organ Donation Conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One Lambda</td>
<td>US$50,000</td>
<td>International Organ Donation Conference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On August 8, 2017, the Tahoe Group donated 100 million RMB to the foundation to be used for organ donation and donor assistance, development of the organ management and allocation system, and medical research in transplantation. It was the largest single donation recorded so far in China’s transplant field.
Some contributors may have good intentions to promote ethical organ transplantation while others aim to grow their market share. However, when most organs in China come from illicit sources and there is a lack of oversight with respect to the use of funds, it is difficult to ensure that these contributions are used for ethical purposes. Rather, these funds may actually assist in the killing of innocents for organs instead.

The above findings indicate that China has not established a transparent, ethical organ donation system. Commercialization and a lack of transparency have led potential organ donors and their families to lose confidence in China’s organ donation system.

“Entire Chain of Organ Transplantation Is in the Hospitals”

The Ministry of Health’s 2007 Human Organ Transplantation Regulations state that transplant personnel cannot participate in the determination of the donor’s death, a principle also applied in many other countries. However, the 2013 Regulations for Procurement stipulate that transplant hospitals are to carry out and manage all aspects of organ donation, determination of death, organ procurement, and reporting.

As the system is designed, when a registered donor becomes a potential donor, an OPO coordinator should work with a medical expert, usually a transplant expert, to evaluate the donor, negotiate with family members, and sign legal documents. After recording the donor’s information and allocating the organs in COTRS, the OPO representative should coordinate and witness the recovery, preservation, and transportation of organs to recipient hospitals as designated by the distribution system.

Huang Jiefu explained in a 2013 CCTV interview, “Organ resources—all recipients and donors, the entire chain of organ transplantation—are in the hospitals.” “As long as doctors uphold the moral baseline, there will not be big problems, because everything is done by doctors.” He admitted that there were loopholes but that “those who exploit the loopholes will be punished by having their medical licenses revoked. Under a good system, bad people can also slowly become good people.”

In actual practice, there is a complete lack of oversight and third-party witnesses, and most organs are sourced illegally.

While transplants were performed without any kind of regulation between 2000 and 2006, transplantation in China exploded into an industrial-scale national enterprise. In response to international scrutiny, it later enacted rules, but these rules contain numerous loopholes that allow for unethical organ sourcing. The
system still operates largely without restriction or oversight. Within this span of time, China had the capacity to perform more than one million transplants.

**Illicit Procurement Team Leaders Now OPO Coordinators**

OPOs in the United States are legally disassociated from transplant centers. However, China’s OPOs are established inside ministry-approved transplant centers. Chinese OPOs include the same surgeons who were previously involved (and continue to participate) in unethical organ procurement and transplantation—at face value a conflict of interest and breach of ethics. OPO coordinators are usually the core members of teams engaged in illicit organ procurement.

For example, Dong Laidong, Director of the OPO at Qilu Hospital of Shandong University, was the leader of the kidney procurement team introduced in an earlier case study. In 2010, her team procured organs and conducted transplants around the clock: “If I’m not at the hospital, I’m at the kidney procurement location. If I’m not at the kidney procurement location, I’m on the way between the hospital and the kidney procurement location.” Members of the team were often unable to go home for one or two weeks at a time.740

Renji Hospital had the most organ donations in Shanghai. Xia Qiang, head of the liver transplant department, was also an OPO member.741 He told the media, “I’m obsessed with liver transplants. It’s like I’m addicted to it.” Xia had reportedly lost count of how many liver transplants he had done and remembers only his record of six liver transplants in one day in 2005.742 “The management of my team is militarized. Every medical staff member must keep their cell phone turned on 24 hours a day, because liver transplants may require going out for graft procurement or preparing for surgery at any time. We must be on standby at all times.” Two doctors responsible for liver procurement each flew on average 400,000 km per year; when they returned, they would often be dispatched to another destination before they could leave the airport.743 744

In 2013, the hospital set up the first OPO in Shanghai. By June 2014, it had obtained 22 organ donations, accounting for two-thirds of all donations in the Shanghai area.745 These few donations were wholly insufficient to supply the large volume of transplants conducted in Shanghai during that time. Renji Hospital alone had 110 liver transplant beds and tens of kidney transplant beds (see “Case Study: Surgery Building Busy 24 Hours a Day”). In February 2015, the head nurse on duty at the liver transplant department acknowledged that living organs were obtained through military sources.746
III. Actual Donation Situation

In China, brain death was incorporated into the 2013 *Regulations for Procurement* despite not being legally recognized as a standard for determining death. Many hospitals list donations after cardiac death (DCD) and living-relative donors as their organ sources. Huang Jiefu claimed in 2017 that almost all of China’s donations so far resulted from either brain death (DBD) or brain and cardiac death (DBCD). Officials often cite the potential to procure multiple organs from the same donor to explain the gap between the official number of donors and number of transplants. None of these explanations reflect the reality, however.

**Living Donor Transplants**

Many hospitals now list living-donor transplants as signature services with relative donors as the main organ sources. However, we found that the actual number of such donations is extremely low.

According to Zheng Shusen, a member of the Chinese Academy of Engineering, China performed its first living-donor liver transplant in 1995, but the number was far behind that of liver transplants from deceased donors. Between 1995 and 2005, there were only 73 living-donor liver transplants in total. According to Zheng Shusen, a member of the Chinese Academy of Engineering, China performed its first living-donor liver transplant in 1995, but the number was far behind that of liver transplants from deceased donors. Between 1995 and 2005, there were only 73 living-donor liver transplants in total.

“Between the first living relative kidney transplant in 1972 and the end of last year [2005], there were only 700 living relative kidney transplants in the country, accounting for only about 1.5% of all renal transplants,” Jia Ruipeng, director of the Kidney Transplant Center at Nanjing Hospital No.1, told Xinhua Daily on April 12, 2006.

According to a 2005 report, China had more than 200 living-donor kidney transplants in 2001, and the living-donor ratio increased to 4% of 7,000 or 280 kidney transplants in 2004. The ratio of living relative-donor transplants was far lower than that of Western countries, Japan, Korea (averaging 90%), and Hong Kong and Taiwan (averaging about 20%).

As of 2005, the Wuhan Tongji Hospital Organ Transplantation Research Institute had completed 85 living relative-donor kidney transplants, the most in China. Jiangsu Provincial Hospital had performed more than 50 such transplants.

Wang Xuehao, head of the liver transplant center at Jiangsu Provincial Hospital and academician of the Chinese Academy of Engineering, is a pioneer of living-donor liver transplantation in China. He conducted the first successful living relative liver transplant in China in 1995. In 2003, the center was designated as the “priority of priorities” for development into a nationally known discipline and received ample development funding. It grew from inception into one of the five largest liver transplant research centers in the country. In 2005, the center became the Chinese Living-Donor Liver Transplant Research Institute with two wards, 100 beds, and a laboratory center.

The center has always featured living relative-donor transplants as its signature service and claims to conduct the most living-donor liver transplants. However, between 1995 and December 2006, Wang’s team performed only 40 living-donor liver transplants in total. As of March 2010, they had completed 110 living-donor liver transplants.
**Ministry Restrictions**

China's Ministry of Health has repeatedly proposed restrictions on living organ donations rather than encouraging the practice. Huang Jiefu said in March 2008 that the National Human Organ Transplantation Clinical Application Committee (OTC) would strictly regulate and manage living organ transplantation. He said, “So far, the main source of organs has been cadavers.”

During the Human Organ Donation Pilot Summary Conference held by the Red Cross Society of China and the Ministry of Health in Hangzhou on March 22, 2012, Huang Jiefu again said the State would gradually restrict living relative transplants.

On March 27, 2012, Xiao Jiaquan, the director of the Urologic Department of the People’s Hospital of Zhejiang Province, told the *Today Morning Express* that the Ministry of Health was restricting relative donation due to the adverse impact on donors’ health and to curb underground organ trafficking.

**“Nine Out Of Ten Are Fake Relatives”**

A kidney broker also gave court testimony that the vast majority of relative donors were falsified. On March 26, 2012, *JCRB.com* (managed by the Supreme People's Procuratorate) published a case report regarding an underground kidney broker, Cai Shaohua (defendant), who said that doctors told them that the matching rate between relatives was very low; even if there is a marginal match, it could result in complications after surgery, which would only cause bigger losses for the patient’s finances and health. Cai said, “Now [among relative-donor] organ transplant surgeries, nine out of ten are fake relatives. Those in the hospitals are well aware of the things that we [brokers] do.”

**Donation After Death**

In March 2010, the Human Organ Donation Pilot Program was launched in Shanghai, Tianjin, Liaoning, Shandong, Zhejiang, Guangdong, Jiangxi, Fujian, Xiamen, Nanjing, Wuhan, and eventually in 19 provinces and cities by the Ministry of Health and the Red Cross Society of China.

One year later, in April 2011, the Ministry of Health introduced a pilot program for donation after cardiac death (DCD). It encouraged participating hospitals to apply for approval to perform DCD transplants after completing at least 10 donations and transplants after cardiac death within the pilot period, which lasted until May 2012. Even after the pilot period was extended to January 2014, only five hospitals had fulfilled the requirements and received approval. The *2013 Regulations for Procurement* recognized three classification criteria for organ donation after cardiac death, including brain death (DBD), cardiac death (DCD), and brain death followed by cardiac death (DBC).

**Slow Start to Donation**

Many regions had not received any donations by the dates listed in the examples below.
“The first voluntary citizen donation meeting Chinese standards” was performed by Huang Jiefu in 2012. He conducted more than 500 liver transplants that year.  

Heilongjiang Province did not obtain its first donation after death until June 2015. As of April 2018, there had been 55 donations in the entire province. Meanwhile, Heilongjiang has two large ministry-approved transplant hospitals.  

Gansu Province had its first DCD transplant allocated by COTRS on March 26, 2014.  

Guangdong Province, which ranks first in organ donation in China, obtained only 246 donations in 2014 and 398 donations in 2015. These volumes could not have supported the province’s 17 ministry-approved transplant hospitals since the claimed transition in organ sourcing in 2015.

In Hubei, the province with the second most donations, there were 8 donations in 2011, 26 in 2012, 97 in 2013, 213 in 2014, and 336 in 2015. The province has seven transplant centers approved by the Ministry of Health.

As of March 13, 2015, Shandong Province, ranking third in number of donations, had completed 186 organ donations. Among them, 113 took place in 2014. This one-year figure exceeded the sum of donations in the four years between 2010 and 2013.

In Hebei Province, 9 donations were completed between June 1, 2013 and November 27, 2014, including 2 in 2013 and 7 in 2014.

Fujian Province, a leader in heart transplantation in China, completed its first DCD heart transplant in May 2015. The province has seven ministry-approved transplant hospitals.

Huang Jiefu has repeatedly claimed that China transitioned its organ sourcing entirely to voluntary donations by January 1, 2015. However, some provinces had not received any donations as of the first half of 2015. Even the leading provinces collected far fewer donations than were necessary to support their transplant hospitals.

**Nationwide Donation Data**

The nationwide data below were collated from different sources.

According to *The Beijing News*, in the two years after the pilot donation program was launched, China completed 207 donations after death. Divided among the more than 147 participating hospitals, this was equivalent to less than one case per year per hospital.

At the 2013 National Organ Donation Working Video Meeting, the China Human Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee stated that there were a total of 659 donors and 1,804 organs donated.
nationwide between March 2010 and February 22, 2013. This was equivalent to an average of 220 donors (601 organs) per year.\textsuperscript{778}

However, this figure was contradicted by a later report upon the formation of China’s OPO Alliance that the team of Professor Ye Qifa, Executive Chairman of China OPO Alliance and director of transplant center of \textit{Zhongnan Hospital}, had performed 24 DCD transplants as of November 25, 2014, representing 10% of all such transplants in the country.\textsuperscript{779} This figure suggests that China had performed only 240 DCD transplants nationwide at the time. Zhongnan Hospital was the first to receive a permit to conduct donations after cardiac death.

Huang Jiefu also gave contradictory numbers regarding donations. At the Vatican summit in February 2017, Huang said that 2,342 citizens had donated their livers after death between 2011 and 2014.\textsuperscript{780} Days later, Huang said there were 1,910 deceased liver donations in the same period.\textsuperscript{781}

The above data differ and vary among different years’ reports even from the same source. Nevertheless, all of them indicate that these small donation numbers could not sufficiently supply even one of China’s largest transplant hospitals, let alone 80% of all transplants conducted in 2014 as claimed by Chinese authorities.

\textbf{Donations by Region}

An examination of regional donation figures revealed the following data for top provinces:

\textit{Table: Number of organ donations and transplant hospitals by province}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>As of</th>
<th>Total Donors (all time)</th>
<th>Average Donors Per Year*</th>
<th>Ministry-Approved Transplant Hospitals\textsuperscript{782}</th>
<th>Average Donors Per Transplant Hospital Per Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong\textsuperscript{783}</td>
<td>June 2017</td>
<td>2152</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hubei\textsuperscript{784}</td>
<td>March 2018</td>
<td>1625</td>
<td>542</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shandong\textsuperscript{785}</td>
<td>December 2017</td>
<td>1478</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhejiang\textsuperscript{786}</td>
<td>July 2017</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sichuan\textsuperscript{787}</td>
<td>November 2017</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai\textsuperscript{788}</td>
<td>September 2017</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaoning\textsuperscript{789}</td>
<td>October 2017</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hebei\textsuperscript{790}</td>
<td>April 2018</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yunnan\textsuperscript{791}</td>
<td>April 2017</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anhui\textsuperscript{792}</td>
<td>April 2018</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heilongjiang\textsuperscript{793}</td>
<td>April 2018</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner Mongolia\textsuperscript{794}</td>
<td>May 2018</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* To account for the increasing donation trend, this average assumes conservatively that all the donations took place within the last 3 years, which corresponds to a window starting in late 2014 or early 2015.
In Guangdong Province, which led China in organ donation for seven consecutive years, there were 15 donations in 2010, 34 in 2011, 113 in 2012, 165 in 2013, 246 in 2014, 398 in 2015, 513 in 2016, and 668 in 2017. Its donor rate just reached 3 per million in 2015, 4.9 in 2016, and 5.9 in 2017. In Shanghai, the first deceased organ donation was completed on August 21, 2013. Donations in Shanghai increased to 5 at the end of 2013 with 55 more in 2014. The total increased to 79 by March 20, 2015, over 200 by June 28, 2016, and more than 400 by September 28, 2017. Shanghai’s donor rate per million people was 2.5 times the national average. Yet there are 11 transplant centers in Shanghai approved by the Ministry of Health.

In Hubei Province, 1,251 volunteers have completed organ donation as of March 26, 2018, ranking the second in China. Human organ donation was launched in this province and reached 8 cases in 2011, 26 cases in 2012, 97 cases in 2013, 213 cases in 2014, 336 cases in 2015, 432 cases in 2016 (the donation rate was claimed as 7.93/million, more than Guangdong Province, which ranks first in the country), and 580 cases in 2017, which ranks second in the country, second to Guangdong. As of April 3, 2018, Anhui Province has completed 124 donations, recording 3 donors in 2013, 4 in 2014, 7 in 2015, and 29 in 2016. In 2017, the province had 63 donors, including its first heart and lung donations. These donations would not have been sufficient for even one transplant hospital.

**Table: Number of deceased organ donations claimed nationwide compared to those in Guangdong, Hubei, and Shanghai since 2010**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Deceased Donations (Nationwide)</th>
<th>Deceased Donations in Guangdong</th>
<th>Deceased Donations in Hubei</th>
<th>Deceased Donations in Shanghai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>849</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>1,702</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>2,766</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>100 (cumulative) = 55 = 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>4,080</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>300 (cumulative) = 100 = 200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>400 (cumulative) = 300 = 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Huang Jiefu’s claim that 80% of transplant organs used in 2014 came from donations, these 246 donations could not have supported the 18 ministry approved transplant hospitals in Guangdong. 213 donations in Hubei could neither support seven transplant centers. Shanghai’s 44 donations could not have covered the 11 large-scale transplant centers in the city.

The above data reflect the scale of voluntary donations since 2010. Compared to the volume of transplants performed in China, the number of voluntary donors is negligible and cannot support the Chinese authorities’ claim of having transitioned entirely to ethical sourcing by 2015.
**Timeline of Development**

Below are the milestones pertaining to deceased organ donation as indicated by media reports:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Voluntary Donation Situation and Developments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>August 2005</td>
<td>Among countries capable of transplantation, China is the only country without brain death legislation.818 <em>(Xinhua Net)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 25, 2006</td>
<td>The first successful lung transplant was performed from a brain-dead donor. “Ms. Yang, a 39-year-old woman, is the first voluntary brain-dead organ donor in our country. This is the first case that met international criteria for a brain-dead donor.”819 <em>(Yang Cheng Evening News)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2006</td>
<td>The Organ Donation Management Commission of China was established.820 Dr. Chen Zhonghua served as the first Executive Chairman of the Organ Donation Management Commission of China. <em>(Legal Evening News)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 2010</td>
<td>There have been over 60 successful organ donations after brain death in China since 2001 when Dr. Chen Zhonghua’s team began promoting donation after brain death.821 <em>(Organ Transplantation Magazine)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 2013</td>
<td>The third OPO was established in China after its host transplant center fulfilled the minimum requirement of 10 donations after cardiac death.822 <em>(ChineseHepatology.net.cn)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2014</td>
<td>Due to the lack of brain death legislation, 90% of Chinese doctors were still not aware of the criteria for determining brain death.823 <em>(qq.net)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 2014</td>
<td>Professor Ye Qifa’s team performed 24 DCD transplants, representing 10% of all such transplants in the country.824 This suggests that China had performed only 240 DCD transplants nationwide as of November 25, 2014. <em>(People Net)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 2014</td>
<td>China claimed that it had achieved a breakthrough, with 80% of organs coming from donations.825 <em>(Xinhua Net)</em> However, even the provinces with the most donations had far from enough donations to support their transplant centers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 2015</td>
<td>China announced that it stopped the use of death-row organs starting on January 1, 2015, and that voluntary donation became the only transplant organ source in China.826 <em>(China Daily)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Half of 2015</td>
<td>Some provinces (e.g. Heilongjiang) obtained their first DCD donations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 2015</td>
<td>Huang Jiefu indicated that the organ donation system in China did not function in practice because its “National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee…exists in name only. So far, no meeting has been held.”827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 2017</td>
<td>Huang Jiefu stated, “Among China’s donations so far, 70% are from brain-dead donors; of the other 30%, many are from both brain and cardiac death.”828 <em>(China News)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table: Timeline of the developments of brain death donation in China*

There was a steep increase in claimed donations between August and December 2014, just before the 2015 transition to ethical organ sourcing in China. The highlighted rows show that the claimed transition could not have taken place as described.
**Multiple Organs from One Donor**

The Chinese regime advertised in its state-run media that in certain cases, one donor provided organs for several transplant surgeries. China’s health officials sometimes use the possibility of procuring multiple organs from the same donor to explain the gap between the number of organ sources (including voluntary donors and death-row prisoners) and its official number of transplants. However, we find that this efficiency cannot be achieved in most cases. Factors affecting the usable ratio include organ life, geographic distance, and technical limitations.

**Organ life:** Human organs are a non-reusable resource that expire within a strict time frame. When an organ is removed from the donor, it must be kept in a preservation solution and the transplant operation must take place within a limited amount of time. According to the *Notice on Management Regulations for Liver, Kidney, Heart and Other Transplantation Technologies* issued by the Ministry of Health, the time should not exceed 24 hours for kidneys, 15 hours for livers, and 6 hours for hearts. Huang Jiefu said on May 6, 2016 that 20% of transported organs are wasted because they cannot be utilized in time.

**Geography:** It was not until October 2013 that the National Health and Family Planning Commission announced the *Trial Regulations for Obtaining Organs from Voluntary Donors and Organ Assignment*, which required all 165 approved hospitals use the new National Organ Sharing Network, COTRS; it also required all donated organs to be allocated by this system. Since then, the National Health and Family Planning Commission has required all transplant centers to register their patients in order to create a national waiting list.

Yet, as discussed above, COTRS includes only a small portion of China’s organ sources and recipients. It had 28,000 patients on the waiting list in 2016. “Currently, only 31,000 people have registered on the official website.” Phone surveys conducted between July 2016 and June 2017 found that most transplant hospitals could not access COTRS. Thus, organs are still mostly allocated locally.

**Technical limiting factors:** Strict limitations on ischemia times of transplanted organs place high technical demands on transplant centers when conducting transplants using multiple organs from the same donor. Until recently, very few institutions in China were capable of doing this successfully.

A December 2011 report said that more than 60 doctors carried out 6 transplant surgeries simultaneously at Guangzhou Military Command Hospital No.303 on that day. These included liver, lung, pancreas-kidney, and kidney transplants, as well as two corneal transplants. Dr. Sun Xuyong, President of the hospital’s Transplantation Research Institute, revealed that the six organs were procured from the same donor. However, he did not reveal the identity of the donor.

Lan Liugen, Deputy Director of the Surgery Division at Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command No. 303, said that only two hospitals in China had this capability at the time. In addition to his hospital, the other was the Tongji Organ Transplant Research Institute of Huazhong University of Science and Technology.

Reports in October 2015 indicated that the 2nd Affiliated Hospital of Harbin Medical University carried out multiple transplants simultaneously using organs from the same donor. The article emphasized that this was the very first case in Heilongjiang Province.
An August 2016 report indicated that the People’s Hospital of Jiangsu Province carried out heart and lung transplants for two patients using organs from the same donor. The article emphasized that it was the first such case in the country.\textsuperscript{837}

On November 23, 2015, Huang Jiefu said to \textit{Beijing Youth Daily} that there were 2,500 organ donors in 2015 nationwide, which could theoretically allow for 2,500 heart transplants and 5,000 lung transplants. However, he said there were only around 100 heart and lung transplants completed in the whole country, and many organs were wasted.\textsuperscript{838,839}

China’s officially stated number of organs contributed per donor was 3.2 in 2016, a figure over 50\% larger than that of the United States at 2.1. However, the actual utilization rate of donor organs in China’s transplant centers is much lower than those of well-established organizations in other countries. The claimed level of utilization of multiple organs per donor is most likely fabricated to help cover up actual organ sources.

\section*{IV. Abuse of Brain Death in China}

The traditional criteria for determining death include the cession of heartbeat, respiration, and circulation. With the development of organ transplantation, many countries have passed legislation setting forth parameters for determining brain death. Only when all brain function (including brain stem function) has been irreversibly lost, and heartbeat and breathing can be maintained only with mechanical ventilators and medication is the patient considered dead.\textsuperscript{840} Once brain death has been diagnosed, doctors can arrange for organ recovery.

In 2003, the Ministry of Health drafted \textit{Standards for Determining Brain Death (Adult) (Draft for Comments)} and \textit{Technical Specifications for Determining Brain Death (Adult) (Draft for Comments)} and published them in the \textit{Chinese Medical Journal} and other journals. However, these proposed technical specifications do not have legal effect.

Upon the review and approval of the \textit{Standards for Determining Brain Death (Adult)} by an expert panel, the Ministry of Health issued a news bulletin in May 2004 stating that the methods of determining brain death proposed by the medical field were different from the legal standards for determining death. Thus, implementation of these standards for determining brain death would require legislative changes before it can be carried out.\textsuperscript{841}

Director Chen Zhonghua of the Tongji Hospital Organ Transplantation Research Institute at Huazhong University of Science and Technology wrote in a 2004 paper that the United States had a brain death rate of 72 per million.\textsuperscript{842} Between 2001 and July 2010, when Dr. Chen’s team began promoting donation after brain death, there were only over 60 successful organ donations after brain death in China.\textsuperscript{843}

However, in Chinese medical papers, a large portion of transplant organs were listed as coming from “brain-dead donors,” while the recorded experimental processes indicated otherwise. According to the \textit{Standards for Determining Brain Death (Adult Quality Control Version)},\textsuperscript{844} the clinical criteria for determining brain death include all three of these essential findings: coma, absence of brainstem reflexes, and lack of autonomous breathing. Thus, a patient undergoing tests for brain death must already be on a ventilator. The donors in these papers, however, were declared brain dead before they were intubated or tested for apnea. Below is one example:
Case Study: Combined Heart-Lung Recovery Process from “Brain-Dead Donor”

Xijing Hospital, affiliated with the Fourth Military Medical University, performed a combined heart-lung transplant on May 26, 2008.

An academic paper claimed that the donor was brain-dead. However, the organ procurement procedure in this case started with intubation and mechanical ventilation, which was immediately followed by skin disinfection and performance of the chest incision for organ removal. This means that the heart and lungs were procured from the “donor” without a formal determination of brain death.

The brain death diagnostic criteria include coma, absence of brainstem reflexes, and apnea (the lack of spontaneous respiration). The Chinese brain death determination criteria provide that the apnea test is an indispensable component for the diagnosis of brain death. An apnea test is performed in mechanically ventilated patients by disconnecting the ventilator to provoke spontaneous respiration. A brain death diagnosis can only be made in intubated, mechanically ventilated patients.

In the case of the Xijing Hospital, however, the brain death determination had not been done before the “donor” was intubated and mechanically ventilated, but neither was it done after intubation.

The “donor” did not undergo resuscitation at all. The purpose of the intubation was not to resuscitate the patient but rather to prepare for organ recovery.
Without a determination of brain death, a donor cannot be declared brain-dead. If the “donor” is not brain-dead, then only cardiac death criteria can be used to determine death. As described in the paper, the heart of the donor discharged residual blood after several heartbeat cycles, indicating clearly that the heart was functioning, i.e., the donor did not meet cardiac death criteria. In conclusion, the “donor” in this case was a living human being.

Wang Hongbing, one of the authors and vice director of the cardiovascular division, performed three consecutive heart transplants in one day and set a national record. Cai Zhenjie, long-time director of its Cardiovascular Surgery Research Institute, set another record in September 2003.

This hospital is not an isolated case; many other hospitals also had similar documentation.

Current Situation: Most Donations Are Said to be from “Brain-Dead Donors” While Doctors Remain Unaware of Criteria

Ten years later after the draft specifications for brain death were introduced, without legal prerequisites, the NHFPC announced the 2013 Regulations for Procurement and recognized the three classification criteria for organ donation after cardiac death, including brain death (DBD), cardiac death (DCD), and brain death followed by circulatory death (DBCD). It did not effectively mandate regulatory oversight. The Brain Damage Control and Evaluation Center combined the 2003 brain death standards and specifications into the “Standards for Determining Brain Death”.

However, these standards were only published in the Chinese Journal of Neurology and have not been added to the policies and regulations on the NHFPC’s website. Furthermore, the Brain Damage Control and Evaluation Center is not listed as a subordinate or affiliated organization of the NHFPC.

Huang stated in 2017, “China’s biggest contribution is building up three kinds of death criteria for organ donation: DBD, DCD, and DBCD.” DBCD was conceived as a compromise with families who hold traditional values and want donation to take place only after the heart stops. Under this classification, a brain-dead patient is mechanically maintained until the family consents to donation, after which doctors wait for cardiac death and then recover the organs.

The first Guidance on Organ Donation in China that is said to include these three classes of death criteria was announced by China’s OPO Alliance in August 2015. The chief editor of this publication was Huang Jiefu. However, the document cannot be found online, on the OPO Alliance website or elsewhere; only the news of its release has been posted.

Huang Jiefu stated to Chinese domestic media in 2017, “Among China’s donations so far, 70% are from brain-dead donors. Of the other 30%, many are from brain and cardiac death.” Although he claimed that China has “comprehensively constructed a national-level legal framework for organ donation and transplantation to ensure that there are legal standards that can and must be followed,” he also admitted, “Most doctors don’t know how brain death works, and very few truly understand the standards for brain death.” Last year there were 4,080 organ donations, and this had nothing to do with brain death or legislation.
Huang also revealed his true intentions on multiple occasions, “A difference between us and the West is that (in China) recipients and donors must forever be kept secret from each other. It’s impossible to include brain death in organ donation regulations. Legislating brain death may not happen in another 20 years.”

The need to maintain secrecy between donors and recipients reduces traceability and helps to hide the true source of organs.

Before forced organ harvesting in China was exposed in 2006, the press reported that 98% of organ sources came from outside of the medical system.

Over a decade later, we conclude from the empty shell of China’s donation system, as well as the number of registered donors and actual donation figures, that donations in China can account for only a small fraction of all transplants performed. If the other acknowledged source, death-row prisoners, has become “a stream without a source,” then from where are the remaining organs sourced?
Chapter VI

I. A State-Driven Crime

The first recorded case of doctors in China harvesting an organ from a political prisoner occurred in the 1970s, when a woman was executed and her kidney was transplanted into the son of a senior Communist Party cadre. The Uyghurs were subjected to these abuses in the 1990s.

Our hospital survey found that while China began to conduct experiments in organ transplantation in the 1960s, there was no tremendous development in this industry until 2000, when the Chinese government started prioritizing organ transplantation in its national strategy with significant investment in research, development, industrialization, and personnel training (refer to the section “National Strategy and Funding”).

The number of transplant centers in China grew from 150 before 1999 to 570 by the end of 2004 and more than 1,000 in 2007. In the year 2000, the number of liver transplants performed reached ten times the number performed in 1999; by 2005, the number had tripled further.

This exponential rise of organ transplants without voluntary donations parallels the Chinese Communist Party's campaign to eradicate Falun Gong.

I. Campaign to Eradicate Falun Gong

Falun Gong is a meditation practice that revolves around ancient Chinese traditions of health and self-improvement based upon the universal principles of truthfulness, compassion, and tolerance. By the end of the 1990s, the Chinese government estimated that over 70 million people were practicing Falun Gong. The former Communist Party leader Jiang Zemin saw the group’s popularity and revival of traditional values as a threat to his rule and launched a violent campaign on July 20, 1999 to eradicate Falun Gong.

The 610 Office, the agency initially created to carry out this task, called more than 3,000 officials to the Great Hall of the People on November 30, 1999 to address the campaign against Falun Gong. The head of the 610 Office, Li Lanqing, announced the government's directives: to “destroy them politically, bankrupt them financially, ruin their reputation.”

After the persecution began, Falun Gong practitioners appealed to government departments in their respective provinces and to the central government in Beijing, where they were arrested en masse and tortured. Falun Gong practitioners were rounded up all across China.

The Public Security Bureau in Beijing determined that, as of April 2001, a total of 830,000 Falun Gong practitioners had been registered or arrested, not including those who refused to give their names to police to avoid implicating their families, coworkers, or neighbors. Many unidentified practitioners were not sent back to their hometowns. Because anonymous detainees could not be held for long by the justice system, this large population was instead transferred outside of the justice system. In accordance with standard practice under the communist regime, they were transferred to concentration camps run by the military.
According to a report by China’s justice department, China had 670 prisons operating in 2004, holding a total of more than 1.5 million inmates.\textsuperscript{878, 879} There were also 300 forced labor camps in operation before the laojiao system of Re-education Through Labor (RTL) camps was abolished at the end of 2013.\textsuperscript{880} The Laogai Research Foundation stated in 2010 that as many as 3 to 5 million people were imprisoned in laogai camps.\textsuperscript{881}

According to the U.S. Congressional Executive Committee on China’s annual report for 2008,\textsuperscript{882} international observers believed that half of those incarcerated in China’s forced labor camps were Falun Gong practitioners. Ethan Gutmann estimates that Falun Gong constituted about half of the laogai system in 2001 and then leveled off to 15 to 20% over the long term, translating to about 500,000 to 1,000,000 Falun Gong practitioners being detained in the laogai system at any given time.\textsuperscript{883}

Many detention centers were built or expanded all over China to contain the large number of Falun Gong practitioners who were arrested and detained. The Chinese Communist regime also made use of military and underground civil defense facilities to establish holding units for Falun Gong practitioners.\textsuperscript{884, 885, 886} These practitioners disappeared, both legally and practically.

II. Policy of Destruction

On August 21, 2000, the Ministry of Public Security held a nationwide telephone conference to relay new orders that the practice of Falun Gong was to be eradicated in three months.\textsuperscript{887} Du Daobin, of Hubei Province, reported in May 2003 that the local 610 Office had received instructions that stated, “no law regulates the treatment of Falun Gong practitioners” and “deaths of Falun Gong practitioners from beating are nothing and shall be counted as suicide; the bodies shall be directly cremated without investigating the person’s identification.”\textsuperscript{888} Numerous cases of practitioners’ bodies being cremated without the consent of their families continue to be reported on Minghui.org.

Documents dating from 1962 show that the Chinese Communist Party’s Central Military Commission initiated a policy, still in place today, that all death row and serious offenders may be treated according to the needs of national and socialist development and can be dealt with according to the “revolutionary protocol.”\textsuperscript{889}

1984 Regulation

On October 9, 1984, the Supreme People’s Court, the Supreme People’s Procuratorate, the Ministry of Public Security, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Health, and the Ministry of Civil Affairs jointly promulgated the \textit{Provisional Regulations on the Use of Corpses or the Organs of Executed Prisoners}\textsuperscript{890} that allowed the bodies and organs of prisoners to be used under certain conditions:

1) If the body was not collected, or the family refused to collect the body;
2) If the executed prisoner voluntarily gave his body or organs for use by medical or health units; or
3) If the family gave consent.
This regulation allows organs from prisoners to be used without their consent or that of their families, as long as the bodies were not collected. In addition to those on death row and serious offenders, this population was expanded to include prisoners of conscience, primarily Falun Gong practitioners who are solely imprisoned for their belief.

Throughout the persecution of Falun Gong, practitioners have been systematically arrested and detained, often outside of the legal system. Thousands have been confirmed to have died as a result of torture and other abuse in custody. Many practitioners simply disappeared. Families of practitioners killed in custody were not notified to claim the bodies of their loved ones. The 1984 regulation has enabled the sourcing of organs from Falun Gong practitioners without consent, even though they have not been sentenced to death. The regulation also paved the way for the unlawful sale of bodies. Because they are labeled enemies of the state, Falun Gong practitioners, like serious offenders, are seen not as human beings but as raw materials—commodities to be used in China’s transplant industry.

The China International Transplantation Network Assistance Center (CITNAC), a subsidiary of IPC Information Service Corporation, said on its website, “Being able to complete such a number of organ transplant operations is inseparable from the government’s support. The Chinese government’s Supreme People’s Court, Supreme People’s Procuratorate, Public Security system, judicial system, Ministry of Health, and Ministry of Civil Affairs jointly promulgated laws on October 9, 1984 and established that organ procurement would be an activity supported by the government. This is a one of a kind in the world.”

“To be able to complete such a large number of organ transplant surgeries every year, we need to give all of our thanks to the support given by the government. In particular, the Supreme People's Court, Supreme People's Procuratorate, Public Security system, judicial system, Ministry of Health, and Ministry of Civil Affairs have jointly promulgated laws to establish that organ procurement receives government support and protection. This is one of a kind in the world.”
Blood Tests, Medical Examinations and DNA Library

Falun Gong practitioners, the largest group of prisoners of conscience in China, are frequently subjected to blood tests and medical examinations. These tests are not administered to the general prison population, however, but only to Falun Gong practitioners and other prisoners of conscience. During Ethan Gutmann’s investigation, he interviewed over 50 Falun Gong practitioners who had been detained in labor camps and prisons in China, most of whom were forcibly given blood tests and unusual medical examinations.

“Their exams differed from location to location, but they invariably included these central components: blood test, a urine test, and EKG, and x-rays of the abdomen. Crucially, they were then given a series of follow-up medical tests usually corresponding with tissue matching.” Many similar cases were recorded in Matas and Kilgour’s book, Bloody Harvest. “It is unlikely that the testing and examination serve a health purpose.” Rather, such tests and examinations are useful for identifying organ harvesting candidates and for building up a living organ bank.

The website Minghui.org publishes firsthand accounts of Falun Gong practitioners all over China who have been subjected to such examinations, both while incarcerated and at home. Police routinely go to the homes of practitioners—in particular those who have filed criminal complaints against Jiang Zemin—to forcibly take DNA samples and administer blood tests. In April 2014, in Guizhou, Liaoning, Hunan, Hubei, Beijing and other locations, police entered practitioners’ homes and forcibly took blood samples and cheek swabs. The officers claimed to be following orders from above.

Human Rights Watch reported in December 2017 that the Chinese government forcibly collected biodata, including DNA and blood samples, from 19 million Uyghurs that year under the guise of a free public health program in which all citizens are given physical examinations. Before this project, as of May 2017, the public security system had already built a national database of more than 40 million individuals, including dissidents and migrants.

Police in other regions of China are also collecting DNA samples on a large scale without giving a reason for the collection. Nationwide, police have a goal to double the number of DNA records from the current 54 million to 100 million by 2020. According to the Wall Street Journal, “Such mass screening, which authorities characterize as a crime-fighting tool, is drawing criticism that China’s police are violating people’s privacy and unfairly targeting innocent or vulnerable citizens, and is raising questions about what the data might ultimately be used for.”
III. Corruption of Ethics

How can doctors—people trained to heal—harvest organs from living people for transplants? Below are several mindsets that have allowed these actions to be carried out.

Indoctrination of Doctors

Enver Tohti, a former Uyghur surgeon educated and raised in China, currently lives in London. He was told to extract the organs from a living prisoner in 1995. Years after he left China, he told his experience to the world: “These things [are] haunting me … I had to tell the world to release the things inside my heart, to get a little relief.”

Explaining how doctors in China became involved in killing, he said, “Anybody, if they label themselves other than communism, Communist Party or member, then they will be treated as an enemy of the state. Therefore, they are not even qualified as human beings. Therefore, they are subject to whatever punishment is available …”

“The interests of the Communist Party are above everything. We had a class called ‘politics.’ They made you disabled to think yourself. If you don’t believe what the CCP believes, that is wrong. That is what they believe. That is what they teach. My whole body became a robot and [did] what I had been programmed to do…”

“All the people [who] graduated from their system, they too have the same mindset; they are the product produced by the CCP. Our ideology at the time was that being able to participate in doing away with the country’s enemies was a glorious thing, even genuinely believing what we were doing [was] for a good cause.”

If doctors on the front lines play the role of robots, then who are the programmers of these robots?

In 2001, Huang Jiefu was on record saying, “Opposing Falun Gong is a grave political struggle. We must not be soft-hearted when dealing with a little group of hardcore reactionaries.”

Zheng Shusen, in addition to his role as one of China’s most prominent transplant surgeons, also chairs the Zhejiang Province Anti-Cult Association, which was established by the Communist Party leadership specifically to demonize Falun Gong and oversee its practitioners’ ideological conversion, commonly through physical and psychological abuse in detention. In a preface to an anti-Falun Gong book published in 2009, Zhen wrote, “‘Falun Gong’ and similar evil religions are like viruses corroding the organism of humanity, warping the souls of believers, destroying social order, disrupting economic development, and have become a public nuisance to mankind and a cancer on society.”

Similar language can be found in propaganda used by the Nazi regime to justify its persecution of groups it deemed undesirable. When the leaders of China’s transplant field propagate the Party line and actively incite hatred against a vulnerable group, it becomes clear how the Chinese regime is able to use the medical profession to participate in its genocidal campaign.
“We Don’t Get Involved in Politics”

On February 8, 2015, director Tan Yunshan of the liver disease department at Zhongshan Hospital of Fudan University told an overseas reporter, “All the donor livers are directly extracted at the source. Because we do the extraction ourselves and have access to the original information of the donor organ, we would know for sure whether a donor liver can be used or not…”

When asked whether the hospital used organs from Falun Gong practitioners, Tan answered, “We don’t care whether it’s from a Falun Gong practitioner or not. We don’t get involved in politics. As doctors, we only care about the donor liver, about whether it meets the requirements of transplantation. If it meets the requirements, we don’t care who it’s from.”

Party Discipline

For the Communist Party, the state is a tool for maintaining its rule, and laws are a manifestation of the will of the ruling class. Under the Party’s long-term brainwashing and indoctrination programs, the Party has become the representative of the ruling class, with the leader’s will becoming the will of the state. The Party’s high-pressure, harsh political governance has developed a system in which “individual Party members are subordinate to the Party organization, the minority is subordinate to the majority, the lower Party organizations are subordinate to the higher Party organizations, and all the constituent organizations and members of the Party are subordinate to the Central Committee of the Party.” Any noncompliant individual or organization must be punished severely. At the same time, the Party uses political and economic incentives to encourage people to sell out their conscience. Thus, the order to eradicate Falun Gong that was given by Jiang Zemin, as General Secretary of the Chinese Communist Party and Chairman of the Central Military Commission, was able to direct the entire Party and even all of society to carry out his will using any means necessary without being restrained by the law.

Willful Blindness

While some doctors did not recognize the brutality from within the system, others have full awareness but choose to turn a blind eye, perhaps to distance themselves for comfort, while allowing such practices to not only continue but also to prosper. David Matas wrote, “In criminal law, the term for this behavior is willful blindness. A person who commits a criminal act and is willfully blind is as guilty of a crime as a person who commits the act with full knowledge.”

As China’s transplant system continues to kill innocents for organs unabated, the agreements being implemented to share organs procured in mainland China with Macau, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and elsewhere implicate medical professionals in other regions under the same fallacy; those who are aware of China’s true organ sources but claim ignorance by accepting whitewashed organs will also be accomplices to the same crime of genocide.
IV. Roles of the Communist Party and Government Agencies

As we discussed earlier, China conducts organ transplants on a far larger scale than it officially claims. The eye-catching “Chinese mode” of organ donation is used as a façade behind which to hide the continued killing of prisoners of conscience as part of a larger eradication campaign. Behind the scenes, the Chinese regime has mobilized the entire state apparatus to carry out its campaign against Falun Gong. Below are the roles of the main party and government agencies involved based on public information, while insiders’ testimonies and admissions fill in detailed duties and operations in carrying out this crime.

610 Office and Political and Legal Affairs Committee

In March 2015, Phoenix Satellite Television, a Hong Kong-based mandarin language station authorized by the Chinese government to broadcast in mainland China, published an interview with Huang Jiefu in which he stated, “When we decided to stop the reliance on executed prisoners for organ transplants, [it was] the most helpless period we've been in ... Using prisoner organs, this kind of situation naturally would come to have all kinds of murky and difficult problems in it. Do you know the meaning of my words? .... It became filthy, it became murky and intractable, it became an extremely sensitive, extremely complicated area, basically a forbidden area.”

Huang mentioned that it is now possible to touch this forbidden area because of the downfall of a “big tiger” in the anti-corruption campaign: “Zhou Yongkang is the big tiger; he was our General Secretary of the National Political and Legal Affairs Committee and a former member of the Politburo Standing Committee. Everyone knows this ... So as for where executed prisoner organs come from, isn't it very clear?”

The Political and Legal Affairs Committee was established in September 1949 to direct the work of the Ministry of the Interior, Ministry of Public Security, Ministry of Justice, Committee for Social and Legal Affairs, and the Ethnic Affairs Commission.

Before officially launching its campaign against Falun Gong, the Chinese Communist Party created a “Central Leading Group to handle the Falun Gong issue,” under which an “Office of the Leading Group to handle the Falun Gong issue” was established. It is internally known as the “610 Office,” deriving its name from the date of its founding, June 10, 1999.

With a structure extending from top to bottom throughout the Party, government, and military, the 610 Office was given the power to command all police and judicial organs. This organization is akin to the Chinese Communist Party’s Central Cultural Revolution Group and is dedicated to carrying out the systematic eradication of the practice of Falun Gong. It is an ad hoc agency directly under the Chinese Communist Party Central Committee and is endowed with extraordinary extralegal power. It later changed its name to the “Central Leading Group on Dealing with Heretical Religions or Office of Maintaining Stability.”

The Political and Legal Affairs Committee and 610 Office have the power to control personnel and resources under more than 20 Communist Party and government agencies and organizations, such as the Ministry of Public Security (police system), Ministry of State Security, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, propaganda departments, and the fields of finance, culture, education, science and technology, and health throughout the country.
Roles of the Communist Party and government agencies in forced organ harvesting

A nationwide propaganda campaign has been a key tool in the suppression of Falun Gong. Since the persecution began in July 1999, the 610 Office has used China’s newspapers, television stations, radio stations, websites, and loudspeakers in rural areas to broadcast anti-Falun Gong propaganda. It also has used Xinhua News Agency, China News Service, Party-controlled media overseas, and Chinese consulates to spread this propaganda globally. 914

The demonization of and incitement of hatred towards Falun Gong provided the basis on which crimes against practitioners could be justified.

In 2002, Jiang Zemin promoted Zhou Yongkang to Minister of Public Security and Deputy Secretary of the Central Political and Legal Affairs Committee. Zhou made the eradication of Falun Gong a major focus of domestic security work in China. During his tenure, the number of transplants performed in China, with organs sourced from Falun Gong practitioners, continued to grow rapidly. In October 2007, Zhou became head of the “Central Leading Group to Handle the Falun Gong Issue” and was placed on the Party’s highest strategic tier—the Politburo Standing Committee. At the end of 2013, the new Chinese Communist Party leadership removed Zhou Yongkang under charges of corruption and plotting to stage a coup. Nevertheless, the machinery set in place to carry out the persecution of Falun Gong has not stopped.
Ministry of Health, National Health and Family Planning Commission, and Others

The Ministry of Health (MOH) and its successor, the National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC), are responsible for planning, policymaking, regulation, and management of China’s human organ transplant industry as well as the organ donation and allocation system.\footnote{915}

These agencies centrally coordinate and guide procurement and allocation, clinical care and services, post-operative registration, oversight, and donation. They organize and implement training and sharing in regulations, policies, and techniques for transplantation. In particular, they evaluate the qualifications of transplant institutions, as well as the capabilities and management of clinical practices. They also grant and manage permits for qualified transplant centers.

Since organ transplantation has been made a high priority in the national strategy and heavily emphasized as a future emerging industry, a large number of organ transplant projects have been funded under major national programs. The Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Science and Technology, the Ministry of Education, and the military have invested heavily in research, development, and personnel training in transplantation technology to meet the needs of this rapidly growing industry. The emergence and spread of new capabilities and techniques have allowed organ transplantation in China to grow into a large, industrialized operation in just a few years.

In March 2013, at the Twelfth National People’s Congress, the former Ministry of Health and National Population and Family Planning Commission (NPFPC) were dissolved, and Huang Jiefu was relieved from his position as Deputy Minister of Health. Meanwhile, a new National Health and Family Planning Commission (NHFPC) was founded.\footnote{916}

The National Human Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee was established on March 1, 2014. It declared that, under the leadership of the NHFPC and the China Red Cross Society, it would work as a central management unit to guide and oversee the human organ transplant and donation system in China. Huang Jiefu was named the committee’s chairman.\footnote{917}

Even though international parties have considered Huang the spokesperson for China’s transplant field, he does not hold a government position. The official Chinese Communist Party leadership repository lists Huang’s title as “former Deputy Minister of Health” without any active administrative roles.\footnote{918} The China Human Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee is an empty shell.

Huang’s announcement that China has discontinued the use of organs from death-row prisoners since January 1, 2015 has not been acknowledged by any government officials, has no legal effect, and cannot be traced to any officially promulgated policy statements or laws. The State Council’s \textit{Human Organ Transplant Ordinance} promulgated on March 21, 2007 did not abolish the Provisional Regulations of 1984\footnote{919} that allow the sourcing of organs from prisoners without consent. The 1984 Provisional Regulations remain valid today.\footnote{920}

In February 2017, the Vatican invited Huang on behalf of the Pope to attend a global summit on organ trafficking. After the summit, Huang said in a televised interview, “He invited me as Chairman of the National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee. I was unsure because this is a national matter and I had already left my administrative position. I felt that I couldn’t go as an individual. On this kind of
international stage, I can’t go without the support of the country, without the backing of the strong motherland. I reported to the central leadership [of the Chinese Communist Party], and an important leader there told me that the Chinese government supported my participation.”

Huang Jiefu’s unofficial spokesperson role and the dissolution of the former Ministry of Health both serve to help the Chinese regime avoid responsibility and accountability, as any crimes committed in organ transplantation under this system would not count as actions of the Chinese government.

**The Central Government’s Health Bureau and Committee**

Organ transplantation was initially a privilege limited to central Communist Party leaders. It has become more available to wealthy and foreign patients since 2000, when organ supplies became abundant.

During the time of the Cultural Revolution, the Chinese Communist Party established a dedicated group responsible for the health care of central Party leaders. The group was led by Wu Jieping, one of the first doctors to perform a kidney transplant in the 1960s. The group later became the “Central Health Committee” and took on the health care responsibility of top party and national leaders. It was still reliant on a transplant doctor at the core. The committee’s office was in the Central Health Care Bureau of the Ministry of Health.

After Huang Jiefu became the deputy health minister in 2001, he took control of the national medical and health system, including virtually all important posts related to organ transplantation. He became the deputy director of the Central Health Committee, chair of the National Organ Donation and Transplantation Committee, chair of the Chinese Hospital Association OPO Alliance, and chair of the China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation. In July 2005, he became the chief of the Central Health Care Bureau under the Ministry of Health.

Ling Jihua, former Secretary of the Central Secretariat and Director of the General Office of the Chinese Communist Party, also held the directorship of the Central Health Committee before his arrest and imprisonment for corruption. Another deputy director of the committee (in addition to Huang Jiefu) was Zhao Yupei, who was the chair of the Ministry of Health’s Human Organ Transplantation Admission Review Committee, a renowned expert in pancreatic surgery, and president of the Peking Union Medical College Hospital. The youngest core member of the committee was Shen Zhongyang of the Tianjin Oriental Organ Transplant Center.

Organ transplantation is a health benefit of the Communist Party’s elite for prolonging life. It not only serves Communist Party leaders but is also used by the Party as a tool of the United Front to win the purchase of foreign dignitaries and the elite of overseas Chinese.

In November 2016, Australian Senator Derryn Hinch told the parliament that he was encouraged to travel to China for an organ transplant after he was told he had only 12 months to live: “I was told by a senior businessman in Melbourne that I could go to Shanghai and for $150,000 get a new liver next week. I presume from that they would almost execute on order. How you could morally extend your life by doing that I cannot believe, but I was also told I could go to India and do the same thing … Some well-known people have bought organs for transplant over the years. But I condemn those practices in China.”
A Tool of the United Front

The Huiqiao Medical Center at Nanfang Hospital admits the most foreign patients in China, having exceeded more than 110,000 patients from over 90 countries and regions since 1979. In March 1995, the Central Military Commission conferred on Nanfang Hospital the honorary title of “Model of Excellent Medical Service,” even though this is nominally a civilian hospital.

Nanfang Hospital is the first affiliated hospital of the Southern Medical University (formerly the First Military Medical University). For the needs of United Front work, the entire hospital was moved to Guangdong Province.

The hospital advertises expertise in liver transplants, combined pancreas-kidney transplants, and liver-kidney transplants.

The director of the kidney transplant center, Professor Yu Lixin, is also a distinguished expert for the Central Health Care Bureau. Yu has completed over 3,800 kidney transplants. In a paper published in 2004, he stated that as early as November 2001, the hospital had conducted 2,123 kidney transplants. Since 1978, its quantity and quality of kidney transplants have ranked second in China.
Many in the transplantation department were trained overseas, three of them as post-doctoral fellows at the Organ Transplant Center of the University of Pittsburgh, the Organ Transplant Center of Northwestern University, and the Organ Transplant Center of the University of Cincinnati, respectively.  

The medical center has 400 beds and offers a variety of semi-private hotel-style rooms and suites independent of other wards, enabling each patient to have a dedicated room in which relatives and friends can stay overnight. Some of the rooms feature an elevated garden. Prices ranged from 360 RMB to 2,000 RMB per night in 2015.

The Military

The People’s Liberation Army (PLA) is controlled by the Chinese Communist Party and is one of the few militaries in the world that belong to a political party rather than the state.

Between 1999 and May 2006, the Chinese Communist Party Central Military Commission held six special meetings on “handling foreign-related religious issues,” which mainly targeted Falun Gong. The Communist Party’s former leader Jiang Zemin authorized the General Logistics Department to serve as the core unit to lead every level of the military to eradicate the practice of Falun Gong. The military was given the power to manage the secret detention facilities and the entire related process of live organ harvesting.

According to Bai Shuzhong, former head of the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department Health Division who served in this role from 1998 to 2004, it was Jiang Zemin, then Chairman of the Central Military Committee, who issued an instruction to carry out organ harvesting from Falun Gong practitioners. He said, “Chairman Jiang, when he was in the position, put a lot of emphasis, he gave instructions on this ... about people selling kidneys for transplant surgeries. I should say, it was not just the military that was doing kidney transplants. After Jiang issued the order, we all did a lot of work against the Falun Gong practitioners ... We directly control the military medical universities. They are directly affiliated with the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department, and they received repeated orders.”

After 2000, a large number of PLA Organ Transplant Centers were named and supported by the Central Military Commission and regional military commands. In December 2008, Zhang Yanling, director of the PLA General Logistics Department Health Division, told Xinhua News Agency, “In 1978, there were only three hospitals in the entire PLA capable of performing kidney transplants. Now, there are over 40 hospitals capable of liver, kidney, heart, lung and multi-organ transplants.”

Among them are the 23 national-level military transplant centers that were part of the first group approved by the Ministry of Health in 2007. Evidence shows that these are the core units that were carrying out live organ transplants. The other 20 armed forces transplant centers are usually general hospitals for troops of all arms or major military commands located in provincial capitals. Their transplant techniques and volume, though inferior to those of the national-level transplant centers described above, are still significant.

According to an investigation by the World Organization to Investigate the Persecution of Falun Gong, over 100 different military hospitals have developed or expanded their organ transplant facilities, with over 2,000 medical personnel involved. These include the General Hospital of the People’s Liberation Army (No.301) that belongs directly to the Central Military Commission, all military branch general hospitals, general hospitals that belong to the seven regional military commands, hospitals affiliated with...
military medical universities, military hospitals coded with numbers, and armed police general hospitals. They have resolved many core technical issues in organ transplantation and have supplied civilian hospitals with fresh organ supplies and technical assistance.

Below are examples among military hospitals of varying sizes. It is worth noting that these findings are limited to information available publicly and from whistleblowers. The true extent of transplantation activities conducted in military facilities is closely guarded.

**Case Study: PLA General (301) Hospital — A Health and Wellness Base for the CCP Central Committee and Central Military Commission**

The People’s Liberation Army No. 301 Hospital is the PLA’s largest comprehensive military hospital. It is responsible for the health care of the leaders of the CCP Central Committee, Central Military Committee, and high-ranking generals.  

The PLA General Hospital International Medical Center opened up the exclusive South Building previously reserved for the above category of patients. In December 2009, the Center began serving provincial and ministerial-level leaders, international VIPs, elites in various industries, celebrities, and other high-end clients. Huang Zhiqiang, formerly the hospital’s chief surgeon and chief expert of liver transplantation, served as the chief expert of the International Medical Center. He was also a member of the Chinese Academy of Engineering.

The hospital retains six members of the Chinese Academy of Sciences and the Chinese Academy of Engineering, more than 100 third-class experts (equivalent in rank to generals in non-combat positions), and more than 1,000 senior professional staff members, including doctoral advisors, masters advisors, and directors or deputy directors of various medical committees at national and military-wide levels.
Li Qihua, the hospital’s former president and a renowned medical expert, was a Falun Gong practitioner. In the initial stages of the persecution, his high profile led to his being directly targeted by Jiang Zemin. With daily visits from officials and under constant duress, Li was forced to give up Falun Gong.\textsuperscript{948}

Li Wenhua, a political commissar with the Beijing Garrison Area Army, received a liver transplant at No. 301 Hospital on July 27, 2007. Li was a division commander with the No. 27 Army who led troops to fire on students during the 1989 Tiananmen Massacre. He was later promoted to political commissar. According to Li’s relatives, Li was diagnosed with a liver disease in early 2007, which worsened despite treatment. The Central Military Committee ordered staff to treat his condition by whatever means necessary. Within eight days, doctors found a liver (reportedly from a 32-year-old death-row prisoner) and transported the organ to No. 301 Hospital on a 40-minute helicopter flight.\textsuperscript{949}

According to medical personnel who work in operating rooms at this hospital, organ transplants are among the most frequent, common surgeries.\textsuperscript{950} A surgeon at this hospital revealed to an investigator in April 2006 that she herself did liver transplants and that the source of the organs was a “state secret.”\textsuperscript{951}

The number of transplants performed at this hospital is also a military secret. However, we can gain some insight from financial information of one of its clinical divisions, the No. 309 Hospital. The archived web page of the Organ Transplantation Center states, “Our Organ Transplant Center is our main department for revenues. Its gross income in 2003 was 16,070,000 RMB. From January to June of 2004, the income was 13,570,000 RMB. This year (2004) there is a chance to break through 30,000,000 RMB.”\textsuperscript{952} Furthermore, its gross revenue rose from 30 million RMB in 2006 to 230 million RMB in 2010, an increase of nearly 8-fold in 4 years.\textsuperscript{953} We should note that such public figures are commonly underreported.

The hospital’s\textbf{ Hepatobiliary Surgery Department} is a People’s Liberation Army Hepatobiliary Surgery Center and Liver Transplant Center.\textsuperscript{954} It claims to be the largest in northern China.\textsuperscript{955} In 2007, the Center had 7 chief surgeons and 11 associate chief surgeons. “It performs no fewer than 5 to 8 surgeries a day. In view of a shortage of beds, our hospital is speeding up the construction of the new building, which can be expanded to 200 beds by the end of the year.”

The Liver Transplant Center engages in academic exchange from time to time with the University of Paris-Sud Hepatobiliary Center in France, the University of Pittsburgh Thomas E. Starzl Transplantation Institute US, the University of Melbourne National Liver Transplant Center, and other well-known international institutions.\textsuperscript{956}

The\textbf{ Urology Department} started performing allogeneic kidney transplants in 1977 and advertises its reputation in kidney transplantation. It claims to have 140 beds and 63 medical personnel.\textsuperscript{957}
Its web page shows that it has carried out over 2,000 allogeneic renal transplants since 1977. However, per a medical journal, as early as 2000, the number of kidney transplants performed at this hospital had already reached 1,180. It is unlikely that this huge hospital that “has always led the country in liver and kidney transplantation technology” performs only 50 kidney transplants each year.

In 2009, the central Communist Party leadership and the Central Military Commission approved the establishment of a branch of the PLA General Hospital in Sanya, Hainan to support “four missions:”

- To provide health care for senior cadres recuperating in Hainan (Hainan has been termed Beijing’s winter capital or “back garden”)
- To support Hainan’s establishment as an international tourism destination (the island receives tens of millions of tourists each year)
- To serve officers and soldiers stationed in Hainan
- To provide convalescence services to established “role models” and scientists who reside in remote, destitute regions and have contributed to national defense

The new branch was planned with more than 500 beds. It entered operation in 2012 with more than 1,000 professional and technical personnel selected from the PLA General Hospital. The branch makes heavy use of imported medical equipment and can conduct remote consultations and medical exchange with the military and more than a thousand networked hospitals. It also features a helipad.

Its website states that the hospital unifies the prevention, care, and treatment of its key demographic. It has reached an international level in minimally invasive surgery and has kidney transplantation as one of its main research directions. Its living and autologous liver transplantation has also achieved an internationally leading level.
Case Study: A Transplant Center in a Military Nursing Home

Located in Beidaihe Sanitarium, the PLA 281 Hospital is part of the Beijing Military Command Beidaihe system of nursing homes, along with the PLA 178 Hospital and the Navy Beidaihe nursing home. At one point, it performed the most kidney transplants in the Beijing Military Command and in Hebei Province.\(^\text{965}\)

This hospital started performing kidney transplants in the 1970s and completed its first allogeneic kidney transplant in 1987.\(^\text{966}\) The center receives patients from around the country. The youngest recipient was 9 years old; the oldest was 75. Its archived website from 2007 shows that the 40-bed kidney transplant center had 30 medical personnel. It has published more than 150 papers in medical journals at home and abroad.

The center performs kidney procurements and tissue matching at an alarming rate. One patient experienced a renal arterial embolization seven days after surgery, on February 4, 2002. On the next day, the transplanted kidney was removed and a new kidney was transplanted in situ. In other words, the wait time for the second transplant, including organ sourcing and tissue matching, was only one day.\(^\text{967}\)

On January 28, 2002, this unit undertook seven cadaveric renal allografts.\(^\text{968}\) As of 2007, the hospital had performed 6 to 9 simultaneous kidney transplants on 28 occasions.\(^\text{969}\)
Case Study: A Hospital’s Leap from Township Scale to Large Scale

The experience and practice of the People’s Liberation Army (Chengdu Air Force) Hospital No. 452 jumped from “township-scale” before 2000 to that of a “large-scale hospital” in just a few years. Other military hospitals followed suit.

Media reports in 2009 stated that when Zhang Cong became the hospital’s president in 2000, the troubled hospital had more than 6 million RMB of debt. Its kidney transplant division used to be the hospital’s best-known department.

However, due to the lack of funds to update its equipment, its patients decreased in number day by day.970

In 2002, Zhang decided to “borrow a hen to lay eggs” and found an entrepreneur who invested 8 million RMB in the hospital. The investor and the hospital together managed the renal transplant division. After the capital and equipment were in place, its kidney transplantation department soon “came back to life.” Five years later, the hospital bought back the facilities, equipment, and management rights from the investor and embarked on a new entrepreneurial path. It soon ranked first among all hospitals in Sichuan Province for the number of kidney transplants performed.

In 2000, the hospital had 210 beds and 89 vacancies for doctors. However as of 2008, it had increased its bed count to more than 1,000, the value of its medical equipment increased from 30 million to 120 million RMB, and its income increased from 20 million RMB to 260 million.971

As of 2016, the hospital had more than 1,500 beds, 78 senior professionals, and 195 intermediate professionals. The hospital’s kidney transplant capabilities are well known both in southwestern China and nationwide.972

After China’s organ transplant abuse was exposed in 2006, the hospital deleted pages containing transplant data from its official website and eventually shut down the website. External websites say that it has only 600 beds and has conducted just 200 kidney transplants.973 Its name changed to Western (Theater Command) Air Force Hospital No. 452 after 2016.
Since the organ harvesting crimes began, a number of events have provided insight into the killing of innocents for organs, whether intentionally or unintentionally. Together, they shed light on the extent to which the state is implicated in these crimes. Included are officials’ speeches at an award ceremony for an organ preservation solution that improves transplant outcomes after lethal injections. Also included are accounts with respect to the sourcing of bodies for plastination and international exhibitions, testimonials by whistleblowers in both civilian and military facilities, and admissions by Communist Party officials.

I. Wang Lijun’s Organ Procurement Research

Preservation Solution for Organs After Lethal Injection

At a ceremony on September 17, 2006, the “Guanghua Innovation Special Contribution Award” of two million RMB was issued to Wang Lijun, one of the most high-profile law enforcement officials in China.\(^7\)\(^7\)\(^5\) He operated an “On-Site Psychological Research Center” and is responsible for many medical innovations. In 2012, Wang attempted to defect and sought asylum at the U.S. consulate in Chengdu but was unsuccessful.\(^7\)\(^6\)

Ren Jinyang, Secretary-General of the Guanghua Foundation, remarked, “Professor Wang and his research center carried out basic research and clinical experiments on the transplant outcomes of organs recovered after lethal injections. They developed a brand new protective solution, which is used to provide a perfusion treatment for livers and kidneys both in vivo and in vitro. Through animal experiments, in vitro experiments, and clinical application, they have substantially increased the transplantation success rate with organs extracted after lethal injections.”\(^7\)\(^7\)

In his acceptance speech at the ceremony, Wang stated openly that his progress was the result of thousands of experiments on living bodies, “Our scientific and technological achievements in the field are the crystallization of the thousands of intensive on-site cases and the efforts of many of our people … for those of us who have served in the police force for many years, when we see a person go to the place of execution and, in a matter of minutes, this person’s life is transformed and extended into the lives of other people, it is soul-stirring. This is a momentous undertaking.”\(^7\)\(^8\)

In May 2003, Wang Lijun was promoted to police commissioner of Jinzhou City by Bo Xilai, the Governor of Liaoning Province (at one time considered a candidate for the highest level of political leadership in China before he was embroiled in scandal and purged). Soon after taking up the position, and despite having no medical background, Wang established an “On-Site Psychological Research Center” located under the Jinzhou Public Security Bureau. He then worked for 29 universities and research institutions with titles ranging from part-time professor to chairman.\(^7\)\(^9\) The media reports below give us a glimpse of Wang’s research and experiments:
Human Experimentation

In June 2005, *Liao Shen Evening News* reported an example of Wang’s work, “The Entire Process of Lethal Injections in Death-Row Prisoners,” which was intended to help more people understand the research. At 5:00 am, on June 9, 2005, in Cuijiatun in the Jinzhou City Economic and Technological Development Zone, an on-site experiment was carried out with a lethal injection. A researcher gave the following introduction:

“Through the entire process of a convict’s death via lethal injection, the healthy person’s vital signs will be measured before and after the injection, the amount of drug residue in various organs afterwards, the prisoner’s psychological changes when facing death … this data will provide important help to organ transplantation after death by lethal injection and other aspects of human organ transplantation. Whether in China or abroad, this is cutting-edge research.”

The reporter described the experts gathered at the execution site as if they were staff of a research laboratory. The reporter introduced Wang Lijun as the director of the Psychological Research Center. The reporter also identified professor and doctoral advisor Xi Huanjiu, the dean of Jinzhou Medical College, and other experts in medicine, criminal investigation, and psychology. They were described as conducting psychological analyses and clinical research on death-row prisoners who were to receive the lethal injections.

Experimental Subjects

Who were these “several thousand people” who “were transformed and had their lives extended in other bodies”? Were they truly executed criminals as Wang described in his speech?

Since the number of executions is considered a state secret in China, it is impossible to say with certainty. Even according to the highest estimation, no more than 10,000 death-row prisoners are executed each year in all of China, which has a population of 1.3 billion. Jinzhou has a population of about 3 million. This means that Jinzhou would proportionally have no more than 80 executed death-row prisoners between May 2003 and September 2006, when the transplantation research was performed.

This simple calculation suggests that the majority of human subjects for Wang’s transplantation research could not have been death-row prisoners. Thus, other Chinese citizens must have served as these experimental subjects. It is plausible that prisoners without death sentences became victims of these experiments, including prisoners of conscience. Falun Gong practitioners comprise the largest group of prisoners of conscience in China’s prisons and labor camps. They are also highly attractive from a transplantation perspective due to their healthy lifestyle, including abstinence from smoking and alcohol consumption.

Because Wang Lijun had no medical qualifications, his experiments were dependent on the knowledge of trained medical doctors. According to the Chinese Ministry of Commerce website, “Jinzhou Public Security Bureau’s On-Site Psychological Research Center” works with over ten universities and medical institutions, including the China Criminal Police College, Peking University, Beijing Institute of Technology, Northeastern University of Finance and Economics, China Medical University, Jinzhou Medical School and the People’s Liberation Army Military Hospital No. 205. It also collaborates with universities in more than ten countries in joint research and academic exchanges, including those from the United States, Japan, Italy, Norway, and Sweden.
The People’s Liberation Army Hospital No.205 in Jinzhou is the largest organ transplant center in western Liaoning Province, though it has not been approved to perform transplants by the Ministry of Health. On May 23, 2006, Western Liaoning Business Daily published a report stating that Chen Rongshan, the director of its urology department, had completed 568 kidney transplants. Patients from Taiwan, Singapore, South Korea, Malaysia, and that patients from other places “flock there because of its reputation.” By December 2006, Chen had participated in at least 632 kidney transplants.

Wang Lijun was arrested in February 2012 and convicted in September 2012 of abuse of power, bribery, and bending the law for selfish ends. On May 25, 2012, a WOIPFG investigator made a phone call to Chen Rongshan in the name of a “member of the Wang Lijun inter-departmental investigation team” of the government. Chen admitted that Wang’s collaboration partners included China Medical University and its affiliated hospitals.

Below is a partial (translated) transcript of the conversation between them:

Investigator: Wang Lijun had a post-drug-injection transplantation project. Have you collaborated with him on this?

Chen: Not only us, China Medical University, and its affiliated hospitals, were also involved in this.

Investigator: Some of the organs were from detained Falun Gong practitioners. Can you confirm this?

Chen: Those were all handled through the courts.

In China, courts are the authorities that oversee prisons and labor camps. Because no Falun Gong practitioners were sentenced to death, the use of organs from Falun Gong practitioners implies these organ “donors” were murdered.

Director Liu Yongfeng of China Medical University’s Organ Transplant Institute also admitted on his award application materials that he participated in the research and development of organ preservation solutions and developed industry-leading kidney preservation solutions. His account further stated that his technique of multiple abdominal organ procurement reduced damage to organs and has become the most widely used procurement technique in China. Liu led various scientific research projects, including four National Natural Science Foundation projects, and won several prizes of the Science and Technology Progress Award in organ transplant area.

Wang Lijun also presided over a major project on atraumatic dissection in the Asia-Pacific region. As shown in the center’s introduction on the next page, institutions that took part in this project included the Swiss Virtual Dissection Foundation, the Tribunal Science Institute of University of Bern in Switzerland, Medical University of Graz in Austria, China Medical University, Jinzhou Medical College, and the People’s Liberation Army (PLA) Hospital No. 205.

In June 2008, Wang Lijun was transferred to Chongqing, where he served as deputy mayor and police commissioner. During this period, he established the On-Site Psychology Research Center at Southwest University and acted as its director, professor, and doctoral advisor. He continuously promoted and facilitated the study of atraumatic dissection.
The cooperative units of the Research team on transplants with organs extracted after lethal injection:
Peking University, China Medical University, Jinzhou Medical School, and the PLA Hospital No. 205.

The cooperative units of the Research team on atraumatic dissection includes:
Swiss Virtual Dissection Foundation, the Tribunal Science Institute of University of Bern in Switzerland, Medical University of Graz in Austria, China Medical University, Jinzhou Medical College, and the People’s Liberation Army 205 hospital. It included five Swiss medical doctors, two Austrians doctors, 11 holders of post-doctorates degrees, doctorates, and masters of the On-Site Psychological Research Center.

An introduction of Wang Lijun’s “On-Site Psychological Research Center” at a seminar

Wang’s team conducting studies on atraumatic dissection at Chongqing Psychological Research Center
II. Silent Witnesses: Plastinated Bodies

Alongside the growth of China’s organ transplant industry starting in 2000 came the unprecedented exhibition of human bodies and body parts in the name of science, education, and art. To date, these exhibits have attracted more than 100 million patrons around the world. Among these projects are a series of Body Worlds exhibitions by German anatomist Gunther von Hagens and an exhibition series by Dr. Sui Hongjin from Dalian, China.

The Real Bodies exhibit opened in Sydney, Australia on April 14, 2018 and includes 20 “real, perfectly preserved human bodies” and over 200 anatomical specimens. Critics have raised concerns about the sources of the corpses. A petition calling for the exhibition’s closure describes the display as “inhumane and evil” and “an insult to humanity.” The International Coalition to End Transplant Abuse in China (ETAC) published an open letter signed by lawyers, academics, ethicists, and human rights advocates calling for a boycott by schools, universities and other organized groups, citing “the lack of documentation demonstrating ethical and legal sourcing of each body.”

Major media outlets in Australia, including News Corp, ABC, Channel 10, The Guardian, and The Sydney Morning Herald, have covered the issue in depth and focused public attention on the issue once again. In fact, debate has raged regarding the ethics and sources of corpses used for these exhibits for over a decade.

The controversy in Australia parallels that of a number of similar body exhibitions around the world.

As of April 2018, von Hagens’ Body Worlds has traveled to at least 121 cities in 26 countries and attracted 45,000,000 visitors. Its 2018 schedule includes the United States, Canada, Germany, Switzerland, Poland, the Netherlands, and New Zealand. Body Worlds has at least 9 to 11 themed exhibitions touring around the world.

Meanwhile, Sui Hongjin had also conducted business with more than 100 world-famous museums as of November 2010, and the annual revenue of his company, Dalian Hongfeng Biology Technology Co., had reached more than 200 million RMB. Now Sui’s representatives are touring the world under the names Real Bodies, Bodies Revealed, Bodies: The Exhibition, Human Bodies: The Exhibition, and The Human Body. To date, almost each one has attracted over 10 million visitors.

![Chart: Cumulative number of visitors to Body Worlds](image-url)
Sources of Corpses Questioned

Real Bodies is owned by Imagine Exhibitions of the United States. Its president, Tom Zaller, said that the bodies were “absolutely from China” and that there was “no documentation” to prove their identities or consent to donate their bodies. Prior to the establishment of Imagine Exhibitions in 2009, he was vice president of Premier Exhibitions and was responsible for its body exhibitions. As of 2012, such exhibitions made up 67% of Premier’s revenue, while 19% came from its Titanic exhibit.

Bodies: The Exhibition by Premier Exhibitions opened in New York City on November 19, 2005. On display were 22 skinless corpses and 260 real human organ specimens that had tissue fluid extracted and silicone pumped into them.

One piece of the exhibit features a young mother and her unborn baby of eight months. The show also displays fetuses at various stages of development, including one that was 24 weeks old.

In China, there is a deeply-rooted tradition to “preserve the entire body intact after death and bury it in peace.” Because of this, almost no Chinese would donate their remains to hospitals, let alone a human specimen factory. Who would donate the remains of his unfortunate wife and unborn child to a paid exhibition? Where did these human specimens come from?

In 2006, the New York Times reported that according to the organizers, the human specimens used in Bodies: The Exhibition were provided by Dalian Medical University in China and produced using plastination technology invented by Gunther von Hagens. Sui Hongjin, Chairman of Dalian Hongfeng Biology Technology Co., Ltd and the deputy director of the Anatomy Department of Dalian Medical University, explained, “no one can recognize their identities.”
Body Plastination Plants

Gunther von Hagens invented a body plastination technology and applied for a patent to protect his method of preserving biological tissue specimens by using silicon, epoxy, and other polymer mixtures to replace fluids in the human body. Treated specimens are no longer corrupt or odorous and retain most of the characteristics of the original samples, and even under the microscope still show the original appearance of human cells. In 1999, von Hagens invested $15 million USD and co-founded von Hagens Dalian Plastination Company, Ltd., with Sui Hongjin. The company constructed the world’s largest production base for human specimens that occupies nearly 30,000 square meters. According to Sina Finance, it created “a variety of grotesque humanoid specimens utilizing human bodies from fetus to adults of all ages.” Von Hagens indicated that the specimens would be used for commercial exhibitions rather than as educational products for medical schools.

Von Hagens proudly told Chinese and foreign reporters the reasons why he chose Dalian include: support from the government, preferential policies, an excellent workforce, low wages, and a plentiful source of corpses. At this time, Bo Xilai was in office in Dalian. Von Hagens not only received special approval for the corpse plant but was also named an honorary citizen of Dalian.

On November 27, 2003, a cover article named “Corpse Factory Investigation” was published in the second issue of Oriental Outlook. In the report, von Hagens disclosed, “so far about 80% of the products from the von Hagens company’s research and development are in this Dalian factory. Here is the base for the company's global operations. The company has formed a global network for corpse acquisition, processing, transportation and exhibition.”

In 2004, Sui Hongjin, von Hagens's former partner and deputy director of the Anatomy Department at Dalian Medical University, registered another company named “Dalian Hongfeng Biology Ltd.” Its main business is the manufacture and exhibition of human body specimens. The two parties became each other’s biggest competitors.

A number of media outlets, including Der Spiegel, ABC, and the New York Times, reported on the operation of these two body plastination plants in Dalian. Profiles of the two companies are in the table below.

These were not the only body plastination plants in China. Oriental Outlook reported in 2003 that there were also plastination plants in Guangzhou, Shanghai, Nanjing, Qingdao, Shenzhen, Tai’an and elsewhere, and that China had become the world’s largest exporter of human specimens. Southern Metropolis Daily reported on August 23, 2012 that mainland China had several dozen manufacturers engaged in human plastination.
### Table: Two body plastination factories in Dalian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Von Hagens Dalian Plastination Company, Ltd.</th>
<th>Dalian Hongfeng Biology Ltd.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
<td>Dalian High-Tech Industrial Zone, Qixianling</td>
<td>Dalian Lvshun Economic Development Zone, Guangyuan Street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operator</strong></td>
<td>Gunther von Hagens, German anatomist</td>
<td>Sui Hongjin, former professor at Dalian Medical University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Founded</strong></td>
<td>August 1999</td>
<td>January 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operational Details</strong></td>
<td>World’s largest production base for human body specimens</td>
<td>Occupies 30,000 square meters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occupied 30,000 square meters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employed 200 workers for corpse processing; all had to sign confidentiality agreements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evidence shows that von Hagens paid the Chinese government to obtain corpses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Connections with Government Officials</strong></td>
<td>Approved by Bo Xilai as Mayor of Dalian</td>
<td>Approved by Bo Xilai as Governor of Liaoning Province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current Status</strong></td>
<td>The production site was emptied after Wang Lijun’s attempted defection to the U.S. Consulate</td>
<td>Still operating and expanding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Trafficking Human Remains

Trafficking human cadavers has become a business. Plastinated specimens are publicly priced and traded. The Government of China calls for bids on such trades. Here are some examples:

Mudanjiang Medical College, teaching specimens and human services bid announcement 1026

【Mudanjiang city government Web site – government procurement】

Tender Date: June 30, 2011
Bid announcement: February 15, 2012
The successful supplier list: Dalian Hongfeng Biology Technology Co., Ltd.
The bid price: 997,000 yuan (approximately $150,000 USD)
Tenderer Name: Mudanjiang Municipal Government Procurement Center
Contact: Mr. Feng, Mr. Teng

Sui Hongjin’s Dalian Medical University Biology Plastination Ltd. is active in China’s educational equipment procurement network, to which it sells plastinated specimens of all parts of the human body, such as the digestive system, nervous system, endocrine system, genitourinary (reproductive and urinary organs) system, respiratory system, sensory organs, embryonic development including “fetuses [of] 10 weeks to 32 weeks.” The company also offers negotiable product prices.1027

China’s Educational Equipment Procurement Network

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products:</th>
<th>Fetus 10 weeks to 32 weeks</th>
<th>Price:</th>
<th>Product price is negotiable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exhibitor:</td>
<td>Dalian Hongfeng Biology Technology Co., Ltd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
<td>August 3, 2012</td>
<td>Updated Date:</td>
<td>June 29, 2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Introduction of products of Dalian Medical University Biology Plastination Ltd on the website of China’s educational equipment procurement network
Von Hagens sold human specimens under the name of “anatomical teaching materials” to medical facilities all over the world. He later increased his revenue by selling admission tickets to view plastinated corpses in traveling exhibitions. Body Worlds also sells corpse cross-sections to private individuals. According to Der Spiegel, “A cross-section down the length of the body will cost €12,000 ($17,800), while a cross-section across the body will be priced at €250, or €1,600 for a 16-slice set. A typical corpse can produce eight vertical cross-sections or 230 horizontal cross-sections.”

Von Hagens also opened an online store to sell cadaveric organs at high profit margins. A complete human specimen was priced at 69,615 euros (about 700,000 RMB). Torsos started at 58,000 euros. A brain would go for about 23,000 euros. For buyers with a smaller budget, the web shop also offers transparent body slices for 121 euros each.

Commercial exhibition of these specimens had earned von Hagens more than 900 million U.S. dollars as of 2012.

Claimed Police Sourcing

When Sui Hongjin was asked about the sources of his corpses, he declared in August 2012, “The bodies are from [Dalian] Medical University autopsies. The origin is indicated as ‘body without record’.” He emphasized, “From the first day when Dalian Hongfeng was established, no plastinated specimen we have offered has come from death row. Not one.” He also said, “At present, none of our plastinated human specimens are from donors… They come from people who died in hospitals and whose bodies were unclaimed.”

However, according to regulations and autopsy rules issued by China’s Ministry of Health on February 22, 1979, medical colleges can use undocumented corpses that remained unclaimed after a month upon approval of a competent authority or police department. It is thus doubtful that bodies released by the police more than one month after death are used in Sui’s plastination plant. In order to show the intact tissue structure of the human body, it is crucial for the plastination procedure to be started as soon as possible. If prompt plastination is not possible, the corpses must be professionally preserved to prevent the decay process until plastination is completed at a later time.

In 2008, at the request of the Attorney General of New York State, Premier Exhibitions posted a disclaimer on the exhibition’s official website and at the New York exhibition site, citing “Dalian Hongfeng” as the source of human body specimens:

“This exhibit displays human remains of Chinese citizens or residents which were originally received by the Chinese Bureau of Police. The Chinese Bureau of Police may receive bodies from Chinese prisons. Premier cannot independently verify that the human remains you are viewing are not those of persons who were incarcerated in Chinese prisons.”
Von Hagens has denied using cadavers of Chinese citizens for plastination. According to China Business Daily, he said in November 2003 that his Dalian company was “the biggest human specimen manufacturing site in the world, importing more than 100 bodies from outside of China each year and producing at least 40 complete plastinated human specimens of various models.” However, an official at the Inspection and Quarantine Bureau of the Dalian Economic and Technology Development Zone disputed this claim: “More than a hundred bodies soaked in formaldehyde coming in through Dalian Customs? Absolutely impossible!” Mr. Wang from the Office of Human Genetic Resources Management also told reporters, “What is clear is that the von Hagens Dalian Plastination Company that’s engaged in the export and import of human substances has never filed any customs paperwork with my office.”

Von Hagens’ company had also stressed that sources of bodies in China were plentiful and that the chemical materials and equipment used for plastination were two to three times cheaper than outside of China. This was effectively an admission that the bodies were sourced from within China.

In August 2012, Rurik von Hagens—son of Günther von Hagens and CEO of the company Gubener Plastinate—said to Deutsche Welle: “The only bodies used in our exhibitions are ones that people donate while they are still alive. We have only ever used donated bodies … even when we prepare bodies for universities, the bodies used are also ones that have been donated to us.” He also said in the same interview that, “In China we tried to establish a body donor program. There were some people who were interested. But we only ended up getting one actual donor.”

However, Der Spiegel reported in its "Merchant of Death" article in 2004 that encrypted messages between von Hagens and his employees in Dalian showed that the rate at which the company received Chinese corpses between 2001 and 2004 was astounding. On November 12, 2001, a fully loaded truck delivered 31 corpses, 27 of men and four of women, via an underground tunnel to Von Hagens Biology Plastination Co. Ltd. Less than three weeks later, Sui Hongjin told warehouse staff to prepare for the arrival of 40 more corpses. In mid-January 2002, another 60 "complete" bodies arrived at the Dalian plant by rail in a reserved freight train car. According to a confidential report, between November 12, 2001 and mid-January 2002, "160 bodies" were shipped to the Dalian plant’s underground storage facility. Department head Zhou Rui warned that "Warehouse space is running out."
Der Spiegel reporters went to von Hagens’ Dalian plant in November 2003 to investigate. They recorded an inventory of 647 complete body specimens and 3,909 dismembered body parts, such as legs, hands, penises, etc. In addition, there were 182 embryos, fetuses, and newborns. The inventory of bodies was classified according to size, age and gender.

The corpses with defects were stored separately in a freezer, accompanied with records detailing flaws such as "skull open," "broken neck," etc. For example, body 03MI077 was tagged as "raw material." The cadaver was labeled "body of a man," about 1.66 meters tall, with a note adding, "missing left eye, foot and hand damaged." Container No.18 held a child’s complete corpse whose number was 01MI092. It was labeled "worth exhibiting," with notes that the skull had been sawn open. A note on another corpse said "abdomen cut open crosswise."

The horrors of the deaths displayed here are not limited to corpses of adults. The database of "embryos and fetuses" in storage contained a detailed record for a 9-month-old fetus. The specimen, numbered 01BR01, was deposited in the company's warehouse on March 26, 2001: gender: male, nationality: "mainland Chinese." The “source” of the preserved fetus was clearly marked "police."

To counter accusations by Der Spiegel that he was using cadavers of executed Chinese prisoners, von Hagens also told a Deutsche Welle reporter in 2004 that he “immediately instructed the Chinese Dalian factory workers to check the inventory of 650 corpses to see whether any heads had gunshot wounds.” The result was that only seven heads were found with bullet holes. All 650 corpses in its Dalian plant were Chinese, yet only seven could have been executed prisoners.

As with organ donation, because of cultural inhibitions, almost no Chinese would donate their remains to human specimen plants. Sui acknowledged that no body donation had been received as of 2012. In addition, if most of the large number of corpses from the “police” are not those of executed prisoners or undocumented corpses that had “died in hospitals” as Sui claimed, then what are their real identities? Meanwhile, these plants “use corpses on an almost industrial scale.”

Excerpt of Conversation with Sui Hongjin, Chairman of Dalian Hongfeng

Below is the translation of the transcript of a call made to Sui Hongjin by an investigator from the World Organization to Investigate the Persecution of Falun Gong. The investigator assumed the identity of a Party investigator and asked Sui about his business operations, including the provenance of the corpses. The call was made in late 2012, a period of great political uncertainty in China and not long after the purge of Bo Xilai. Investigations were being launched into many of Bo’s former colleagues, as well as his wife, Gu Kailai. These conditions would have helped to give Sui Hongjin the impression that he was indeed speaking to a Party disciplinary investigator.

Investigator: What channels served as your main source of bodies?

Sui Hongjin: Dozens of corpses came from Public Security. They were procured by the Public Security Bureau.

Investigator: Then they are from the police. How many cadavers have you received thus far?
Sui Hongjin: I can’t remember now, perhaps dozens...if you come in person to investigate, I will discuss the matter with you. It’s not convenient to talk on the phone.

Investigator: Which Public Security Bureau supplied you?

Sui Hongjin: Dalian, the Dalian Public Security Bureau.

Investigator: So the source of the dead bodies you used was from the Public Security Bureau. Do you know where they got them?

Sui Hongjin: They ... how do I put it, this was in 2004, there was once an internal report, a report to the Ministry of Public Security ... because for some specific subjects, I only ask for a result. I cannot ask for too much detail ... because I know this is a sensitive matter. I’m willing to cooperate with your investigation ... if necessary, I can be interviewed, if you need a signed statement that is not a problem. I stand by what I say.

Much like China’s organ transplant industry, the abrupt rise of body plastination plants took place alongside the communist regime’s campaign to crush Falun Gong adherents in July 1999. Bo Xilai, then-mayor of Dalian, and his wife, Gu Kailai, sought to gain higher positions and actively joined Jiang Zemin’s campaign against Falun Gong. In 2000 and 2001, Bo Xilai was promoted to Deputy Secretary of the Liaoning Province Communist Party Committee. After that, he was made Acting Governor of Liaoning Province, and finally Governor in 2002. During this time, he invested one billion RMB to carry out prison expansion and reconstruction throughout the province, and to build new large-scale prison facilities.

At the time, Falun Gong practitioners from all over China went to appeal to the central government in Beijing and were arrested. Bo Xilai assumed custody of many of these petitioners and put them in prisons under his control. Liaoning became the notorious center of live organ harvesting of Falun Gong practitioners. In the vicinity of von Hagens’ and Sui Hongjin’s plastination plants are Liaoning Province No.3 Prison, Dalian Nanguanling Prison, Dalian Labor Camp, Yaojia Detention Center, and others.

Chinese Government Auspices


Sui Hongjin’s human specimen business was not affected by the regulations. Instead, it began to grow and thrive. On November 23, 2010, Dalian TV reported, “Dalian Hongfeng Biological Technology Co., Ltd. conducts business with more than 100 world-famous museums, and its annual revenue has reached more than 200 million yuan.”

On December 15, 2008, Dalian Hongfeng Biological Technology Co., Ltd. was selected by the Dalian Municipal Government as one of the “high-tech enterprises” to receive tax incentives. In May 2009, Dalian Hongfeng opened its first “Mystery of Life Museum” in Dalian in 2009. It was touted as “the only comprehensive museum in the world where the first signs of life can be seen.” According to Sui Hongjin, the “exhibition center was funded and supported by the Ministry of Finance and the China Association for
In 2014, Sui Hongjin opened a Mystery of Life Museum in his hometown of Suzhou with a 220 million RMB investment. It now serves as a national base for the promotion of science for the Chinese Society for Anatomical Sciences. In December 2015, he opened another museum in Chengdu, Sichuan Province.

The museums’ website stated that its worldwide exhibition has visited 43 countries and more than 110 cities in 12 years, attracting more than 40 million visitors. It also stated, “Party and national leaders Li Changchun and Jia Qinglin visited the Dalian museum in 2013 and 2014 and gave it high praise. Scientists from other countries, academicians, and provincial and ministry-level officials have visited and provided guidance.” It is clear that Sui Hongjin had the support of not only Dalian city officials but also the central Communist Party leadership.

Opposition

The skinless human bodies and parts have been displayed in various artistic, educational, and scientific settings all around the world. The “Real Bodies” exhibition website says, “This is a great exhibition for all ages to enjoy, we recommend children aged 4 years and over will get the most out of their exhibition experience… Yes, the exhibition can accommodate prams and strollers.” In Las Vegas, “Tickets for children ages 3-12 are available for $15 plus fees.”

However, the exhibitions have been criticized by some patrons for its negative psychological impact. A mother who has a medical background called ABC Radio Sydney after taking her two children to the exhibition, which had a gloomy effect on them.

Skinning a person (even if dead) is considered unusual cruelty. According to psychologist Deborah L. Davis, “when you witness cruelty and empathize with the victim, you experience the trauma vicariously. That’s why witnesses to violence are considered to be victims too.” If the witness sides with the aggressor, it can compel them to behave aggressively themselves. Children are especially vulnerable to the effects of exposure to cruelty.
Some government bodies have barred the exhibits due to concerns regarding ethical sourcing of bodies. For example, in April 2009, a French court closed the body exhibition in Paris. Hawaii also introduced legislation in July 2009 to shut down "Bodies…the Exhibition," which displays "unclaimed bodies" from China. In 2010, The Seattle City Council unanimously voted to ban the cadaver exhibit "Bodies" from returning to the city after outlawing commercial displays of human remains that don't have proof of consent. The Supreme Court of Israel closed down the “Bodies” exhibition in Tel Aviv in 2012 ahead of its scheduled closing date. In 2017, one of Prague’s mayors tried to invoke a city ordinance dictating that corpses must be buried and cannot be placed on public display without prior written permission from the deceased.

Following these bans, the Czech Republic promulgated the amendatory Burial Act to prevent future body exhibits from proceeding without proper consent from the deceased or their family on July 7, 2017.

In Germany, where body plastination technology originated, the “Menschen Museum” opened in the Berlin district of Mitte in February 2015. The district expressed concerns over the exhibition even before its opening and has since launched a legal dispute against the museum. The Higher Administrative Court (Oberverwaltungsgericht, OVG) of Berlin-Brandenburg first decided to close the exhibition in December 2015, and it received support from the Federal Administrative Court (Bundesverwaltungsgericht) in July 2016. The museum thereupon changed its legal form to avoid closure. Thus, the legal procedure had to be reopened in December 2016.

In September 2017, the Berlin Administrative Court (Verwaltungsgericht) allowed only plastic bodies and body parts with declarations of consent to be displayed. The museum had to close temporarily, and ten plastinated bodies that did not have declarations of consent had to be covered with aluminum foil. In March 2018, the decision of the Higher Administrative Court of Berlin-Brandenburg required that whole plastinated bodies without consent be removed from the exhibition. It required, further, that the museum provide proof of consent for the remaining exhibits. The court will announce a final decision on whether the exhibition can remain in the autumn of 2018.

Most countries have not yet enacted legislation prohibiting the importation and exhibition of body parts that lack evidence of consent for donation, enabling these exhibitions to continue operating profitably. Nevertheless, opposition is growing, and more legal actions are being commenced to stop the exhibition of bodies that may be unethically sourced.
III. Whistleblowers

Whistleblowers have provided invaluable testimony as our investigation has been conducted in the face of an information blackout. Although these testimonials cannot all be directly and completely verified, many have been corroborated by other evidence that emerged later. In the context of new findings that reveal a massive transplant industry in China, they have provided some pieces that were otherwise missing from the larger puzzle.

Employee of Sujiatun Hospital in Shenyang

The issue first came to light on March 6, 2006, when “Annie,” an employee at Sujiatun Hospital in the city of Shenyang in northeastern China from 1999 to 2004, made a public statement that as many as 4,000 Falun Gong practitioners had been killed for their organs at the hospital where she worked. Her husband, a surgeon at the same hospital, told her that the hospital housed Falun Gong practitioners and murdered them for their organs. He admitted to personally removing the corneas from approximately 2,000 Falun Gong prisoners in the two years leading up to October 2003. None of the “donors” survived because other surgeons extracted their vital organs and their bodies were then cremated.

“The hospital only had a small number of officials and participating medical staff who knew about this. It was taboo, and everyone stayed away from the subject because they feared for their lives and wanted to avoid trouble. Only highly trusted doctors could be selected as organ procurement surgeons. Starting in 2001, my [husband] participated in organ procurement surgeries. He initially concealed it. After some time, in 2003, I found that he was in a lot of pain. He often had nightmares and was terrified. After I questioned him repeatedly, he finally told me what was going on. He said, ‘You don’t how much pain I’m in, because these Falun Gong practitioners were alive.’”

“Our hospital’s employees called this place ‘the cremator.’ Actually, it was a boiler room. The employees said that some of the [Falun Gong practitioners who had their organs removed] were incinerated while they were still alive.”

“Starting in 2001, our hospital started detaining Falun Gong practitioners. In the beginning, these people were held in the shacks behind the hospital. The hospital later had the shacks removed. According to someone at the hospital who was familiar with the situation, these Falun Gong practitioners were moved to a secret underground facility. There are huge underground facilities within the hospital. At the time, a

On April 20, 2006, the witness appeared at a rally in front of the White House and publicly exposed the forced organ harvesting taking place in China.
procurement manager revealed that there was a surge in the amount of food, surgical gloves, and daily necessities being ordered. He estimated, by the magnitude of this increase, that the hospital was holding at least 6,000 Falun Gong practitioners.”

Annie mentioned in the statement that her husband had a dedicated mobile phone for these particular operations; whenever and wherever he received a call on this phone, he immediately went to perform organ operations. He sometimes had to do a few operations a day. He told her that the victims were Falun Gong practitioners, most of whom were young and healthy. They were transferred from Dabei Prison, Masanjia Labor Camp, and other prisons without any documentation.1063

The couple ultimately managed to escape to the United States. Annie is not a Falun Gong practitioner.1064

In response to Annie’s allegations, David Kilgour and David Matas launched an independent investigation in 2006. After months of research, including undercover interviews with doctors throughout 12 provinces in China, they came to “the regrettable conclusion that the allegations are true.” Kilgour and Matas later compiled their findings in the book *Bloody Harvest*.1065

Over a decade later, in October 2017, TV Chosun visited the site of this hospital, including the “cremator” boiler room mentioned by Annie. The surrounding residents told foreign reporters that they had never heard of “live organ harvesting.” While the boiler room, surrounding structures, and wall remained intact, the smokestack was no longer there.

Left: boiler room and smokestack (photo taken over 10 years ago)
Right: Photo by TV Chosun in October 2017. The boiler room and surrounding structures remained almost the same, while the smokestack had disappeared
Military Doctor in Shenyang

On March 31, 2006, three weeks after Annie’s testimony, the horrific allegations were validated in a letter written to the Epoch Times by a person who identified himself as a senior military doctor who belonged to the General Logistics Department of the Shenyang Military Command.

He wrote, “Sujiatun is one of 36 similar secret detention facilities. From the information I can access, Jilin has the largest camp that detains Falun Gong practitioners. This camp is identified as number 672-S. There are more than 120,000 people detained there, including Falun Gong people from throughout the country, serious offenders, and political prisoners. Just the Jilin Jiutai region, which has the fifth-largest secret detention facility holding Falun Gong practitioners, held more than 14,000 of them.”

According to this military doctor, who chose to remain anonymous for his safety, “… from 1962 through today, the Chinese Communist Party’s Central Military Commission has had documentation directing that all death row and serious offenders may be treated according to the needs of national and socialist development and can be dealt with according to the ‘revolutionary protocol’.”

“The seizure of organs from serious offenders was legalized by a supplementary regulation enacted in 1984. Many local public security departments dealt with this either by directly transplanting from these people and cremating them afterwards, or by wounding them, forming death rituals, directly transplanting, and then cremating them. After 1992, the development of many industries in China led to a sharp increase in the costs of industrial raw materials, and human bodies became commodities. Both living bodies and corpses became commodities.”

“At present, the Chinese Communist Party Central [leadership] defines Falun Gong members as an enemy class. This means that there is no need to report it if they are treated in accordance with the needs of economic development. In other words, like serious offenders, Falun Gong people are seen no longer as human beings but as raw materials for products.”

The same military doctor wrote again to the Epoch Times in April 2006 to give more details about the process:

“All information pertaining to these activities is regarded as a military secret. The Central Military Commission authorizes relevant military personnel and units to oversee these matters. He/she has the authority to arrest, detain or execute any doctor, police officer, or researcher who leaks information.”

“Organ transplantation is managed by the military. That means the military system is the core organization managing this type of thing. This cannot be matched by local government agencies, because once it becomes a military secret, there’s no way to obtain information—I believe everyone knows how the military system operates. So, more attention is needed on the many military facilities; that’s where the real concentration camps are.”

“Anyone targeted for organ transplantation would be taken away from prisons, forced labor camps, detention centers, secret camps, etc. At that point, their real name would be replaced with a code corresponding to a forged voluntary donor’s name … the next step would be to undergo the live organ transplant … this person is seen no longer as a human being but as an animal. [Doctors] who have
performed one or two cases may still have some lingering fear, but after tens of thousands of live
transplants and destroying the bodies while still alive, one becomes numb.”

“All organ sources targeted are said to be voluntary. Falun Gong and other inmates use their real names
during custody. However, a forged name is used during organ transplantation. They become a fictitious
person, but this person's information is complete. There was also a signature on the voluntary organ
donation form, but of course it was signed by someone else.”

“I have seen more than 60,000 such counterfeit forms. Basically, it says that the person voluntarily
donates the organ and bears all the consequences. Many signatures were from same person's handwriting.”

“These materials will be kept for 18 months and be destroyed afterwards. They are kept at the provincial
level of military commands and can be accessed only with approval from the commissioner(s) of the
Central Military Commission.”

“In fact, the number of underground, unofficial organ transplants in China is several times higher than the
official figures. With an abundant source of living organs, many hospitals with military backgrounds also
engage in large-scale organ transplantation in private, in addition to the official reports they submit to
their superiors.”

“Among the products exported from China are a massive number of living bodies. The so-called living
body export is when someone meets the requirements of a combination of parties inside and outside of
China, they would be sold to foreigners in the form of merchandise. The organ transplants are conducted
outside of China. After the transplant, the body is cremated just the same (China has overseas
organizations specifically for disposing of such bodies; many Chinese consulates have been involved).
Among all exported products involving living bodies, China’s output value is the highest in the world.
There are forged consent documents for almost all of these exported living bodies. I’m not familiar with
the specific methods.”

“China is the center of international live organ trading and has accounted for more than 85% of the total
number of live organ transplants in the world since 2000. According to the data reported to the Central
Military Commission, a few people have been promoted and became Generals due to their ‘achievements’
in this field.”

Australian Senator Derryn Hinch told the parliament in 2016 that he was encouraged to travel to China
for an organ transplant. When he inquired about the organ source in China, a Chinese businesswoman told
him, “Don't worry about China; there’s a hospital in London. A lot of Middle Eastern people go there, and
you can buy an organ.”
Healthcare Worker in Jinan

On April 14, 2006, a worker employed in Jinan’s healthcare system for more than 20 years wrote to the overseas newspaper *Renminbao*:

“Both the Shandong Qianfoshan Hospital and the Shandong Police General Hospital (commonly known as Laogai Hospital, since such hospitals belong to the labor camp system) directly participated in organ harvesting from Falun Gong practitioners. These hospitals received and fully cooperated with instructions directly from the central level of the Communist Party. Many transplants using organs from living practitioners were performed by these two hospitals, which partnered with Shandong Provincial Prison, Shandong Province Women’s Prison, and other prisons and forced labor camps. These institutions streamlined the supply of organs, including surgeons, extraction of organs, transplantation, distribution of profit, etc. … The bodies of Falun Gong practitioners were used for hospitals’ interns to conduct experiments.”

“Qianfoshan Hospital partnered with the Tianjin Oriental Organ Transplant Center to establish the Shandong Liver Transplant Institute. It boasted the largest transplant volume and the most advanced technology in liver transplantation in the province. The center also performed kidney, testicular, lung, and corneal transplants.”

The hospital has 800 beds, over 300 senior technical personnel, 44 doctoral and graduate advisors, and more than 90 part-time professors from Shandong University.
In 2014 and 2015, Yang Guang, an expert in Chinese issues who resides in Denmark, reported to the *Epoch Times* and *New Tang Dynasty Television* about two of his friends. One was a vice president of a medical university in northeastern China in charge of logistics for two of its affiliated hospitals. Before 2009, he had been put in charge of the two hospitals, each of which conducted 2,000 to 3,000 organ transplants every year. The real name and former workplaces of Mr. Yang’s first friend were verifiable online. There was no attempt to contact the witness because of the dangers to which the contact would expose him. The names of both hospitals and the witness have been redacted for safety concerns.

Below are excerpts of the account of the first friend.

“The two affiliated hospitals of our university conducted 2,000 to 3,000 organ transplantation surgeries each year. Due to a pool of living organ sources, tissue matching took less than a month, sometimes as short as 48 hours…the 610 Office (the Communist Party bureaucracy charged with eradication of Falun Gong) transported organ sources to the hospitals in prisoner transport vehicles. Once the tissue matching was verified, the transplants were performed. After the surgeries, the bodies were cremated…We only get serial numbers [of the ‘organ sources’] and knew only that they were Falun Gong practitioners. Such cases accounted for 90% of transplants in the hospitals. The whole process was monitored by the members of 610 Office…We were required to maintain strict secrecy. All the serial numbers and data of organ transplants were reported to the supervising Chinese Communist Party Committee at the end of each year, and then were removed from our computers under the supervision of 610 Office personnel.”

“Beginning in 2000, the 610 Office started to supply us organs of Falun Gong practitioners. There were no names or addresses, just their gender, age, and a serial number. Whenever our hospitals sent medical teams to collect blood samples from the prisons, labor camps, and brainwashing centers, I had to prepare the tools, drugs, and coolers and provide transportation. I have the complete records in hand … The military and police hospitals usually conduct more transplants than civilian hospitals.”

The vice president added that death row prisoners accounted for only a small number of all organs procured. Even in the ten biggest cities in China, no more than fifty prisoners were executed annually. Senior Chinese Communist Party officials and their relatives refused to accept organs from death-row prisoners. Those organs were usually reserved for foreigners who went to China for transplants. Prices for foreigners were not fixed. In some cases, those who had money and were desperate for an organ were charged up to $2 million for a transplantation and hospital stay.

Yang’s other friend worked in the Ministry of Public Security and was in charge of informant stations in a major city on the coast of mainland China. During the New Year holidays in 2012, he told Yang that as far as he knew, over the past decade, at least 500,000 Falun Gong practitioners’ organs were harvested for transplants in civilian hospitals in China. This number did not include those from hospitals affiliated with the armed police, military, and public security. The statistics of these hospitals were top secret, and even personnel in the Ministry of Public Security could not obtain them.
IV. Phone Calls

Since Annie made her public statement about live organ harvesting in March 2006, the World Organization to Investigate the Persecution of Falun Gong (WOIPFG) has conducted phone interviews with members of the judiciary, military, armed police, and organ transplant centers in 31 provinces, municipalities directly under the central government, and autonomous regions.

Targets of the investigation have included members of the Politburo and the Politburo Standing Committee, the Vice Chairman of the Chinese Communist Party Central Military Commission, a CMC member and former defense minister, a former head of the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department’s Health Division, members of central and local Political and Legal Affairs Committees, agents of the 610 Office, transplant doctors in military and civilian hospitals all over China and an organ broker. Below are some examples.

Bai Shuzhong, former head of the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department Health Division

On September 30, 2014, Bai Shuzhong, former head of the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department Health Division, was asked questions by a WOIPFG representative who assumed the identity of a Party investigator. Bai said that former Communist Party leader Jiang Zemin had ordered the harvesting of organs from Falun Gong practitioners and that it was not limited to the military.

Bai served in this role from 1998 to 2004. As the top officer leading core institutions of the military health system, he would have been the main person responsible for conveying instructions to implement this extermination policy.

**Investigator:** When you were head of the health division for the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department, regarding taking organs from the detained Falun Gong people for organ transplantation, was it an order from Wang Ke, then-director of the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department? Or did it directly come from the Central Military Commission?

**Bai:** Back then, it was Chairman Jiang … There was an instruction … to carry out this thing, that is, organ transplantation …, Chairman Jiang had an instruction that said this… about people selling kidneys for transplant surgeries. Thus, I should say, it was not just the military that was doing kidney transplants.

**Investigator:** We also obtained some intelligence, that is to say, back then, the Joint Logistics Departments [of the Military Regions] had detained a number of Falun Gong people as live “organs”, is that true?

**Bai:** This, this is back then, ah. I think, at least this is how I remembered, because back then after Chairman Jiang issued instructions, we all did a lot of work against the Falun Gong practitioners.

**Investigator:** You guys [the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department] and the Joint Logistics Department No. 1, Joint Logistics Department No. 2, including the Joint Logistics Department No. 4 subdivision, and the military hospitals they were in charge of, do you have a supervisory relationship with them?
Bai: We directly control the military medical universities. They are directly affiliated with the People’s Liberation Army General Logistics Department, and they received repeated orders, because Jiang paid a lot of attention to this matter back then and put a lot of emphasis on this matter … Jiang, when he was in the position, put a lot of emphasis, he gave instruction on this.

Chen Qiang, Organ Liaison at People’s Liberation Army Hospital No. 307

In Fengtai, Beijing, Chen Qiang, a kidney source liaison at the People’s Liberation Army Hospital No. 307, provided further evidence that many Falun Gong practitioners who went to appeal to the central government were secretly detained. They were given code numbers in the system and became living organ sources.1076

The following is an excerpt of the recorded dialogue between Chen Qiang and an investigator who was under the guise of a relative of a patient looking for organs (April 10, 2007, 3:09-3:28am EDT).

Investigator: …by the way, how could you be so sure he [the source] was a Falun Gong practitioner? Did you find out for sure?

Chen: How to identify a Falun Gong practitioner? Well, when the time comes, then our side, our boss will have people showing you information. You can be sure. We have connections with government officials. There are connections to high-ranking officials. I will show you such material even if you don't ask me for it.

Investigator: I heard from others that, several years ago, the Falun Gong practitioners did not disclose their names after they were taken away. There are quite many of this type.

Chen: What you said was what happened in 2003. I understand what you said. Those who didn’t provide their names were in the 2003 records. You need to find them from the 2003 archival records.

Investigator: Were there many in 2003?

Chen: Oh yes. In 2003 records, there were many Falun Gong people.

Investigator: You know that several years ago, they secretly detained many Falun Gong practitioners who went to appeal but did not provide their names. There were no records, no registrations.

Chen: Yes, this is quite normal. If Falun Gong practitioners did not give their names, they would be given a code. If their names couldn’t be identified, there would be their code numbers. Also, one can be tracked by fingerprints. That’s how the source can be tracked. Nowadays in our society, especially for these types of matters…like our boss, like the connections to the detention centers, I cannot say casually. We have close relationships with them. Since we are engaging in this business, we have our people in each and every department. How can you get things done if we don’t have our connections? This thing is just like a supply line, you know?
Chinese Communist Party Officials

WOIPFG investigated a number of Politburo Standing Committee members, a vice chairman of the Chinese Communist Party Central Military Commission, and a Central Military Commission member.¹⁰⁷⁷

**Li Changchun, Politburo Standing Committee member¹⁰⁷⁸**

On April 17, 2012, Li Changchun, a Politburo Standing Committee member, was asked by an investigator who assumed the identity of the chief secretary of Luo Dan about “the use of organs from detained Falun Gong practitioners for organ transplants and possible conviction of Bo Xilai for doing that.” Li replied, “Zhou Yongkang is in charge of this specifically. He knows this.”

**Liang Guanglie, former Secretary of Defense¹⁰⁷⁹**

Between May 4 and May 10, 2012, Liang Guanglie, former Secretary of Defense, former People’s Liberation Army Chief of Staff, and member of the Central Military Commission, was investigated by WOIPFG during a visit to the United States. The investigator assumed the identity of a member of special group investigating Wang Lijun.

Regarding the use of Falun Gong practitioners’ organs for transplants by Class 3A military hospitals, Liang replied, “I’ve heard about it ...I did not take care of that thing. I was in charge of military affairs, instead of the logistics and medically related [affairs].” When asked about this, he stated, “it was discussed” during a Central Military Commission meeting.

**Wei Jianrong, official of the Central Political and Legal Affairs Committee¹⁰⁸⁰**

In September 2008, Wei Jianrong, former deputy director of the Central Political and Legal Affairs Committee, stated that organ harvesting from detained Falun Gong practitioners had “happened a long time ago.” The investigator had assumed the identity of an official of the Ministry of State Security.

**Tang Junjie, official of the Liaoning Political and Legal Affairs Committee¹⁰⁸¹**

In April 2012, when answering an investigator's question on “what kind of directions or commands did Bo Xilai give regarding organ removal from Falun Gong practitioners?” Tang Junjie, former Deputy Party Secretary of the Liaoning Political and Legal Affairs Committee, said, “I was asked to take care of this task. The Party’s central [leadership] is actually taking care of this. The impact was quite big...” He added, “At that time, it was mainly discussed during the meetings within the [Politburo] Standing Committee.”

During this investigation, the WOIPFG investigator assumed the identity of a member of the Bo Xilai special investigation group under the Party’s Central Committee for Discipline Inspection.
Chapter IX. Latest Developments and Implications

The European Parliament and the U.S. Congress passed resolutions (2013/2981(RSP) and H.Res.343 respectively) condemning China’s “systematic, state-sanctioned organ harvesting from non-consenting prisoners of conscience.” International academic and professional societies have imposed embargoes on research from China on ethical grounds. Israel, Spain, Italy, and Taiwan have criminalized transplant tourism to China for the purpose of obtaining illicitly sourced organs.

In response to international condemnation, the representatives of China’s transplant industry have repeatedly promised reform and announced in January 2015 that they have stopped using illicit organs for transplants. They presented ambitious blueprints for an ethical transplant framework at high-profile conferences and led international experts on tours of a few transplant centers. China’s seemingly overnight transition to ethical organ sources has been endorsed and even promoted by some international organizations, who have hailed its system as a model for other regions. Many academic institutions and companies have renewed their collaboration with the Chinese transplant industry.

However, new evidence, including on-site investigations by a major Korean TV station, reveals that organ sources remain abundantly available, transplant hospitals continue to perform transplants at full capacity on a scale far greater than China’s official figures indicate, and foreigners continue to travel to China for organs in large numbers despite official statements that transplants for foreign patients have been strictly forbidden and discontinued.

China has begun the global expansion of its “Chinese model,” an organ donation and transplantation system that, in reality, relies on the killing of innocents.

I. 2017 On-Site Investigation Found Thriving Transplant Tourism to China

The Ministry of Health issued a ban on organ tourism to China in 2007 in “Notice No.110 [2007]: Notice of the General Office of the Ministry of Health on the Issues concerning the Application by an Overseas Person for Human Organ Transplantation;” hospitals found to be in violation would have their transplant qualifications suspended. Huang Jiefu stated both in China and abroad, “China strictly limits organ tourism.” “Since 2016, there has not been a single foreigner coming to China for transplant tourism. The data released by international agencies match the ones we gave.” However, an on-site investigation by South Korea’s TV Chosun in 2017 showed a steady stream of international patients receiving organs at one of the largest transplant centers in China.

On October 23 and 24, 2017, investigative reporters from TV Chosun visited the Oriental Organ Transplant Center (OOTC) at Tianjin Central Hospital. It later broadcast its one-hour documentary on transplant tourism to China.
According to TV Chosun, South Korea has 32,000 patients waiting for liver and kidney transplants each year. Only 10% of them can receive transplants in South Korea, and most die while waiting for a new organ. The median wait time for a kidney transplant there is five years. Since the year 2000, many South Korean patients have flocked to China, where they buy organs at high cost with waiting times quoted in weeks. There are eight transplant hospitals in China often chosen by Korean patients for this purpose. For example, Tianjin Central Hospital admits about 1,000 transplant patients from South Korea each year.

A map in the hospital lobby indicates that its International Medical Center occupies a significant portion of two buildings used specifically for transplantation.

**Table: Building and floor map at Tianjin Central Hospital**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Building A</th>
<th>Building B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14th floor</td>
<td>Equipment Floor</td>
<td>14th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13th floor</td>
<td>Recovery Room</td>
<td>13th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th floor</td>
<td>ICU For Transplant Dept.</td>
<td>12th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th floor</td>
<td>Organ Transplant Center</td>
<td>11th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th floor</td>
<td>International Medical Center Special Wards</td>
<td>10th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th floor</td>
<td>Organ Transplant Center</td>
<td>8th floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th floor</td>
<td>Organ Transplant Center</td>
<td>7th floor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure. Map of the Oriental Organ Transplant Center (OOTC) in the lobby at Tianjin Central Hospital in October 2017**

The reporters visited Tianjin Central Hospital posing as a potential patient’s relative. A nurse of Korean ethnicity responsible for the reception and orientation of Korean transplant patients said, “Our transplant center runs a large-scale operation and has a lot of patients,” so it “still conducts transplants for foreigners.”
She showed that in addition to its international transplant wards, the hospital has prepared hotel-style wards specifically for foreign patients; the 16th floor in a nearby hotel specifically accommodated Korean patients and their relatives. She also showed the largest patient room and introduced the patient as a Middle Easterner, whose transplant costs would be paid directly by his country’s embassy, adding that there have recently been more patients from the Middle East than from South Korea.

The nurse revealed that the international transplant department “did 3 kidney transplants [including one combined kidney-pancreas transplant] and 4 liver transplants yesterday. One of the patients waited for two weeks. One patient who had a combined kidney-pancreas transplant waited more than a week. Another one waited for fifty days.”

As analyzed in an earlier case study, this center has more than 500 transplant beds and utilization rates of greater than 130%. The relative size of its international and domestic transplant facilities, external hotel capacity, the number of transplants reported by the nurse, and operating room utilization observed by journalists together suggest that the center continues to perform at its full capacity of more than 8,000 transplants per year.

Below is a recorded dialogue between an attending physician in charge of kidney transplants and the reporter regarding waiting times and ways to expedite a transplant:

Doctor: Some people need to wait for a week. Some people can get the surgery in less than two days. There are also ones who wait for a long time, say a month, a month and a half. Some faster ones took only a week or a few days. If you want to arrange the surgery faster, you need to donate to our foundation. That is to say: to expedite the surgery, you need to make an extra donation on top of the regular cost.

Reporter: How much is needed?

Doctor: 100,000 RMB (about 15 million won or $13,000 USD)

Reporter: How much is the regular cost for the operation?

Doctor: A kidney transplant is 120 million to 140 million won (about 900,000 RMB or $120,000 USD). I’ll tell the dean you want to make extra donation above the regular charge. If the dean agrees, we can speed it up.

Reporter: Since we’re doing the surgery, can you choose an organ from a young person?

Nurse: We don’t use organs from the elderly. We will also choose in the patient’s interest. It’s all like that—[we] all want good, young organs. Nobody wants elderly people’s organs.

The reporters observed that the operating rooms were busy at all hours of the day. Even late into the night, groups of medical staff took turns performing transplant surgeries one after another. This on-site investigation showed that the hospital still conducts organ transplants at full capacity.
II. Breaking Through Constraints

Demand Outstripping Capacity

Millions of patients in China need organ transplants each year. In 2017 alone, there were two million end-stage renal disease patients. In addition to a surge of transplant tourism from other countries (see “Continued Growth Despite Exposure”), the past decade has seen a building boom among transplant hospitals, with medical teams routinely performing transplants around the clock. However, the increased capacity of transplant centers still cannot meet the demand, driving high bed utilization rates and transplant volumes.

For example, a People’s Daily Online report on January 20, 2011, stated, “In a ward at the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University, where Zheng Shusen is located, currently lay more than 50 patients in urgent need of liver transplants … At the Tianjin First Central Hospital’s Oriental Organ Transplant Center, there are no fewer than a thousand late-stage liver disease patients registered on the waiting list for liver transplants…”

The Third Xiangya Hospital of Central South University had over 1,000 people waiting for an organ in November 2012. As of 2013, the No. 309 Hospital’s PLA Organ Transplant Research Institute had 5,000 to 6,000 patients waiting for transplants each year. The First Affiliated Hospital of Xi’an Jiaotong University also had over 1,000 patients waiting for transplants in April 2015.

As of January 2018, the West China Hospital of Sichuan University had 1,700 patients waiting for kidney transplants. The hospital began performing incompatible blood type kidney transplants in 2014, shortening the wait time for a subset of patients.

Case Study: Transplants Centers with 100-200% Bed Utilization

Figure: Tianjin Medical University General Hospital
The Tianjin Medical University General Hospital performed Tianjin’s first, and China’s second, intestinal transplant in 1995. It was among the earliest to start performing allogeneic liver transplants. Its lung cancer surgery department is subordinate to the Tianjin Lung Transplant Center. By the 1980s, its urologic surgery department had already performed 90 kidney transplants. It was also the first in Tianjin to carry out clinical heart transplants. In the 1950s, its ophthalmology department became one of the first in China to begin conducting corneal transplants.

Despite the expansion of its facilities, the hospital’s website showed that its organ transplant programs continued to operate over capacity as of 2016:

- Its organ transplant research institute, which conducted liver, small intestine, and other abdominal organ transplants, had 208 beds and averaged a 115% utilization rate.
- Its lung cancer surgery department includes the Tianjin Lung Transplant Center, which had 110 beds for its professional clinical team and admitted an average of over 160 inpatients per month.
- Its urologic surgery department conducted kidney transplants, had 96 beds, and admitted up to 150 inpatients per month.
- Its ophthalmology center carried out corneal transplants, had 42 beds, and admitted more than 100 inpatients each month on average.

Limiting Factors for Transplant Volume

Huang Jiefu addressed the limiting factors of organ transplantation in China during a televised interview on January 12, 2015:

“The first is an economic reason. A transplant surgery is very expensive, and not many citizens can afford the medical costs. The second is that even though we have such well-qualified hospitals, there aren’t that many experienced and skilled doctors. Only the third is that there are not that many donor bodies; even though donor bodies are abundant right now, there aren’t that many hospitals and that many doctors that can [perform transplants].”

Additionally, in December 2016, Huang indicated that China’s organ donation and transplantation system faced three challenges:

First: “Medical insurance has not fully covered the cost of an organ transplant. So they raised a proposal at the National People’s Congress, and now kidney transplants are listed under severe illness, which is covered by medical insurance.”

Second: “Right now, China only has 169 approved transplant hospitals, and there are far from enough transplant surgeons.” Huang said that the number of transplant hospitals should be increased to at least 300 to 500.”

Third: “The United States has more than 1,500 people managing organ donation and transplantation, while China’s NHFPC has only one or two part-timers.”

Huang’s statements above indicate that the availability of organs is not the main limitation facing China's transplantation industry.
Case Study: 10 Free Liver Transplants

Between June 1 and June 30, 2017, Jilin Travel Radio and the Liver Transplant Center of the First Bethune Hospital of Jilin University held a joint promotion, offering free liver transplants for the first ten children to register, waiving more than 100,000 RMB in surgery fees.105

The registration staff confirmed that there were abundant liver sources available and that those who fall within the screening criteria could get a transplant operation at any time.

Director Zhang Haiyu of pediatric surgery explained, “We have an especially large number of donations after cardiac death (DCD), very many on the adult side, so we’re doing them for children for a while.”

However, Mr. Liu of the organ donation office of the Jilin Province Red Cross said that the liver sources did not come from the Red Cross donation system. Meanwhile, the registration staff for free liver transplants at the radio station said, “As for the source of the livers…even if you go to the hospital and spend two hundred million yuan, it’s impossible to know the source of your liver, because this must be kept secret.”

The abundance of organs can also be seen in the following examples of the Chinese regime’s push to export organ sources and promote China’s transplantation model to markets outside of China.

In December 2014, Huang Jiefu went to Taiwan to propose the establishment of a “cross-strait organ exchange platform” to export human organs from the mainland to Taiwan, such that “patients would no longer need to travel from Taiwan to mainland China to undergo transplants.”106

During a conference held in Guangzhou on August 22-23, 2015 by China’s Organ Procurement Organization Alliance, Huang Jiefu promoted China’s organ transplantation to the world in a Bloomberg interview, stating, “… The future transplant costs in China will still be the cheapest and most accessible in the world, and [the transplants will be] of high quality.”107
Ambitious Plans for Growth

To overcome the infrastructure bottleneck, Huang Jiefu told *Beijing Youth Daily* in October 2015 that he wanted to increase the number of qualified transplant hospitals from 169 to 300 and train 400 to 500 young doctors.1108 *China Daily* later reported on May 15, 2016, that according to Huang, “China will increase the number of hospitals conducting organ transplants to 300 in the next five years.”1109

In January 2017, Huang estimated that China would perform 15,000 to 16,000 organ transplant surgeries in 2017, a figure that exceeds the previous official figure of 10,000 by 50-60%. His current figure of a 1:2 supply-to-demand ratio is 15 times that of the previously announced ratio of 1:30. Huang said, “We're currently short of doctors, short of hospitals, short of coordinators … We're calling for growth [from 169] to 300 to 500 hospitals.”1110

The NHFPC announced in June 2017 that the number of approved transplant hospitals had increased to 173. It later became 178 in February 2018.1111 Huang repeatedly expressed a desire to further increase the number of qualified transplant hospitals to 190 by the end of 2017, with the hope to reach 300 within a few years.1112

China declared that it has stopped using organs from executed death-row prisoners and that civilian organ donation has become its sole source for transplants since 2015. However, the high bed and staff utilization, continued expansion of existing transplant centers, abundant organs (even provided for free and/or exported to other countries or regions), and plans to qualify so many new transplant hospitals all indicate that the industry has developed with an abundance of not only demand but also organ supply since the year 2000. In addition, such ongoing expansion demonstrates confidence that this abundance of organs will continue into the foreseeable future.

V. Global Impact

China at the Vatican Summit on Anti-Organ Trafficking

As stated by Huang Jiefu, high-profile international events have allowed China to demonstrate its “Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation to the world. As a result, China has not only re-entered the global arena of organ transplantation but is also using the so-called reform of its transplant system to enhance its future as a political power.1113

Huang told *Phoenix Satellite Television*, a Hong Kong-based station authorized to broadcast in mainland China, how he was invited to a summit on organ trafficking sponsored by the Pontifical Academy of Sciences in February 2017:1114

“By 2015, China’s use of organs from prisoners had become the most prominent issue in the transplant field. China’s announcement that it would end this practice attracted international attention…A former mayor of Rome was a liver transplant doctor. He and the representatives of the Declaration of Istanbul Custodian Group (DICG) went to see the Pope and told him about China’s major reform. Our citizen donation [program] cleared up the doubt by the international community—We did more than 13,000
organ transplants last year and became the second biggest country in transplantation. I received the Pope’s congratulations through the DICG.”

“The Pontifical Academy of Sciences originally had a position on the issue, and if we didn’t participate in the summit, it would have become another opportunity to condemn China. It was because we attended that the situation changed.” The program’s commentator remarked that in recent years, the Vatican and mainland China have eagerly signaled a desire to improve relations. This summit was interpreted by many media outlets as “a step forward in breaking the ice between China and the Vatican.”

Huang presented a blueprint of the “Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation, which the Academy’s chancellor promoted as one that could be used all over the world, especially in Asia. The model also received endorsements from representatives of the World Health Organization (WHO) and the DICG, who suggested that China would now take a leadership role in the development of organ transplantation worldwide.

An Associated Press report in February 2017 highlighted a heated exchange at the Vatican summit, where Huang Jiefu “sought to assure the international medical community that China was ‘mending its ways’ after declaring an end to the prisoner harvesting program in 2015.” Participants challenged China “to allow independent scrutiny to ensure it is no longer using organs from executed prisoners, saying Chinese assurances aren’t enough to prove the transplant program has been reformed.” In response, Huang “[showed] only two slides indicating an increased number of living and deceased donors in recent years and China’s recent efforts to crack down on black market transplant activities.”

Dr. Jacob Lavee, President of the Israel Society of Transplantation, insisted that the WHO be allowed to conduct surprise inspections and interview donor relatives in China: “As long as there is no accountability for what took place ... there can be no guarantee for ethical reform.”

The report asserted, “It’s unclear how effective a WHO organ trafficking task force would be, given that the U.N. agency is completely reliant on countries to provide health information and statistics and rarely collects or independently verifies data provided by governments.”

“China has long been criticized for its lack of transparency in public health ... WHO, now run by China’s Dr. Margaret Chan, has largely refrained from criticizing the country’s efforts and has endorsed its organ transplant reform process.”

Huang Jiefu told domestic media that the Ministry of Health had issued a notice in 2009 to forbid transplant hospitals from carrying out transplants for foreigners. Huang publicized at the Vatican summit that from 2007 to 2016, China shut down 32 transplant tourism agencies and investigated 18 medical institutions. As a result, 174 people were charged, convicted and sentenced, including 50 medical personnel. In fact, these were only scapegoats that the Chinese regime found after these institutions were exposed by domestic and overseas media, such as CITNAC in the section “Hiding and Falsification of Data.”

Despite the “sheer impossibility” of controlling China’s transplant activity, as Wang Haibo stressed at the summit, China has allowed organ transplants to be conducted without any independent regulatory oversight for over 18 years. When challenged, China proposed at the Vatican meeting that the World Health Organization form a global task force to help crack down on illicit organ trafficking.
First Open House at a Chinese Transplant Center

Photos from the hospital’s website:

“Experts participated in a donor registration-themed activity held by the China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation.”

The 2017 Chinese Transplant Congress was held in Kunming in August. As China was “honestly opening a window” to its transplantation system, Huang Jiefu invited nine international transplantation experts to tour the Calmette International Hospital at the Kunming First People's Hospital. They included José Ramon Núñez Peña, the medical director of the World Health Organization’s organ donation and transplantation program; Nancy Ascher, President of The Transplantation Society (TTS); Francis Delmonico, former president of TTS; Marcelo Sánchez Sorondo, Chancellor of the Pontifical Academy of Sciences; and Campbell Fraser, a member of the Declaration of Istanbul Custodian Group.\(^{1120}\)

The nine experts watched as donor organs were transported to the hospital by helicopter and sent to the operating theater through a “green passage.” They visited an Organ Procurement Organization office, a reception area for families of organ donors, and equipment storage rooms. They were also introduced to the hospital’s process of organ procurement, allocation, and transplantation. This was the first time China had opened a transplant hospital to international experts, who would experience “the Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation.\(^{1121}\)

While the experts were awed by the showcase of China’s amazing progress in organ donation, they might never have imagined that the entire province averaged only 47 voluntary organ donations per year, which could not even supply the organs used by this one hospital.
This 1,100-bed hospital officially opened in 2016 and is the north portion of Kunming First People's Hospital, which began to conduct organ transplants in 2006. It has a national-level kidney transplant center, a liver transplant center, and China’s third OPO. It was assigned to represent China at the 13th Congress of the International Society for Organ Donation and Procurement in 2015. Even though it holds qualifications for liver and kidney transplants, its hepatobiliary and pancreatic surgery department and Calmette’s No.2 Hepatobiliary and Pancreatic Surgery Department have both started performing liver, kidney, heart, lung, pancreas, kidney-pancreas, corneal, and other types of transplants.
Sixteen organ transplants (10 heart, liver, and kidney and 6 corneal) were performed at Calmette between 8:00 am on October 19, 2016 and the early morning of the 20th. About 140 medical personnel directly participated in the transplant surgeries.

The hospital stated that the organs came from three donors, including a 4-year-old and a 7-year-old. It also stated that having this many voluntary donors simultaneously was unprecedented.1125

In March 2017, the hospital invited personnel from the Oklahoma Transplant Center in the United States and Beijing Anzhen Hospital to perform 15 transplant surgeries in 24 hours.1126

As discussed earlier, in July 2007 (a year after China’s organ crimes attracted international scrutiny), the Kunming Kidney Disease Hospital in the same city referred to itself as “an organ transplant hospital that has donors seeking matched recipients.” and promised, “in case of failure, [to] continue to perform transplants until one is successful.” This hospital is a division of the Organ Transplant Center of Yunnan Province,1127 while Calmette Hospital serves as the Liver Transplant Research Institute of Yunnan Province. 1128

Yunnan Province had a population of 47.7 million in 2016. However, as of April 2017, the province had only 900 registered organ donors and 187 actual donors. The Yunnan Red Cross Party Secretary and Deputy President Dong Hechun said that organ donation had grown quickly since the province began its donation work in 2013.1129 The entire province averaged 47 donations per year.

Expansion of the “Chinese Mode” of Transplantation

In February 2016, Huang Jiefu, He Xiaoshun, Wang Haibo, and others held two symposiums on the “establishment of the organ transplant system in China” at Macau’s health bureau and the Macau Science Center with the city’s Life Sciences Ethics Committee, Medical Committee, members of the Legislative Council, and doctors.1130

Huang said that Macau had a complete medical system while China could
perform large numbers of various kinds of organ transplant surgeries. He wanted to add Macau, Hong Kong, and Taiwan to China Organ Transplant Response System (COTRS) and set a goal for China to become the top country for transplants in both quantity and quality within three to five years. Huang mentioned that Macau Chief Executive Fernando Chui Sai On expressed that he wanted to see organ transplantation blossom everywhere in Macau during his tenure.\textsuperscript{1131}

Lee Chin-run, president of the medical committee, quoted Chinese scholars that residents of Macau, Hong Kong, and Taiwan could already register for organs through COTRS.\textsuperscript{1132}

In November 2017, the China Organ Transplantation Development Foundation (COTDF) signed an organ sharing and allocation agreement with the Macau health bureau and claimed that the arrangement would significantly alleviate the organ shortage in Macau. Training for medical personnel in Macau under the “Chinese mode” of organ donation and transplantation began in January 2018.\textsuperscript{1133}

In December 2017, Wang Haibo, the director of COTRS, stated that a total of 519 Hong Kong residents and 50 Macau residents had received organ transplants in mainland China as part of COTRS between 2010 and the end of 2017.\textsuperscript{1134}

Organs are being exported from the mainland through COTRS, COTDF, and government cooperation so that “patients would no longer need to travel from abroad to mainland China to undergo transplants.”\textsuperscript{1135}

These expansion plans are not limited to Macau, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. At the 2017 Chinese Transplant Conference in Kunming, Huang presented organ transplantation as part of China’s “One Belt, One Road” initiative. The “One Belt, One Road Initiative” aims to strengthen economic and political ties between China and other parts of Asia, Europe, East Africa, and Oceania.\textsuperscript{1136}

China is also expanding its influence beyond the “One Belt, One Road Initiative”.

In May 2016, the Tahoe Investment Group, which has donated 100 million RMB to the COTDF, signed a cooperative agreement with the U.S.-based Partners HealthCare International to build high-end hospitals in Tongzhou District in Beijing. In November 2017, the Tahoe Group signed a memorandum of strategic cooperation with the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center (UPMC) to import UPMC’s leading technology and strength in oncology, organ transplantation, and other subjects. In 2017, Tahoe expanded its presence in high-end markets overseas by acquiring Alliance Healthcare Services, a medical services provider in partnerships with over 1,100 hospitals and healthcare providers in the United States. The Tahoe Group announced in the beginning of 2017 that it would invest 50 billion RMB in the medical field, even at the cost of using profits from real estate.\textsuperscript{1137}
As analyzed above, China’s donation system does not function in practice, and the vast majority of organs are not sourced from this system. Nevertheless, the publicity generated by Chinese presenters and endorsement by the Vatican and representatives of other prominent organizations have created the impression among the international community that unethical organ procurement in China has ended and that the “Chinese mode” is a panacea for the transplant field. According to Chinese state media, “[Huang Jiefu said] the difference in the Chinese model from that of the West is that China is the only country where a central government plays a leading role in developing organ donations and transplants.”

Chinese state-run media widely reported the praise by international experts of its transplantation system. Margaret Chan, former Director-General of the World Health Organization, said that the “Chinese mode” of donation and transplantation can serve as an example for other countries. TTS President Nancy Ascher saw strong government engagement as one of the most important factors in the “Chinese mode” and said, “China is well on its way to instituting changes that will make it the world's global leader in organ donation.”

Marcelo Sánchez Sorondo, the chancellor of the Pontifical Academies of Sciences, reportedly said, “It is the great hope that China could be a model for all the countries, especially those in Asia and the Pacific region.”

Francis Delmonico, an Academician of the Pontifical Academy of Sciences, former TTS president, and consultant to the World Health Organization on organ donation and transplantation, reportedly said that as more people donate their organs and the use of organs from executed prisoners is stopped, the questions and rumors about China’s organ transplant field are dispelled.

José Núñez, the medical director of the World Health Organization’s organ donation and transplantation program, said, “International transplantation is like a boat, and for many years, China was swimming outside of the boat.” According to the Chinese state-run Global Times, he said, “now the boat, with China jumping on board, is moving faster than ever before.” The People’s Daily quoted him as saying, “China’s efforts are leading the boat’s way.”

Campbell Fraser, a member of the Declaration of Istanbul Custodian Group, said, “China has shown us that it is equipped to be a global leader, and the world should not fear that.”

Some governments and institutions outside of China have renewed their collaboration with Chinese government agencies and transplant institutions. The Transplant Society has invited Wang Haibo, the director of COTRS, and Zheng Shusen, whose paper was retracted by Liver International due to ethical concerns, as featured speakers at its 2018 conference. As featured speakers at its 2018 conference.

Given that most organs sourced for transplants in China continue to be taken from prisoners of conscience who are killed in the process, China’s expansion of influence of its donation and transplant system and organ sharing agreements to other parts of Asia, “One Belt, One Road” regions, and beyond, as well as the desire of international organizations to adopt this model, have far-reaching implications for the world.
I. Non-Approved Hospitals That Continued to Perform Transplants and Were Later Admitted into the DCD Pilot Program

Below are hospitals that did not receive permits from the Ministry of Health in 2007 but continued to perform organ transplants. We list 75 hospitals that fit this category and were later admitted into a pilot program for donations after cardiac death (DCD) starting in 2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City/Province</th>
<th>Medical Institution</th>
<th>Transplant Type(s)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tianjin 1149</td>
<td>Tianjin Third Central Hospital</td>
<td>liver, kidney</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second Hospital Affiliated to Tianjin Medical University</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hebei 1150 1151</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hebei Province People’s Hospital</td>
<td>liver, lung</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University</td>
<td>kidney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The No.1 Affiliated Hospital of Hebei North University</td>
<td>kidney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The First Hospital of Shijiazhuang</td>
<td>liver, kidney</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changzhou People’s Hospital</td>
<td>kidney</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xingtai People’s Hospital</td>
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<td>Tangshan Worker’s Hospital</td>
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<td>Kailuan Group Company Limited Hospital</td>
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<td>Inner Mongolia 1152</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affiliated Zhongshan Hospital of Dalian University</td>
<td>liver, kidney</td>
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<td>Hubei Armed Police Corps Hospital</td>
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<td>Yichang Central People's Hospital</td>
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<td>Guangdong 1163 1164</td>
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<td>The Children’s Hospital of Chongqing Medical University</td>
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<td>Chongqing Fuling Central Hospital</td>
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</table>

** Hospitals that have received Ministry approval for DCD transplants after the pilot program
II. Public Bed Count Data for Transplant Centers Approved by the Ministry of Health

Below is a table of all kidney and/or liver transplant hospitals for which we have bed count data for dedicated transplant departments and/or urology and hepatobiliary departments known to perform transplants. These institutions are divided into those that are known to have dedicated transplant departments and those that are not.

This data set is what we were able to gather from publicly available information. Due to the lack of transparency and the hospitals’ actively deleting such data online, we likely have not discovered all dedicated transplant centers these hospitals operate or their true scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Natl/Rgnl</th>
<th>Hospital Name</th>
<th>Transplant Types Approved</th>
<th>Transplant Dept. Dedicated Beds</th>
<th>Urology Non-Dedicated Beds</th>
<th>Hepatobiliary Non-Dedicated Beds</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>First Affiliated Hospital of PLA General Hospital (PLA No. 304 Hospital)</td>
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<td>60(^{1170})</td>
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<td>122(^{1171})</td>
<td>67(^{1172})</td>
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<td>100(^{1174})</td>
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<td>50(^{1176})</td>
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<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Xiangya Hospital of Central South University</td>
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<td>90(^{1184})</td>
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<td>N</td>
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<td>N</td>
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<td>84(^{1190})</td>
<td>162(^{1191})</td>
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<td>Natl/Rgnl</td>
<td>Hospital Name</td>
<td>Transplant Types Approved</td>
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<td>Urology Non-Dedicated Beds</td>
<td>Hepatobiliary Non-Dedicated Beds</td>
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Natl/Rgnl: National Level Transplant Hospital /Regional Level Transplant Hospital

* This bed count has been falsified, refer to Case Study: A Small Hospital’s Leap
## Hospitals Without Dedicated Transplant Centers

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<tr>
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<th>Hospital Name</th>
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<th>Urology Non-Dedicated Beds</th>
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<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>First Affiliated Hospital of Guiyang Medical University</td>
<td>liver, kidney, pancreas, small intestine</td>
<td>120(^{1414})</td>
<td>120(^{1415})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Fujian Provinicial Hospital</td>
<td>kidney, liver</td>
<td>50(^{1416})</td>
<td>47(^{1417})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natl/Rgnl</td>
<td>Hospital Name</td>
<td>Transplant Types Approved</td>
<td>Transplant Dept. Dedicated Beds</td>
<td>Urology Non-Dedicated Beds</td>
<td>Hepatobiliary Non-Dedicated Beds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>First Hospital of Shanxi Medical University</td>
<td>kidney, liver</td>
<td>130\textsuperscript{1418}</td>
<td>140\textsuperscript{1419}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Anhui Provincial Hospital</td>
<td>liver, kidney, heart, lung, pancreas, small intestine</td>
<td>100\textsuperscript{1420}</td>
<td>28\textsuperscript{1421}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>First Affiliated Hospital of Chongqing Medical University</td>
<td>liver, kidney, pancreas, small intestine</td>
<td>156\textsuperscript{1422}</td>
<td>150\textsuperscript{1423}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>First Hospital of Jilin University</td>
<td>liver, kidney</td>
<td>79\textsuperscript{1424}</td>
<td>178\textsuperscript{1425}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>First Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University</td>
<td>liver, kidney, lung, pancreas, small intestine</td>
<td>157\textsuperscript{1426}</td>
<td>249\textsuperscript{1427}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Gansu Provincial Hospital</td>
<td>kidney, liver</td>
<td>105\textsuperscript{1428}</td>
<td>300\textsuperscript{1429}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Nanjing First Hospital (Nanjing Hospital Affiliated with Nanjing Medical University)</td>
<td>heart</td>
<td>65\textsuperscript{1430}</td>
<td>72\textsuperscript{1431}</td>
<td>(Cardiac surgery beds)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Natl/Rgnl: National Level/Regional Level

* Our hospital analysis indicates that the bed counts marked with asterisks have been deflated (see case studies in the section “Deflated Bed Counts”).
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中山大学第三附属医院肝脏移植中心

Third Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University
http://www.baike.com/wiki/%E4%B8%AD%E5%B1%B1%E5%A4%A7%E5%AC%AC%E4%B8%89%E9%99%84%E5%B1%9E%E5%8C%BB%E9%99%A2
http://archive.is/4enTt
中山大学第三附属医院 互动百科

Department of Organ Transplantation, Shanghai Changzheng Hospital Affiliated with Second Military Medical University
第二军医大学附属上海长征医院器官移植科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Shanghai Changzheng Hospital Affiliated with Second Military Medical University
第二军医大学附属上海长征医院泌尿外科

Department of Liver Surgery, Shanghai Changzheng Hospital Affiliated with Second Military Medical University
第二军医大学附属上海长征医院肝脏外科

Organ Transplantation Center, Third Xiangya Hospital of Central South University
https://wenku.baidu.com/view/1604a3de710abb68a98271fe910ef12d2af9a978.html?re=view
http://archive.is/0J8QQ
移植中心工会小组模范职工小家事迹材料

Department of Urologic Surgery, Third Xiangya Hospital of Central South University
http://shfw.xy3yy.com/dwk/mnwk/
中南大学湘雅三医院泌尿外科 125 张床位（含 30 张肾移植）

Department of Hepatic Surgery, Third Xiangya Hospital of Central South University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r0Fy0C9LuzYTE0KoUjVxxD-aCU22Ut.htm
http://archive.is/0havL
中南大学湘雅三医院肝胆胰外科

Organ Transplantation Departments(Heart/Liver/Kidney), Jiangsu Province Hospital
http://archive.is/JLweq
江苏省人民医院（肝移植、肾移植、心肺联合移植）

Department of Urologic Surgery, Jiangsu Province Hospital
http://www.jsph.org.cn/col/col942/index.html This page has been removed, archive available at:
http://archive.is/s64wV
江苏省人民医院泌尿外科
1225 Jiangsu Province Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r0Fy0C9LuSWTWCmlxENztMuLDQvLT1/jieshao.htm
http://archive.is/R8wL6
江苏省人民医院普外科肝胆中心

1226 Step Into Famous Specialist Center: The Organ Transplant Center, People's Liberation Army No. 309 Hospital
http://news.163.com/12/0228/08/7RBB0E3C00014JB5_all.html
http://archive.is/M70LD
走进全军知名专科中心：解放军第309医院器官移植中心(93张)

1227 Tianjin First Central Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLUnz79SkhlkqlNLVW/jieshao.htm
http://archive.is/FdVx4
天津市第一中心医院器官移植中心

1228 Jinan Military District 107 Central Hospital, Source: Yantai Red Cross Society
http://archive.is/lbFjq
试点医院介绍—济南军区107中心医院 来源：烟台市红十字会

1229 Jinan Military District 107 Central Hospital, Source: Yantai Red Cross Society
http://archive.is/lbFjq
试点医院介绍—济南军区107中心医院 来源：烟台市红十字会

1230 Department of Surgery-Organ Transplantation, Liaocheng People's Hospital
http://www.lchospital.cn/keshi/linchuang/waike/gandan/jianjie.html
http://archive.is/cHOeN
聊城市人民医院肝移植外科

1231 Department of Urologic Surgery, Liaocheng People's Hospital
http://www.lchospital.cn/keshi/linchuang/waike/miniao/jianjie.html
http://archive.is/cxyX4
聊城市人民医院泌尿外科

1232 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Liaocheng People's Hospital
https://archive.is/IyUpa
聊城市人民医院肝胆外科

1233 Liver Transplantation, First Hospital of Lanzhou University
兰州大学第一医院 肝移植

1234 First Hospital of Lanzhou University
http://www.ldyy.net.cn/keshiArticle.aspx?Id=1814
兰州大学第一医院 泌尿外科专业

1235 Department of General Surgery(Liver transplant included), First Hospital of Lanzhou University
兰州大学第一医院普通外科（做肝移植）
Liver Transplantation Center, First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical University
安徽医科大学第一附属医院肝移植中心

Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical University
https://archive.is/bvH2e
安徽医科大学第一附属医院泌尿外科

Department of Kidney Transplantation( Included in the Kidney Diagnostic Center),
First Affiliated Hospital of Henan University of Traditional Chinese Medicine
http://z.xywy.com/yyuankeshijieshao-hnzhzy-shenyizhike.htm
https://archive.is/mg4Sp
河南中医药大学第一附属医院肾移植科介绍

Department of Kidney Transplantation, Kidney Diagnostic Center,
First Affiliated Hospital of Henan University of Traditional Chinese Medicine
河南中医药大学第一附属医院肾病诊疗中心泌尿外科肾移植科

Organ Transplant Center, PLA Second Artillery General Hospital
http://www.epzyy.cn/Hospitals/ResearchTechnologyClinicals/Detail/199
This page has been removed, archive available at http://archive.is/yu2RG
第二炮兵总医院器官移植中心

Department of Urologic Surgery, PLA Second Artillery General Hospital
http://www.epzyy.cn/Html/Departments/Main/Detail_18.html
http://archive.is/lIQKT
中国解放军第二炮兵总医院(中国人民解放军火箭军总医院) 泌尿外科

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, PLA Second Artillery General Hospital
http://www.epzyy.cn/Html/Departments/Main/Detail_61.html
http://archive.is/lbxVw
中国解放军第二炮兵总医院(中国人民解放军火箭军总医院) 肝胆外科

Department of Organ Transplantation, First Affiliated Hospital of Nanchang University
http://www.cdyfy.com/ksjs/ksjs.asp?kscode1=0208
This page has been removed, archive available at https://web.archive.org/web/20160125060010/http://www.cdyfy.com/ksjs/ksjs.asp?kscode1=0208
南昌大学第一附属器官移植科

Department of Hematology-Section One, Second Hospital of Dalian Medical University
http://www.shdmu.com/detail.php?id=972
大连医科大学附属器官移植中心技术团队

Department of Urologic Surgery, Second Hospital of Dalian Medical University
https://www.google.com.au/search?q=%E6%B3%8C%E5%B0%BF%E5%8E%9F%E6%9D%A5%E7%9A%8434%E5%BC%A0%E5%8A%A4%E4%BD%8D%E6%89%A9%E5%9B%8B%E9%88%80%E5%BC%A0%E5%8A%A4&ie=UTF-8
archive.is/amWxo
大连二院泌尿外科进入微创时代
Department of General Surgery, Second Hospital of Dalian Medical University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLBTLYFZu58TyeNG77jieshao.htm
大连医科大学附属二院普通外科

Kidney Transplantation Center, No. 281 Hospital of Beijing Military Region
解放军 281 医院肾脏移植中心

No. 281 Hospital of Beijing Military Region
解放军 281 医院全军肾病治疗中心

Dongfeng General Hospital
东风总医院器官移植乳腺外科

Brief Introduction to the Department of Urologic Surgery at Dongfeng General Hospital
Source: Dongfeng General Hospital
http://archive.is/UE8Mc
东风公司总医院泌尿外科简介 来源：东风总医院官网

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Dongfeng General Hospital
http://archive.is/5c8dF
东风总医院肝胆外科

Department of kidney Transplantation, Shaanxi Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.spph-sx.com/info/1241/3718.htm
陕西省人民医院肾移植科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Shaanxi Provincial People's Hospital
陕西省人民医院泌尿外科

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Shaanxi Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.spph-sx.com/info/1205/3661.htm
陕西省人民医院肝胆外科

Department of Urologic Surgery, PLA No. 463 Hospital
http://archive.is/pLRDE
中国人民解放军第 463 医院泌尿外科

Department of Surgery, No. 463 Hospital of Shenyang Military Region
http://archive.is/318
中国人民解放军第 463 医院外科
1257 Department of Kidney Transplantation and Nephrology at Zhengzhou No. 7 People's Hospital – Latest Activity
https://archive.is/Srlbv
郑州市第七人民医院肾移植肾内科 科室动态

1258 The Department of Organ Transplantation, the First Affiliated Hospital of Kunming Medical University
http://www.ydyy.cn/DepartmentDetail-9.aspx This page has been removed, archive available at
昆明医科大学第一附属医院器官移植科

1259 Department of Nephropathy and Rheumatology, Affiliated Hospital of Zunyi Medical College
遵义医学院附属医院肾病风湿科

1260 Department of Urologic Surgery, Affiliated Hospital of Zunyi Medical College
https://archive.is/xHgu9
遵义医学院附属医院泌尿外科

1261 Department of Hepatopancreatobiliary Surgery, Affiliated Hospital of Zunyi Medical College
遵义医学院附属医院肝胆胰外科

1262 Department of Urologic Surgery, No. 401 Hospital of Jinan Military Command
http://mingyi.qingdaonews.com/content/2012-11/13/content_9489208.htm
https://archive.is/izpaI
解放军第401医院泌尿外科特色－青岛新闻网

1263 Blood Purification Center of Organ Transplantation, No. 474 Hospital of Lanzhou Military Command
https://archive.is/lzryu
中国人民解放军第474医院 器官移植血液净化中心

1264 The Second Center of Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, PLA No. 302 Hospital
http://www.302hospital.com/z.php?id=1038
解放军302医院 肝胆外科二中心

1265 Department of Urologic Surgery, Changhai Hospital Affiliated with Second Military Medical University
This page has been removed, archive available at https://archive.is/HMDZP
第二军医大学附属长海医院 泌尿外科

1266 Organ Transplantation Center, Sichuan Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.samsph.com/qgyzzx_intro/409/1/
http://archive.is/AFG35
四川省人民医院器官移植中心

1267 Urology Surgery Department of No. 81 Hospital of the Chinese People's Liberation Army
http://dpt54269.d.81yy.com/intro.php
http://archive.is/OeQkA
中国人民解放军第八一医院泌尿外科
Centers for Liver Disease, Transplantation and Tumor, No. 81 Hospital of Nanjing Military Region
http://archive.is/AQzFL
http://archive.is/yswz1

Organ Transplantation Center, Zhengzhou People's Hospital
http://www.zzrmyy.com/art_news_1821.aspx

Department of Urologic Surgery, Zhongnan Hospital of Wuhan University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLUOz4FLPQrVFGoqUr/jieshao.htm
武漢大學中南醫院泌尿外科

Institute of Hepatobiliary Disease/Medical Transplant Center, Zhongnan Hospital of Wuhan University
http://www.znhospital.com:8580/DoctorDetail.aspx?did=28 This page has been removed, archive available at http://archive.is/xIAwW
武汉大学中南医院移植医学中心/肝胆疾病研究院

Eastern Hepatobiliary Hospital Affiliated with Second Military Medical University
http://www.smmu.edu.cn/09/52/c183a2386/page.htm
第二军医大学东方肝胆外科医院

Kidney Disease Center, No. 117 Hospital of Nanjing Military Command
http://old.120.net/keshi/4c626cxi2h3kf468.html
http://web.archive.org/web/20180517211941/http://old.120.net/keshi/4c626cxi2h3kf468.html
中国人民解放军第 117 医院肾病科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Jinan Military Region 153 Hospital
http://www.wendaifu.com/findhospital/keshi/id/48645.html
济南军区第 153 医院泌尿外科－问大夫网站

Department of Kidney Transplantation, Nanfang Hospital of Southern Medical University
http://www.nfyy.com/ks/ew/syzk/ksjy/a_101556.html https://archive.is/vLn8d
南方医科大学南方医院肾移植科

Southern Medical University
http://www.dxy.cn/bbs/thread/37951832#37951832
南方医科大学南方医院复试流程贴

Department of Urologic Surgery, No. 303 Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command
https://jiuyi.ewsos.com/yiyuan/keshi/MiNiaoWaiKe706055
http://archive.is/iK4tq
中国人民解放军 303 医院泌尿外科

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Southwest Hospital, affiliated with the Third Military Medical University
第三军医大学西南医院肝胆外科简介
1279 Department of Urologic Surgery, Department of Kidney Disease, Chengdu Military General Hospital
http://www.xn91.com/Depart/Desc/16
成都军区总医院泌尿外科
http://www.xn91.com/Depart/Desc/25
成都军区总医院肾脏病科

1280 Ward of Hepatobiliary Disease and Internal Medicine-GI, Chengdu Military General Hospital
http://www.xn91.com/Depart/Details/18
成都军区总医院全军普外中心-肝脏病区
http://www.xn91.com/Depart/Desc/27
成都军区总医院消化内科（全军肝脏中心）

1281 Can the First People’s Hospital in Yueyang Conduct Kidney Transplants?
https://iask.sina.com.cn/b/iRCwCTQu33LD.html
岳阳市一人民医院能做肾移植吗？

1282 Liver and kidney transplant, Peking University People’s Hospital
北京人民医院泌尿外科

1283 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery/General Surgery Center(actually is referring to Liver Transplant Center, Beijing Youan Hospital
北京佑安医院肝胆外科
http://archive.is/wbYnc#selection-2133.66-2133.72
北京佑安医院普通外科中心即肝移植中心

1284 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University
http://www.hosp1.ac.cn/wyy/web/ksts/leks.aspx?ksmc=%B8%CE%B5%A8%CD%E2%BF%C6
温州医科大学附属第一医院泌尿外科

1285 Department of Urological Surgery, Linyi People's Hospital
http://www.ql120.com/HOS/OfficeView.aspx?ID=429
临沂市人民医院泌尿外科

1286 Department of Urologic Surgery, Second Hospital of University of South China
南华大学附属第二医院泌尿外科

1287 Department of Urologic Surgery First People's Hospital of Changde
常德市第一人民医院泌尿外科
1288 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery First People’s Hospital of Changde  
http://archive.is/LI7ud  
常德市第一人民医院肝胆外科

1289 The Liver Transplant Center, Third Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University  
http://www.zssy.com.cn/Home/Detail/GanZangWaiKe?colType=10&colID=10145&pageIndex=1  
https://archive.is/I1wit  
中山大学附属第三医院肝脏移植中心

1290 Brief Introduction to the Department of Urologic Surgery at Guangdong General Hospital  
https://archive.is/YSVpE  
广东省人民医院泌尿外科简介

1291 Brief Introduction to the Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery at Guangdong General Hospital  
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLUmQ17Bfmw7E-sStj/jieshao.htm  
http://archive.is/E1dfR  
广东省人民医院肝胆外科

1292 Department of Urologic Surgery(Team of Kidney Transplantation included), First Affiliated Hospital of Jinan University  
http://h.jd120.com/Reserve/Organ/0117  
https://archive.is/6FQjZ  
暨南大学附属第一医院泌尿外科

1293 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Guangxi Medical University  
http://www.gxmu.com/index.php?m=content&c=index&a=lists&catid=296  
广西医科大学第一附属医院肝胆外科

1294 Department of Urologic Surgery, Third People's Hospital of Datong City  
http://www.sxws.cn/UnitWeb/Web/dt3y/ImportSectionDisplay1.aspx?SectionImportID=441  
http://archive.is/gxZtW  
大同市三医院泌尿外科

1295 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Third People's Hospital of Datong City  
http://www.sxws.cn/UnitWeb/Web/dt3y/SectionDisp.aspx?SectionID=24285&UnitID=33794  
http://archive.is/qYBAS  
大同市三医院肝胆外科

1296 Kidney Transplant Center, Armed Police Corps Hospital of Shaanxi  
http://archive.is/Eo2XB  
武警陕西省总队医院肾脏移植中心

1297 Wang Jialing’s Team  
https://www.guahao.com/eteam/1719  
王家林专家团队

1298 Department of Urologic Surgery, General Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command  
https://jiuyi.ewsos.com/yiyuan/keshijieshao-MiNiaoWaiKe434382  
广州军区总医院泌尿外科

1299 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, General Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command
http://www.alyisheng.com/keshi/2178/3582/faculty1.shtml

广州军区总医院肝胆外科

1300 Department of Organ Transplantation, Second Affiliated Hospital of Guangzhou Medical University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLPtmx2rpF9fQsVXYf/jieshao.htm
http://web.archive.org/web/20180518014414/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLPtmx2rpF9fQsVXYf/jieshao.htm

广州医科大学附属第二医院

1301 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Second Affiliated Hospital of Guangzhou Medical University

广州医科大学附属第二医院肝胆外科

1302 Department of Urologic Surgery, Xinhua Hospital Affiliated with Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine

上海医科大学附属新华医院泌尿外科

1303 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Soochow University
http://yyk.39.net/hospital/29637_lab.html

苏州大学附属第一医院泌尿外科

1304 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, First People's Hospital of Changzhou
http://www.czfph.com/ksdhnr.asp?id=43
https://archive.is/mU85C

常州市第一人民医院肝胆外科

1305 Department of Urologic Surgery, Air Force General Hospital
http://www.kj-hospital.com/ny.asp?id=197
https://archive.is/ECSF4

空军总医院泌尿外科(展开床位 70 张)

1306 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Air Force General Hospital
https://archive.is/2UKPN

空军总医院泌肝胆外科

1307 Department of Urologic Surgery, Beijing Chaoyang Hospital

北京朝阳医院泌尿外科

1308 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Beijing Chaoyang Hospital

北京朝阳医院肝胆外科

1309 Department of Urologic Surgery, Xinqiao Hospital, Affiliated with Third Military Medical University
http://13075.hos.999120.net/hospital/Department.aspx?DepartmentID=10046978
Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Xinqiao Hospital, Affiliated with Third Military Medical University
http://13075.hos.999120.net/hospital/Department.aspx?DepartmentID=10046978
第三军医大学新桥医院泌尿外科

Department of Urologic Surgery Peking Union Medical College Hospital
北京协和医院泌尿外科

Department of Internal Medicine-Kidney Disease, Peking Union Medical College Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4roiYGYZw0haOyZJ9SvRJb8/jieshao.htm
北京协和医院肾脏内科(52 beds)

Department of Hepatic Surgery Peking Union Medical College Hospital
http://www.pumch.cn/Category_691/Index.aspx
北京市协和医院肝脏外科(床位28张)

Treatment Center of General Surgery, Shandong Qianfoshan Hospital
http://yyk.39.net/hospital/35214_lab.html
山东省千佛山医院普通外科治疗中心（普外科）

Department of Urologic Surgery, Yantai Yu Huangding Hospital
http://www.ytyhdyy.com/products_list/&pmcId=54.html
烟台毓璜顶医院泌尿外科

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Second Ward of Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Fuzhou General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command
南京军区福州总医院肝胆外科
1319 Department of Urologic Surgery, Xijing Hospital Affiliated with Fourth Military Medical University
http://xjwww.fmmu.edu.cn/ksweb/mnwk/
第四军医大学西京医院泌尿外科

1320 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Xijing Hospital Affiliated with Fourth Military Medical University
http://xjwww.fmmu.edu.cn/ksweb/gdwk/
第四军医大学西京医院肝胆外科

1321 Department of Urologic Surgery, Beijing Friendship Hospital
http://www.bfh.com.cn/Html/Departments/Main/Index_150.html
首都医科大学附属北京友谊医院泌尿外科

1322 Department of General Surgery, Beijing Friendship Hospital
http://www.bfh.com.cn/Html/Departments/Main/Index_151.html
首都医科大学附属北京友谊医院普外科

1323 Department of Urologic Surgery, Peking University Third Hospital
http://www.puh3.net.cn/mnwk/ksjj/index.shtml
北京大学第三医院泌尿外科

1324 Department of General Surgery, Peking University Third Hospital
http://www.puh3.net.cn/ptwk/ksjj/index.shtml
北京大学第三医院普通外科(做肝移植)

1325 Department of Urologic Surgery, Daping Hospital Affiliated with of Third Military Medical University
http://www.dph-fsi.com/ks_2009/default_wk.asp?ks_id=26 This page has been removed, available at:
第三军医大学附属大坪医院泌尿外科

1326 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Daping Hospital Affiliated with of Third Military Medical University
http://www.yongyao.net/blog4/00002642.html
第三军医大学附属大坪医院肝胆外科

1327 Introduction to the Urology Research Institute of Peking University First Hospital (Source: Peking University First Hospital website Peking University First Hospital)
http://www.bddyyy.com.cn/ksyl/ysjs/mnw/20091202/2741.shtml This page has been removed, available at:
北大第一医院－北京大学泌尿外科研究所介绍.来源：北大第一医院

1328 Department of General Surgery-Section of Liver Transplantation, Peking University First Hospital
http://bbs.netbig.com/thread-2666972-1-1.html
北京大学第一医院外科肝脏移植专业组
1339 Department of Urologic Surgery, Huashan Hospital of Fudan University
http://www.huashan.org.cn/roomcontent/276
http://archive.is/zo9Td
上海复旦大学华山医院泌尿外科

1340 Department of General Surgery( Organ Transplant Institute included) Huashan Hospital of Fudan University
http://www.huashan.org.cn/phone/roomcontent/301
上海复旦大学中山医院普外科

1341 The Department of Urologic Surgery, Henan Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.hnsrmyy.net/OfficesDescription.aspx?id=24 This page has been removed, available at:
https://archive.is/b0H2c
河南省人民医院泌尿外科

1342 Department of Hepatopancreatobiliary Surgery (Liver Transplant Ward included), Henan Provincial People's Hospital
http://archive.is/ArQp
肝胆胰腺外科

1343 Department of Urologic Surgery(Section of Kidney Transplant included), Shanghai General Hospital
http://www.firsthospital.cn/Content/Detail/c179/d114
http://archive.is/IU09Z
上海第一人民医院泌尿外科

1344 Department of General Surgery( Organ Transplant Center included), Shanghai General Hospital
http://www.firsthospital.cn/Content/News/6106
上海第一人民医院普外科（器官移植中心）

1345 Department of General Surgery, Rui Jin Hospital of Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine
http://faculty.179e.com/shrjwk
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519042425/http://faculty.179e.com/shrjwk
上海第二医科大学附属瑞金医院普外科

1346 Department of Kidney Transplantation at the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhengzhou University
http://fcc.zzu.edu.cn/newsss/vmsgisapi.dll/vonefun?fun=3a_s&id=8235
http://archive.is/mhK3P
郑州大学第一附属医院肾移植科

1347 Department of Hepatopancreatobiliary Surgery and Department of Liver Transplant, First Affiliated Hospital of Zhengzhou University
http://fcc.zzu.edu.cn/newsss/vmsgisapi.dll/vonefun?fun=3a_s&id=S050
郑州大学第一附属医院肝胆胰与肝移植外科

1348 Kidney Disease Center, First Affiliated Hospital of Medical School of Zhejiang University
http://www.zy91.com/nkxt/491.jhtml
浙江大学医学院附属第一医院肾脏病中心

1349 Kidney Disease Center, First Affiliated Hospital of Medical School of Zhejiang University
http://www.zy91.com/nkxt/491.jhtml
1350  Department of Hepatopancreatobiliary Surgery  and Department of Liver & Pancreas Transplantation, First Affiliated Hospital of Medical School of Zhejiang University
http://www.zy91.com/wkxt/518.jhtml
浙江大学医学院附属第一医院 肝胆胰外科、肝胰移植科

1351  Department of Urologic Surgery, Shandong Provincial Hospital
http://sph.54doctors.net/Html/Departments/Main/Index_282.html
https://archive.is/VhQPW
山东省立医院泌尿外科

1352  Department of General Surgery, Shandong Provincial Hospital
https://archive.is/JA83f
山东省立医院普外科

1353  Department of Urologic Surgery(Kidney Transplant included), People’s Liberation Army No. 301 Hospital (PLA General Hospital)
中国人民解放军总医院(301 医院) 泌尿外科

1354  Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, People’s Liberation Army No. 301 Hospital (PLA General Hospital)
中国人民解放军总医院(301 医院) 肝胆外科

1355  Institute of Nephrology(Kidney transplant included), Nanjing General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command
http://www.njzy666.com/homepage/showinfo/?infoid=6286b211-08bb-4b88-803d-93f69e329f8
南京军区南京总医院肾脏病研究所

1356  Army Institute of General Surgery, Nanjing General Hospital of Nanjing Military Command
http://www.njzy666.com/homepage/showinfo/?infoid=679332f1-20fe-46e3-ac8d-615b6a73a941
南京军区南京总医院普外科研究所

1357  Organ transplantation department included into Jiangxi leading medical discipline construction project list
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoULuj338VVWnC3uh7/jieshao.htm
江西省人民医院普外科

1358  Medical Specialty - Department of Urologic Surgery, the Third Affiliated Hospital of Hebei Medical University
Source: Hospital official website
http://www.cthhmu.com/keshi/guke.php?id=59&classid=41
https://archive.is/vLP33
河北医科大学第三医院领先技术与特色医疗 来源：医院官网

1359  Department of Liver Disease Third Hospital of Hebei Medical University
http://hbvcare.com/1546_ganbinglijiancha_%E6%B2%B3%E5%8C%BB%E7%A7%91%E5%A4%A7%E5%AD%97%E7%AC%AC%E4%B8%89%E5%8C%BB%E9%99%A2%E4%B8%AD%E8%A5%BF%E5%8C%BB%E7%BB%93%E5%90%88%E8%82%9D%E7%97%85%E7%A7%91.html

https://web.archive.org/web/20180519014216/http://hbvcare.com/1546_ganbingjiancha_%E6%B2%B3%E5%8C%97%E5%8C%BB%E7%A7%91%E5%A4%A7%E5%AD%A6%E7%AC%AC%E4%B8%89%E5%8C%BB%E9%99%A2%E4%B8%AD%E8%A5%BF%E5%8C%BB%E7%BB%93%E5%90%88%E8%82%9D%E7%97%97%E7%85%A7%E7%A7%91.html
河北医科大学第三医院中西医结合肝病科

1360 Department of Urologic Surgery, Third Affiliated Hospital of Inner Mongolia Medical College
http://www.nmgfy.com/KsAbout.aspx?id=078997bd-a0d5-4b2d-a12c-09a9b929d164&type=1
内蒙古医学院附属第三医院泌尿外科

1361 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Third Affiliated Hospital of Inner Mongolia Medical College
http://www.nmgfy.com/KsAbout.aspx?id=f21b9bb6-851b-4a5b-98e3-1a1df0b28c75&type=1
内蒙古医学院附属第三医院肝胆外科

1362 Liver Transplantation and Kidney Transplantation Give Life Another Chance
Source: Dalian News Net 2006-09-27
肝移植, 肾移植, 让生命再现朝阳-大连新闻网 2006-09-27

1363 Department of Urologic Surgery, Ansteel Group Hospital
鞍钢集团总医院泌尿外科

1364 Department of General Surgery-Section Three, Ansteel Group Hospital
鞍钢集团总医院 普外三病房

1365 Department of Urologic Surgery -Section One, Second Affiliated Hospital of Harbin Medical University
http://yde.outsource.dbw.cn/Web/KeshiJieShao.aspx?keshi3id=384
哈尔滨医科大学附属第二医院泌尿外科-一病区

1366 Department of Urologic Surgery, Chenzhou No.1 People's Hospital
郴州市第一人民医院泌尿外科

1367 Department of Urologic Surgery, Kidney Transplantation Center at Yiyang People's Hospital
益阳市中心医院泌尿外科简介

1368 The Organ Transplant Center at Zhongshang People’s Hospital
http://www.zspf.com/Department.action?m=getDept&depSn=148dcfda-0554-4c
中山医院器官移植中心

1369 Brief Introduction to the Hepatobiliary Surgery Department at Zhongshan People’s Hospital
http://www.zspf.com/Department.action?m=getDept&depSn=deb61bc5-0723-46
中山医院肝胆外科简介
1370 Department of Urologic Surgery, PLA No. 458 Hospital (Air Force Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command)
中国人民解放军四五六医院 泌尿外科

1371 Army Liver Disease Center and Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, PLA No. 458 Hospital (Air Force Hospital of Guangzhou Military Command)
https://archive.is/hRWZC 解放军第四五八医院全军肝病中心
https://archive.is/DE5Dn 中国人民解放军四五八医院肝胆外科

1372 Department of Urologic Surgery-Organ Transplantation, Ruikang Hospital Affiliated with Guangxi University of Chinese Medicine
广西中医药大学附属瑞康医院器官移植泌尿外科

1373 Department of Organ Transplantation at First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province
http://www.transplantation.org.cn/ZYunNanSheng1RenMin/2014-01/6947.htm
https://archive.is/oh2Xs 云南省第一人民医院器官移植科

1374 Introduction to Cardiothoracic Surgery Department at First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province
http://www.ypfph.com/deskAction.do?method=news&newsId=4028e5a63343da1701335777a1c80006&flag=
https://archive.is/PCarf 云南省第一人民医院胸心外科简介

1375 Department of Urologic Surgery, Tibet People's Hospital
西藏自治区人民医院泌尿外科

1376 Department of General Surgery, Tibet People's Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r0BCkuHzduSNZXCej6dZX-ciU9/jieshao.htm
西藏自治区人民医院普外科

1377 Urologic Surgery Center, Lanzhou General Hospital of Lanzhou Military Region, Source: China.com, 2012-01-17
http://news.china.com.cn/rollnews/2012-01/17/content_12315137.htm
http://archive.is/lGbS9 兰州军区总医院泌尿外科中心 2012-01-17 来源：人民网

1378 Department of Urologic Surgery Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region People's Hospital
http://20032899.hos.999120.net/hospital/Department.aspx?DepartmentID=10056505
宁夏回族自治区人民医院泌尿外科 http://www.nxrmyy.com/keshidaohang/waikezixun/miniaowaike/

1379 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region People's Hospital
http://www.nxrmyy.com/keshidaohang/waikezixun/gandanwaike/
宁夏回族自治区人民医院肝胆外科

1380 Department of Urology at the Affiliated Hospital of Ningxia Medical University
https://archive.is/Zeabt
1381 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery at the Affiliated Hospital of Ningxia Medical University  
宁夏医科大学总医院泌尿外科

1382 Department of Hepatobiliary Vascular Surgery, People’s Hospital of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region  
http://www.xjrmyy.com/3g/d/view.aspx?m_id=7&id=1117  
新疆维吾尔自治区人民医院肝胆外科

1383 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Hospital of Kunming City  
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLuKUzwOLYsexE0YC8/jieshao.htm  
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519025846/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLuKUzwOLYsexE0YC8/jieshao.htm  
昆明市第一人民医院泌尿外科

1384 First Department of Hepatic surgery, First Hospital of Kunming City  
http://www.kmsyrmmy.com/patient_special/2015/w9aA6Bbv.html  
昆明市第一人民医院肝一科

1385 Department of Urologic Surgery, Hainan Provincial Nongken General Hospital  
海南省农垦总医院泌尿外科

1386 Department of General Surgery, Hainan Provincial Nongken General Hospital  
海南省农垦总医院普外科

1387 Department of Urologic Surgery, Urumqi General Hospital of Lanzhou Military Command  
http://z.xywy.com/yiyuankeshijieshao-xjjqzy-miniaowaike.htm  
兰州军区乌鲁木齐总医院泌尿外科

1388 Department of Hepatobiliary & Pancreatic Surgery, Urumqi General Hospital of Lanzhou Military Command  
http://z.xywy.com/yiyuankeshijieshao-xjjqzy-gandanyipiwaike.htm  
兰州军区乌鲁木齐总医院肝胆胰外科

1389 Department of Urologic Surgery, Navy General Hospital  
http://hjmnk.cnkme.com/department  
北京海军总医院泌尿科

1390 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Navy General Hospital  
http://jiankang.cntv.cn/2014/08/08/ARTI1407470958261780.shtml  
北京海军总医院肝胆外科

1391 Department of Urologic Surgery, Qinghai University Affiliated Hospital  
http://www.qhuah.com/keshidaohang/shoushukeshi/mywk/  
青海大学附属医院泌尿外科

Department of Hepatobiliary & Pancreatic Surgery – Section One, Qinghai University Affiliated Hospital
http://www.qhuah.com/keshidaohang/shoushukeshi/gandanyi/

1392

Department of Urologic Surgery, Tai’An City Central Hospital
https://archive.is/bYpCU

泰安市中心医院泌尿外科

Department of General Surgery, Tai’An City Central Hospital

泰安市中心医院普外科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Shanxi Provincial People’s Hospital
http://www.sxsrmyy.com/ksjs/ksindex.asp?ksbh=8aoWaiKe449177 This webpage has been removed, available at:
http://www.sxsrmyy.com/ksjs/ksindex.asp?ksbh=8

山东省人民医院泌尿外科

Department of General Surgery–Section One and Section Two, Shanxi Provincial People’s Hospital
http://www.sxsrmyy.com/ss/tindex.asp?id=1459

山东省人民医院普外科二病区

Department of Urologic Surgery, 307th Hospital of Chinese People’s Liberation Army
http://www.bj-doctor.cn/keshi/11246.html

解放军 307 医院泌尿外科

Department of General Surgery, 307th Hospital of Chinese People’s Liberation Army
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLVwpkDECGGbOLb9BQ.htm
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519032206/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLVwpkDECGGbOLb9BQ.htm

解放军 307 医院普外科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Weifang People’s Hospital

潍坊市人民医院泌尿外科

This webpage has been removed, available at: https://archive.is/2bx3Y

Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Weifang People’s Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLBDkBxc5-zTRBJvHg/jieshao.htm
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519032405/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLBDkBxc5-zTRBJvHg/jieshao.htm

潍坊市人民医院肝胆外科

Department of Urologic Surgery, Qinghai Provincial People’s Hospital
http://www.qhsmryy.com/section/sections.asp?id=5&search=&page=

青海省人民医院泌尿外科

Department of General Surgery, Qinghai Provincial People’s Hospital
http://www.qhsmryy.com/section/sections.asp?id=7&search=&page=
http://archive.is/AniVq

青海省人民医院普外科
1403 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Harbin Medical University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLUOz6vlfmwe7E-sSJlj/jieshao.htm
哈尔滨医科大学第一附属医院泌尿外科

1404 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Xiamen University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnJuji3KCctdxdDa/jieshao.htm
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519033600/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnJuji3KCctdxdDa/jieshao.htm
厦门大学附属第一医院泌尿外科

1405 Department of Hepatobiliary & Pancreatic Surgery and Vascular Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Xiamen University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnJ8-pF9fQsVXYld/jieshao.htm
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519033804/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnJ8-pF9fQsVXYld/jieshao.htm
厦门大学附属第一医院肝胆胰血管外科

1406 Introduction to Nephrology Department of the Affiliated Hospital of the Medical College of Chinese People's Nephrology Department Source: Medical Network / Medical guide
http://jiuyi.ewsos.com/yiyuan/keshijieshao-ShenBingKe459960
https://archive.is/A6T5C
武警后勤学院附属医院-肾病科简　来源:医网 / 就医指南

1407 Department of General Surgery, Affiliated Hospital of Logistics University of People's Armed Police Force
http://wapyyk.39.net/hospital/41629_lab.html
武警后勤学院附属医院普外科

1408 Department of Urologic Surgery, Second Hospital of Hebei Medical University
http://www.hb2h.com/extranet/pages/slogan/info.htm?id=7728&ccid=21&currentPage=1
河北医科大学第二医院泌尿外科

1409 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Second Hospital of Hebei Medical University
http://www.hb2h.com/extranet/dept/deptIndex.htm?id=19
河北医科大学第二医院肝胆外科

1410 Clinical Medical Center of the Department of Urologic Surgery, Lanzhou University Second Hospital
http://www.ldey.cn/Category_1298/Index.aspx
兰州大学第二医院泌尿外科临床医学中心

1411 The First Section of the Department of General Surgery(liver transplant included), Lanzhou University Second Hospital
http://www.ldey.cn/Category_1208/Index.aspx
兰州大学第二医院普外一科（肝胆外科和肝移植科）

1412 Department of Urologic Surgery, Guizhou Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.5055.cn/Category_236/Index.aspx
贵州省人民医院泌尿外科

1413 Department of Hepatobiliary & Pancreatic Surgery, Guizhou Provincial People's Hospital
http://www.5055.cn/Category_342/Index.aspx


1414 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Guizhou Medical University
https://archive.is/MKS7H
贵州省人民医院泌尿外科

1415 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Guiyang Medical University
https://archive.is/POI1D
贵州医科大学附属医院肝胆外科

1416 Department of Urologic Surgery, Fujian Provincial Hospital
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLU1jrTQigKEL-rP/jieshao.htm
福建省医院泌尿外科

1417 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, Fujian Provincial Hospital
www.fjsl.com.cn/Html/Depart/D07.htm This webpage has been removed, available at: https://web.archive.org/web/20180519034418/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4rO-XCoLU1jr5svXs477TZMZ31t/jieshao.htm
福建省医院肝胆外科

1418 National Key Development Program in Clinical Medicine – Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Shanxi Medical University – Source: Hospital official website
http://www.sydyy.net.cn/News_View.asp?NewsID=3374&lm=80&lm2=107
https://archive.is/G1LJ5
山西医科大学第一医院国家临床重点专科建设项目—泌尿外科（来源：医院官网）

1419 National Key Development Program in Clinical Medicine – Department of General Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Shanxi Medical University. Source: Hospital official website
https://archive.is/nRP3X
山西医科大学第一医院国家临床重点专科建设项目—普通外科（来源：医院官网）

1420 Introduction to the Department of Urological Surgery, the First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical University
https://archive.is/bvH2e
安徽医科大学第一附属医院科室介绍：泌尿外科

1421 Introduction to the Liver Transplant Center, the First Affiliated Hospital of Anhui Medical University
https://archive.is/felRH
安徽医科大学第一附属医院科室介绍：肝移植中心

1422 Department of Urological Surgery, the First Affiliated Hospital of Chongqing Medical University
重庆医科大学附属第一医院泌尿外科

1423 Department of Hepatobiliary Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Chongqing Medical University
重庆医科大学附属第一医院肝胆外科

1424 Department of Urologic Surgery-Section Two, First Hospital of Jilin University. Source: The First Affiliated Hospital of Jilin University official web site
http://jdyy.cn/index.php/keshi/about/id/16.html
1425 Department of Hepatobiliary and Pancreatic Surgery-Section One and Section Two, First Hospital of Jilin University
http://www.gdywk.com/nry.asp?id=1
吉林大学第一医院肝胆胰外一科 (90 Beds)
http://www.jdyygdywk.com/single.asp?gid=1
吉林大学第一医院肝胆胰外二科 (88 Beds)

1426 Department of Urologic Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnzDYsdpUn-8HdJ/jieshao.htm
新疆医科大学第一附属医院泌尿外科

1427 Department of General Surgery, First Affiliated Hospital of Xinjiang Medical University
http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnzT0Zu58TyeNG7/jieshao.htm
https://web.archive.org/web/20180519034659/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLFKnzT0Zu58TyeNG7/jieshao.htm
新疆医科大学第一附属医院普通外科(肝肾移植)

1428 Department of Urologic Surgery, Gansu Provincial Hospital
gsyy.cn/content.aspx?id=766005322649
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甘肃省人民医院泌尿外科:

1429 Department of General Surgery, Gansu Provincial Hospital
gsyy.cn/content.aspx?id=678099120969
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qzrcw.org/109.html
甘肃省人民医院普外科

1430 Department of Urologic Surgery, Nanjing First Hospital
z.xywy.com/yiyuankeshi-njsdyyy-miniaowaike.htm
南京市第一医院泌尿外科

1431 Department of Cardiothoracic Surgery, Nanjing First Hospital (Nanjing Hospital Affiliated with Nanjing Medical University)
haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLPfYvMioBq7c5PLvm/jieshao.htm
web.archive.org/web/20180519034801/http://www.haodf.com/faculty/DE4r08xQdKSLPfYvMioBq7c5PLvm/jieshao.htm
南京市第一医院心胸外科