浩瀚英语

用英语说中国

中国第一部双语百科全书

历史

Talk About China in English

History



田华实 李兆平 主编
[美] Robin Harrison 审校

上海科学普及出版社

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- 制　作：北京浩瀚英语研究所

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前　言

随着我国改革开放的不断向前推进，旅游事业也越来越兴旺发达起来。尤其是近些年来，来自世界各地的客人涌向中国，试图揭开这块辽阔土地的神秘面纱，从而了解中国悠久的历史，以满足其难以诠释的好奇和幻想。

具有悠久而又丰富的历史的中国，一直为自己无数的历史遗迹和文化遗产感到自豪。几乎在中国的每一个地方，人们都能欣赏到神奇的各种景观，以及世代相传的故事和神话。

在中国人民的辛勤努力下，中国在各个方面都发生了翻天覆地的变化。从经济、文化、教育，到生活、娱乐和休闲，人们都在尽情地享受着国泰民安、和谐安睦的生活。国家的建设和发展日新月异，人们的思想、观点、生活方式也有了很大的变化。

在这种形势下，我们觉得有必要给来中国工作和旅游的外国友人——尤其是给那些来参加2008年北京奥运会的各国朋友提供一些帮助，把他们可能感兴趣的事情、人物和地方简单地作一些介绍，让他们对中国有个大致的了解。由此，我们编写了《**用英语说中国**》这套丛书。丛书共有10部，分别是：

1.《**用英语说中国——历史**》

2.《**用英语说中国——民俗**》

3.《**用英语说中国——艺术**》

4.《**用英语说中国——文化**》

5.《**用英语说中国——名城**》

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10.《**用英语说中国——名校**》

《**用英语说中国——历史**》共计20个章节——史前神话、夏朝、商朝、西周、春秋、战国、秦朝、汉朝、三国、晋朝、南北朝、隋朝、唐朝、五代十国、宋朝、元朝、明朝、

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清朝、中华民国和中华人民共和国。本书重点讲述了每一个历史时期的重大政治、经济政策、重大历史事件和主要历史人物及其对中国社会的发展以及全人类的发展所起到的影响和对人类社会的贡献。

参编这套丛书的作者都是来自高等院校的英语教授、副教授和硕士研究生，大家都为能参与此项有意义的工作而感到兴奋和激动，都乐意为宣传中国和振兴中华贡献自己的一份力量。

《用英语说中国》这套丛书从策划到构思，从设计到编写，都是站在较高的角度，本着较新的水准，力求创造性地把中国的上上下下、东西南北、方方面面以简洁流畅的语言加以娓娓叙述。这无疑将给广大读者一种全新的感受。

《用英语说中国》这套丛书对于英语爱好者提高英语水平、激发学习英语兴趣会有所帮助的。丛书信息量庞大，涉及面广泛，古往今来，东南西北，犹如一部关于中国的小百科全书。丛书中的英文叙述和中文译述都严格遵循语言简练、结构明晰、形式活泼的宗旨。我们衷心希望这套丛书能够受到广大读者的喜爱和信赖。把中国介绍给世界，让世界上更多的人了解中国，是每个中国人的愿望。

限于编著者的水平和第一手资料的缺乏，丛书中有些地方的内容和信息可能存在着一些出入和欠缺，恳请广大读者予以批评指正。

《用英语说中国》丛书编者

2008 年 8 月

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Preface

With the rapid development of China's reform and opening-up, tourism is on the rise, esp. in recent years. More and more people from all over the world come to China, hoping to unveil the mystery of the vast land, to discover the origins of the long history in China and to satisfy their own curiosities and fantasies as well.

China, with a long and rich history, is always proud of her countless historical sites and cultural relics. Almost everywhere people encounter amazing miracles or natural beauties together with their everlasting legends and myths.

Furthermore, with the strenuous work of the whole nation, China has witnessed fundamental changes in every field. From national economy, culture and education to people's living standard, recreation and entertainments, everywhere and every soul is enjoying a peaceful and comfortable life in a friendly and harmonious atmosphere. The nation's construction and development are changing with each passing day while people's views and points are also keeping pace with the times.

Under such circumstances, we feel obliged to offer some help to those foreign visitors, esp. those who are coming to the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, by giving them a brief introduction of the things, the people and the places they might be interested in. The series "***Talk About China in English***", therefore, come into being. The series consist of 10 books in all. They are:

1. **Talk About China in English—History**
2. **Talk About China in English—Folklore**
3. **Talk About China in English—Arts**
4. **Talk About China in English—Culture**
5. **Talk About China in English—Famous Cities**
6. **Talk About China in English—Celebrities**
7. **Talk About China in English—Tourism**
8. **Talk About China in English—Media**
9. **Talk About China in English—Sports**
10. **Talk About China in English—Famous Colleges and Universities**

Talk About China in English—History covers twenty sections—Prehistoric Myths, Xia Dynasty, Shang Dynasty, The Western Zhou Dynasty, The Spring and Autumn Period, The Warring States Period, Qin Dynasty, Han Dynasty, Three Kingdoms,

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Jin Dynasty, The Northern and Southern Dynasties, Sui Dynasty, Five Dynasties and Ten States, Song Dynasty, Yuan Dynasty, Ming Dynasty, Qing Dynasty, China Republic and the People's Republic of China. It talks about the important political and economic policies, the important events and persons in each time, and their influences and contribution to the development of human being and the society. The description is clear and simple.

All the writers of the series are professors, associate professors and graduate—students of English from colleges and universities. We all feel happy and proud to have the chance to do our bit for the publicity of our motherland as well as her promotion.

From making plans to hatching plots, from working out schemes to carrying out the writings, the authors have been diligent and conscientious. Through our work, we want to provide readers with a rich and colorful introduction of an encyclopedic manner. The series are new and creative, and sure enough, they will bring fresh feelings and experiences to all readers.

The series are also helpful for all English lovers, including secondary school students and teachers, college students, office clerks and public servants.

Both the English and Chinese versions in the series are written in simple language, clear structure and lively style. We hope they will find popularity upon publication.

We are extremely grateful to the authors and publishers of all the materials we have chosen here in the series. We apologize for the insufficient information in some cases due to lack of resources. We intend to show every respect for intellectual property rights, but we hope our pleading of the permission to use these materials for the purpose of letting more foreign friends know China better will receive kind and generous consideration.

Authors

August 2008

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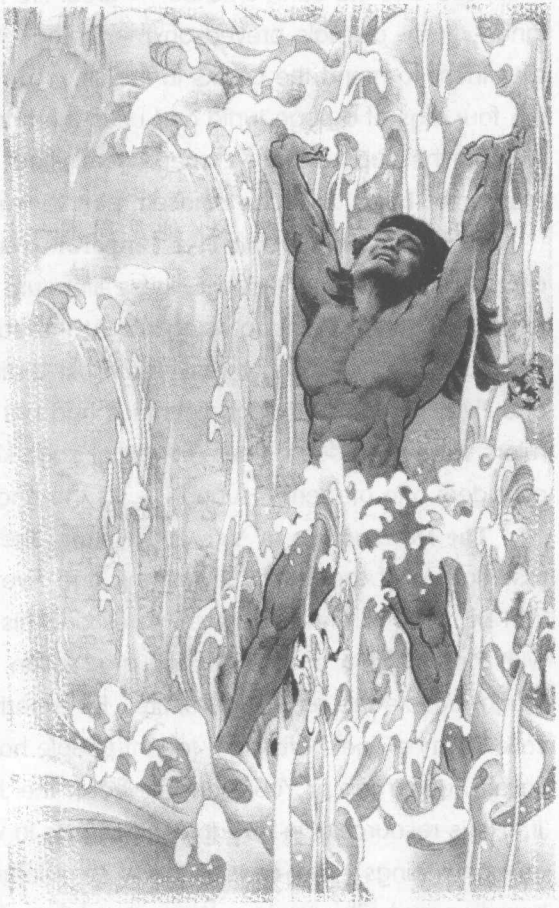
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Chapter 1 史前神话 Prehistoric Myths

Chinese civilization is one of the oldest and most splendid cultures in the world, which dates back to thousands of years ago. Similar to many old civilizations, its early culture is integrated with legends and myths. As described in mythology, Chinese civilization begins with Pangu, the creator of the universe, and Nüwa, the creator of mankind.



Pangu: According to legend, in the beginning of the world, the sky and the earth were not separated, and there was only darkness and chaos. Our ancestor Pangu, a giant, had been born and growing up in it for 108 000 years. One day, he suddenly woke up. Opening the eyes, he found that everything was blurred and invisible. Angrily, he grasped an axe and wielded it with an effort. With a bang, the chaos was split all of a sudden. The light and clear air rose up to the sky, and the heavy and turbid to the earth. After it, Pangu propped up the sky with his head and stepped on the ground with his feet, fearing that they might close. The sky increased its height by 1 *zhang* daily, and the earth sank by 1 *zhang*. Pangu

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grew with it. Thousands of years passed, the heaven and the earth finally separated, but he fell down exhaustedly.

Following his death, his breath turned into the wind and clouds, his voice the thunder; his eyes the sun and the moon. His four limbs and body became the four quadrants of the globe, and his blood the rivers and his muscles and bones the layers of the earth. His flesh became the soil, his hair and furs the stars, flowers and trees. Even his sweat turned into rain and dew. Pangu created the rich and beautiful world with his body.

Nüwa: It is said that there was no man when the sky and the earth were separated by Pangu. It was Nüwa who made human beings after her own model with yellow clay. From then on, man began to live in peace and happiness on the earth. Unexpectedly, one year, the four-pillars supporting the heaven suddenly collapsed and the earth cracked. A great fire raged; torrential water flooded all the lands; fierce animals preyed on men. Then Nüwa melted five-colored stones, using them to mend the cracks in the sky. To replace the broken pillars, she cut off the four legs of a huge turtle and used them to support the fallen sky. Thus the sky was patched up, its four corners were lifted, the flood was tamed, harmful animals were killed, and the innocent people were able to restore their happy lives.

Three Sovereigns and Five Emperors: Much information about the patriarchal commune is documented in Chinese literature, like the "Records of the Grand Historian" and the "Bamboo Annals". At the early stage of it, some excellent chieftains appeared. Among them, the most distinguished ones are Three Sovereigns and Five Emperors. Though countries had not come into being at that time, these rulers were regarded as semi-mythical sage-kings and moral exemplars. Tradition considers one of them, Huang Di, as the ancestor of the Chinese people.

The Descendants of Yan and Huang: Shen Nong and Huang Di were the representatives of the Three Sovereigns and Five Emperors. Shen Nong, also called Yan Di, lived in the Jiang River valley and his surname was Jiang. He is credited with the invention of farming and medication. He invented the wooden plow and taught people the art of agriculture. By experimenting with various plants, he discovered medicinal herbs and taught people how to treat diseases. Huang Di , also called Xuan Yuan or You Xiong, lived in the Ji River valley, and his surname was Ji. He is resourceful in invention as well as in war and is credited with the invention of many things, like carts and boats, clothes, houses, writing, and silkworm breeding and silk weaving. Wars urged the mixture and the assimilation of different

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tribes and eventually formed a tribal alliance of Huang Di and Yan Di; Huang Di became the chief. Tradition has it that Chinese civilization originates from the era of Huang Di and Yan Di, for they are the ancestors of Chinese people, that is why the Chinese call themselves the descendants of Yan and Huang.

Huang Di has been immortalized by the famous battle of Zhu Lu, where he used a compass to locate his chief enemy Chi You and defeated him. Chi You was killed in the battle, and this victory is believed to have prepared the way for a permanent Chinese settlement in the Middle Kingdom.

Abdication: Hundreds of years after Sheng Nong and Huang Di, it is the period of Abdication in Chinese history. At that time, Yao, the chief of the tribal alliance on the central plain, was old, and he selected Shun as his successor after a careful observation. With the consent of all chieftains, Shun was placed to the throne. Following suit, Shun passed the throne to Yu. Abdication is the traditional election system in the time of tribal commune, historically called the Age of Abdication.

Yu the Great and the Flood: Yu is the hero of controlling flood. It is said that in the reign of Yao and Shun, the overrunning flood was mischievous, so Yao assigned Gun to regulate it. Gun failed with embankment and was killed by Shun. Then, Shun recruited Yu, Gun's son, to continue the work. Spending a backbreaking thirteen years and bypassing his house three times but never going in, Yu dredged new river channels as outlets, guiding water to river and river to sea. This not only eliminated the flood, but contributed to the development of agriculture. Yu was revered as Yu the Great for his achievement and selected to succeed to the throne by Shun.

中华文明有数千年历史，是世界上最为古老辉煌的文明之一。与世界上许多古老文明相似，中国早期文明与神话传说难以分割。神话传说中，中华文明起源于于盘古开天辟地、女娲造人。

盘古开天辟地：很早很早以前，天和地还没有分开，宇宙只是混沌一片。人类的老祖宗——盘古是一个巨人，就生长在这混沌之中，一直经过了十万八千年。

有一天，盘古忽然醒了过来睁开眼睛一看，模糊一片，什么都看不见。他非常生气，抓过一把斧子，朝眼前用力一挥。只听一声巨响，混沌一片的东西忽然分开了。一些轻而清的东西，缓缓上升，变成了天；重而浊的东西，慢慢下降，变成了地。天地分开以后，盘古怕它们还要合在一起，就头顶天，脚踩地，随着它们的变化而变化。天每天升高一丈，地每天下沉一丈，盘古也随着增长变化。这样不知过了多少年，天和地逐渐成形了，盘古也累得倒了下去。

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盘古死后，他呼出的气息变成了风和云，发出的声音变成了雷，双眼变成了太阳和月亮，手足和身躯变成了大地的四极和高山，血液变成江河，筋骨变成道路，肌肉变成田地，毛发变成星星和花草树木，就连身上的汗，也变成了雨露和甘霖。人类的老祖宗盘古，用他整个的身体创造了这美丽而丰富的宇宙。

女娲补天造人：盘古开天辟地后，世上本没有人，是女娲按照自己的样子用黄泥塑出了人类。此后，人们便开始在大地上幸福的生活着。天有不测风云，一年，忽然天崩地裂，大火肆虐，洪水滔天，野兽横行伤人。女娲把五彩石融化，再用这些熔化了的液体把天上的洞补好。然后，她又将一只万年巨龟的四足斩下，把它们用作擎天柱，支撑住了天地的四方。就这样，天补好了，四个角撑住了，洪水被驯服，猛兽被消灭，人类的生活又恢复到往日的幸福祥和之中。

三皇五帝：《史记》、《竹书纪年》等中国古文献中记载了许多有关父系氏族社会的情况。在早期父系氏族社会中，出现了一些杰出的部落联盟领袖，其中最著名是“三皇五帝”。虽然当时国家还没有出现，他们并非帝王，但在中国文化传统中，他们被视为圣贤明君。其中的黄帝被视为中华民族的祖先。

炎黄子孙（黄帝子孙）：在“三皇五帝”中最具有代表性的部落联盟领袖是神农和黄帝。神农又称炎帝，居于姜水流域，以姜为姓。他是农业生产和医药的发明者，用木制作耒耜，教人民耕种；又曾尝百草，发现药材，教人治病。黄帝又称轩辕氏、有熊氏，居于姬水流域，以姬为姓。他不但在军事上足智多谋，而且还是个伟大的发明家。人们认为车船、衣服、房子、文字、养蚕织布等都是他发明的。各部落联盟之间的战争催化了部落之间的融合，最终形成了中原地区炎帝、黄帝两大部落联盟的统一，黄帝成为最高领袖。传说中国文明起源于炎帝和黄帝时代，因此“炎帝、黄帝”被奉为中华民族的祖先，这就是现在中国人自称是炎黄子孙的由来。

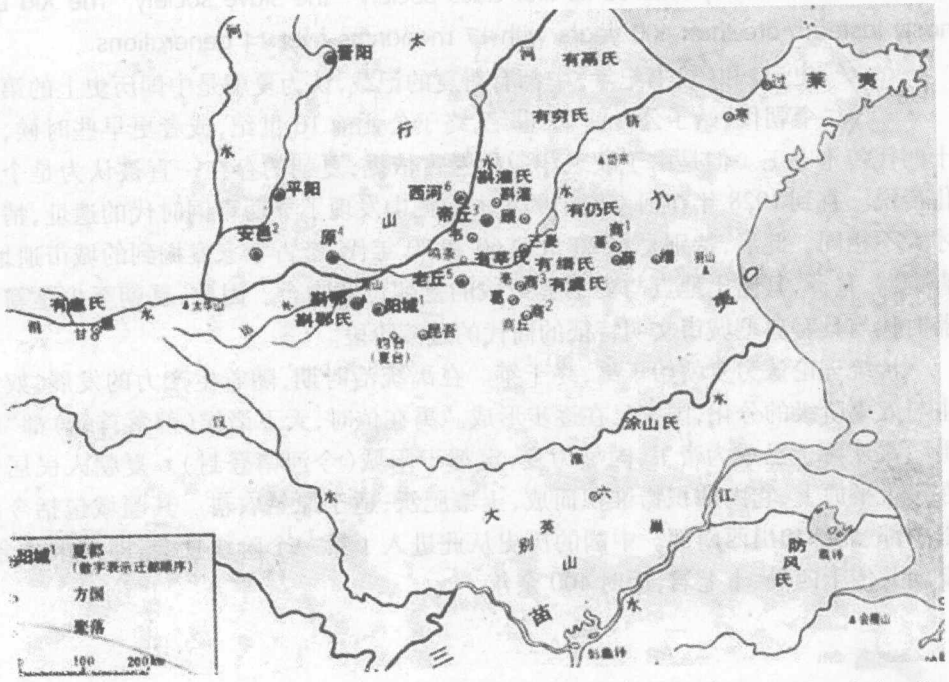
黄帝因涿鹿之战而名垂千古。在作战过程中，他用指南针找到了敌军的首领蚩尤，并击败他，后蚩尤被杀。这场战争的胜利为中华民族定居中原铺平了道路。

部落联盟领袖的禅让制度：神农、黄帝时代数百年之后，是中国历史上的“禅让时代”。当时中原地区部落联盟领袖尧已年老，经过慎重考察，选择舜为继承人，四岳十二牧（部落领袖）同意，尧将部落联盟领袖职务传位给舜。舜老，又得四岳十二牧同意，传位给禹。这种职位禅让的做法乃是氏族公社选举制的传统，史称“禅让时代”。

大禹治水：禹是治水安民的历史英雄人物。尧、舜时期，洪水泛滥为害。尧命夏族首领鲧治洪水。鲧用筑堤防的方法治水无功，为舜杀死。舜又命鲧之子禹治水，禹“居外十三年，过家门不敢入”。用疏导法治水，导小水入于川，导川水致于海。不仅消除了洪水，还为农业生产发展创造了良好条件。禹因有大功于人民，被尊称为“大禹”，并因此被舜选为接班人。

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Chapter 2 夏朝 Xia Dynasty



The Xia Dynasty is the first dynasty depicted in both *Records of the Great Historian* and *Bamboo Annals*, which record the names of seventeen kings over fourteen generations from about the 21st B. C. to the 16th century B. C. or a little earlier to the 16th century B. C.. However, the Xia Dynasty had been considered as a myth for lacking of archaeological evidence till 1928, when scientific excavations were made at early bronze-age sites at Anyang, Henan province. Since then, especially in the 1960s and 1970s, archaeologists have uncovered urban sites, bronze implements, and tombs that point to the existence of Xia civilization in the same locations cited in ancient Chinese historical texts. At minimum, the Xia Dynasty period marked an evolutionary stage between the late Neolithic age

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and the typical Chinese urban civilization of the Shang Dynasty.

The Xia Dynasty is traditionally supposed to begin with Yu the Great and end with the tyrant, Jie. During the reign of Yu, the county had emerged with the development of productivity and the class distinction. All vassals paid tribute to Yu, and he was actually the king. The title of the state was Xia, and the capital was in Yang City (the present Dengfeng in Henan). The Xia people lived on loess plains formed by alluvial deposits suitable for primitive farming. Their territory reached the center and the north of modern Henan and the south and west of Shanxi. Since then, Chinese history entered its first class society—the slave society. The Xia Dynasty lasted more than 400 years with 17 monarchs over 14 generations.

《史记》和《竹书纪年》中都有对夏的记载，认为夏朝是中国历史上的第一个朝代，始于公元前21世纪，终于公元前16世纪，或者更早些时候，经十四代传十七王。但是由于缺乏相应的考古依据，夏朝的存在一直被认为是个神化传说。直到1928年在河南安阳的考古挖掘中发现了早期青铜时代的遗址，情况才大不相同。此后，特别是在20世纪60和70年代，考古学家发掘到的城市遗址、青铜器、墓葬，其出土地点与史书上记载的夏朝位置吻合。因此，夏朝至少是新石器时代与具有典型城市文明特征的商代的过渡阶段。

传统理论认为夏朝始于禹，终于桀。在禹统治时期，随着生产力的发展，奴隶主与奴隶阶级的分化，国家已在逐步形成。禹在位时，天下诸侯(部落首领)都"朝禹"，禹实际上已成为帝王，国号为夏，定都于阳城(今河南登封)。夏朝人民居住在黄土平原上，它由冲积物堆积而成，土壤肥沃，适于原始农耕。其疆域包括今河南中部、北部和山西南部。中国的历史从此进入了第一个阶级社会，即奴隶社会。夏朝共传十四世、十七君，历时400余年。



奴隶制国家的建立
The Foundation of the Slave State

According to the documents, when Yu was old, he selected Bo Yi, a chieftain of Dongyi tribe, as the successor. However, after his death, Qi, the son of Yu, seized the throne, and killed Bo Yi. From then on, the period of Abdication came to an end, while the hereditary monarchy started. Yu of the Xia

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called in all the vassals to the capital Yangzhai to celebrate his inauguration at Juntai in order to get the recognition of them. This indicated that the reign of the Xia had been established. After the succession, Qi wiped out You Hu Shi tribe at the battle of Gan, then won the battle of Xihe and killed Wuguan, which contributed to the consolidation of his reign. Qi finally became the king who had unified the country. The foundation of Xia is a turning point in Chinese history.

For a long time, the knowledge about the Xia had been based on ancient documents for lack of written records from the Xia, including kings, officials, army, penal code and prisons. Nowadays, large-scale palaces, tombs, as well as bronze vessels were excavated at Erlitou Village in Yanshi County Henan Province, which reflect the information on the politics, economy, culture and social life of the Xia Dynasty.

State System: The Xia was built on the ruin of primitive commune system. In the process of its disintegration, the patriarchy began to confront with the commune system, whereas the hereditary kingship and nobility evolved on the base of the patriarchy. All levels of nobles still maintained the original blood relationship, distinguishing surnames strictly. Accordingly, clan relationship was set respectively.

Though followed the old clan system, the agnation focused on the patriarchy, and defined a noble rank and status according to their positions in the family hierarchy and kinship.

State Organs: The Xia is a slave-owning state. The establishment of hereditary monarchy eliminated the function of the tribe as an organization representing the will of its members and taking care of its own affairs. What was emerging instead was a state apparatus on which one class ruling over another. Slave owners evolving from clan nobles were in dominant position and the mass laborers were slaves. The king, also called "Tianzi" (the son of God) had all kinds of officials responsible for various affairs. The Xia Dynasty by then had not only erected city walls, but also established its own army, penal code and prisons. Xiatai was the most notorious one. It is said that Tang, the king of the Shang Dynasty had been incarcerated there.

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奴隶制国家的建立
The Foundation of the Slave State

据文献记载，禹年老时，曾选东夷族的一位首领益为继承人。但禹死后，禹之子启夺得王位，并杀掉益。从此，中国历史上的“禅让时代”结束，王位世袭制开始。为了使世袭王权为众多的诸侯所确认，夏启在都城阳翟召集众多的诸侯，举行盛大的“钧台之享”，这表明夏王朝的统治基础已经完全确定了。启即位后，经过甘之战消灭了有扈氏，又在西河之战中取胜杀掉武观，从而巩固了自己的地位，成了一统天下的天子。夏的建立是中国历史上的转折点。

由于夏朝没有文字直接流传下来，所以，长期以来对其了解还主要依赖古代文献的记载，包括夏朝的国王、官吏、军队以及刑狱情况。现代以来，河南省偃师县（今偃师市）二里头村遗址中大型宫殿、墓葬以及许多青铜器的出土，从一个侧面揭示了作为奴隶制的夏朝的政治、经济及社会文化、生活等等方面的情况。

国家制度：夏朝的国家制度是在原始公社制度的废墟上建立起来的奴隶制度。在原始公社制度解体的过程中，父权家长制家庭成为它的一种对抗力量。而奴隶制国家的世袭王权和世袭贵族，就是以父权家长制家庭为基础逐步发展起来的，各级贵族组织仍然要保持旧的血缘联系，严格区分姓氏。依姓氏的区别建立了各自的宗族关系。

这种宗族关系虽然沿袭了旧的氏族组织的遗制，但实际上是以父权家长制为核心，按其辈分高低和族属亲疏关系来确定各级贵族的等级地位的。

国家机构：夏朝是一个奴隶制国家。世袭贵族制度剔除了部族代表管理内部事务的职能。取而代之的是国家机器的建立，用以实现一个阶级对另一个阶级的统治。奴隶主是由氏族贵族转化而来的，处于统治地位。广大劳动者为奴隶身份。国王亦称天子，其下有“百吏”，掌管朝事。夏朝时不仅建有城墙，还有军队、刑罚和监狱。最著名的监狱叫“夏台”。相传商汤曾被囚于此。

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经济
Economy

Agriculture: In the Xia, lands belonged to the state and the people had to tribute. Since flooding had already been under control and people could settle down, animal husbandry and agriculture developed further.

Handicrafts: The handicraft industry also underwent fair development. Bronze vessels came into use, which symbolized that Chinese history had finished its primitive times and entered a civilized era.



经济
Economy

农业:夏朝实行土地国有制,臣民要向国家纳供。自从洪水得到了控制,人民可以定居下来,畜牧业和农业生产得到了进一步的发展。

手工业:夏朝的手工业已相当发达,开始使用青铜器。青铜器的出现标志着中国历史结束了野蛮时期,进入文明时期。



重大历史事件
Important Historical Events

The Lost of Country by TaiKang: After consolidating the sovereignty, Qi and the nobles began to enslave and exploit the people, and indulge in extravagant lives. When Qi died, Tai Kang succeeded to the throne. Like his father, Tai Kang sought ease and comfort, and did not care for state affairs, therefore the internal

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conflicts intensified and the rebellions occurred continuously. Initially, it was the rebellion of the king's five brothers, then the insurgence of commoners. Hou Yi, known as a good archer from the Youqiong clan of the Eastern Yi, witnessed the multiple conflicts. When Tai Kang went hunting for several months, he took the opportunity to command his troops and capture the capital Anyi (the present-day Anyi County in Shanxi). TaiKang was unexpected to the accident, and couldn't return home, so he had to exile and finally died in the foreign land. After the victory, Hou Yi dared not to take the throne immediately. He made Zhong Kang, the younger brother of Tai Kang the King. Zhong Kang was weak and became the puppet of Hou Yi. When Zhong Kang died, his Son, Hou Xiang was on the run. Hou Yi thought it was the right time, then he drove Hou Xiang away and became the King. This is the so-called the lost of country by Tai Kang and the replacement of Xia by Hou Yi in history books.

Shao Kang's Restoration of Xia: Hou Yi was a fatuous ruler, too. The minister Hanzhuo took over power and killed him as well as his family members. Then, Hanzhuo ordered his son Jiao to kill Hou Xiang, who was taking refuge with the Zhenguan and Zhenxun clans. Jiao deteated Zhenguan and Zhenxun clans and killed Hou Xiang. Xiang's wife, already pregnant, avoided Jiao's searching and arrest, climbed through a hole in the wall and escaped to her parents' home of the Youreng tribe, where she later bore her son Shao Kang. Growing up in a hard condition, Shao Kang studied diligently and aspired to revenge. Eventually, with the help of his grandfather and the loyal tribes, he expelled the treacherous court official and his son, restoring the country. With the renaissance, Shao Kang was at pains to handle government affairs, sending army to beat off insurgent troops of minorities, expanding the territory, improving the political system and laying foundation for the prosperity of the Xia Dynasty.

It was about 40 years from Taikang to Shao Kang. The tortuous and complicated struggle illustrated that there were not only class struggles but also fights inside the ruling group as well when a state was founded. The Xia Dynasty could restore its dominion and gain further development, only because it had relatively solid social foundation.

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重大历史事件
Important Historical Events

太康失国：当夏王朝的统治基本稳定之后，以启为首的贵族统治者肆意奴役和剥削广大庶民群众，过着骄奢淫逸的生活。启死后，由其子太康继位，太康像其父一样也沉湎于声色酒食之中，政事不修，促使内部矛盾日趋尖锐，外部四夷背叛。

先有“五子”（太康的兄弟五人）争立，接着又有武观叛乱，百姓就借此展开了强烈的反抗斗争。东夷族有穷氏首领后羿看到夏王朝内部矛盾重重，藉太康外出狩猎数月不归之时，率兵夺取了都城安邑（今山西夏县西北）。太康猝不及防，无法回归，只得流亡，最终死在异地他乡。后羿逐走太康取得胜利后，不敢马上取而代之，于是扶持太康的兄弟仲康继位。仲康懦弱，当了傀儡。仲康死后，其子相继位。羿认为时机已到，遂把相赶走，自己登上王位。这就是史书上称作“太康失国”和“后羿代夏”的故事。

少康中兴：后羿也是昏君，大臣寒浞夺取王位，杀死后羿及其家人，并且下令他的儿子浇追杀相。被逐后的相投靠了斟灌氏、斟寻氏部族。浇率兵打败了斟灌氏部族，杀死了相。此时，相的妻子已身怀有孕。她避开浇的搜捕，从墙洞中偷偷爬出去，投奔到娘家仍氏，并在那里生下儿子少康。少康在艰苦的环境中长大，奋发努力学习，立志复仇雪耻。最终在外祖父的帮助以及忠心夏朝的部落支持下，少康驱逐杀死大逆不道的奸臣以及他的儿子，中兴夏朝。少康完成复国大业后，勤于政务，派遣军队打退少数民族叛军的侵扰，扩大疆土，进一步完善政治制度，奠定了夏朝盛兴的基础。

由太康到少康，经历了大约 40 年。这一曲折而复杂的斗争事实说明，当国家开始建立的时候，就已存在着激烈的阶级斗争和统治集团内部的斗争。夏王朝因为拥有比较深厚的社会基础，才能恢复它的统治，并取得进一步的发展。

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夏朝的灭亡
Downfall of Xia

The last ruler of the Xia Dynasty was Jie, a rare despot in history, who was blamed for the fall of the Xia. He led a luxury and decayed life, abused his power and increased suppression, which resulted in the intensified contradiction. Filled with hatred for Jie, the people fled in large numbers, and even his court officials cursed him and hoped that he would die early. Shang Tang took this opportunity to revolt and dethroned Jie, who died in exile in Nanchao. The Xia Dynasty ended.

With the development of productivity and the increase of captures, the private ownership came into being gradually and doomed to be reflected in politics. That Oi abolished the Abdication and substituted it for the hereditary is the best illustration of it. The hereditary monarchy is more advanced than Abdication, but as a new system it encountered various hindrances. The feud among Xia, You Hu, Yi and Han Zhuo is a battle between the new system and the decayed power. It is inevitable for the new system to win the battle by contending with the old one, for the growing force couldn't be contained. The rule of Shao Kang is a good example of it.



夏朝的灭亡
Downfall of Xia

夏的最后一位国君桀是历史上少有的暴君，对夏朝的灭亡负有责任。他生活奢侈腐朽，滥用权力，对人民进行残酷镇压，使得阶级矛盾尖锐。人们心中充满仇恨，纷纷逃离，甚至大臣都诅咒夏桀，希望他早点儿死。商汤乘机率兵伐夏，大败夏桀，桀逃到南巢死去。

由于生产力的进步和俘虏的增加，私有财产制度逐渐出现了。达到一定的限

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度，私有制度就要在政治上有所表现，夏后启废“禅让”为帝位世袭便是最好的说明。帝位世袭是一种比“禅让”含有进步意义的新制度，但凡是一种新制度，总要遭到各种形式的阻碍。夏后氏与有扈氏、夷羿、寒浞间长期战斗，正是新制度与社会腐朽力量间的斗争。新制度经过斗争，必然要取得胜利，因为正在发展着的力量是不可遏止的，“少康中兴”就是很好的例子。

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Chapter 3 商朝 Shang Dynasty

The Shang Dynasty was the earliest one to have written history. Like the Xia Dynasty, it was originally considered to be a myth. It was discovered because Chinese pharmacists were selling oracle bones which proved the Shang had created. In 1899, a mandarin of the Qing Dynasty found a kind of medicine called dragon bone in his doctor's prescription. When he studied it, he noticed that it actually was a tortoise shell with some odd pictures carved on it. The mandarin then sent his men to collect dragon bones in all herbal medicine shops and had them examined by historians. Finally, over 4 000 thousand different Chinese characters were found on these bones and shells, which had been used to record divination facts. These special dragon bones are now referred to as oracle bones.


商汤

Now, over 100 000 pieces of oracle bones have been unearthed from the ruins of the Shang Dynasty at Anyang in Henan Province, which was the latter capital of the Shang Dynasty 3 000 years ago, and is called the Ruins of Yin now. These written historic records containing information on the politics, economy, culture, religion, geography, astronomy, calendar, art and medicine of the period, and as such provide critical insight toward the early stages of the Chinese civilization.

Traditional Chinese history indicates that the Shang Dynasty was the second hereditary dynasty in China. It lasted almost six hundred years, roughly from the 16th century B. C. to the 11th century B. C., with thirty kings over seventeen generations.

When the Xia Dynasty was declining, a tribe—Shang was growing up at the

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Yishui of the lower reaches of the Yellow River. The legendary accounts tell us the ancestor of Shang was Xie, the younger son of Diku and there was a beautiful story about his birth. One day, Jiandi, Xie's mother, saw a pair of swallows flying toward her. They circled and tweeted over her head. After a while, they set on a big willow, laying an egg in the weed. At the moment, Jiandi seemed to hear someone saying, "This egg was laid for you. Eat it!" She picked it up, praying in heart for a while, and swallowed it down. Next year, Jiandi bore a boy, called Xie. Xie had once helped Yu to harness rivers. Appreciating him very much, Shun assigned him to manage education, and enfeoffing him with a field. Therefore, Xie established the Shang, a tributary state of the Xia Dynasty.

The Shang Dynasty moved its center of activities eight times during the 14 generations from Xie to Tang. This migration occurred mainly along the Yellow River in present-day Shandong and Henan provinces. Before the perdition of the Xia Dynasty, the Shang had been a prosperous small state, and its agriculture, handicraft and business were more advanced than those of the Xia Dynasty, which led to the dynastic changes. Tang moved to Bo (South of the present-day Cao county in Shandong), making preparation to annihilate Xia. Under the assistance of the capable officials, Yi Yin and Zhong Hui, Shang became more powerful. Before crusading against Xia, Shang had conquered a dozen nearby small states, and finally defeated Jie in a battle fighting at Mingtiao (East of the present-day Fengqiu in Henan). Jie fled to Nanchao (Southwest of the present-day Chaohu city in Anhui), The Xia Dynasty was overthrown, and Tang finally founded the Shang Dynasty, with the present-day Shangqiu city in Henan Province as the center of its activity.

Tang, having drawn lessons from the ruin of the previous dynasty, treated his people benevolently and appointed many able and virtuous ministers to important positions. Therefore, during his reign, the Shang made great development in its economy.

After the death of Tang, Shang experienced a period of consolidation and development from Tai Jia to Tai Wu. When Tai Jia, the grandson of Tang, was in throne, there was a famous story about Yi Yin releasing Tai Jia, after this, the reign of the Shang was steady.

Shang moved five times from Tang to Pan Geng. From the sixth generation of Zhong Ding to the tenth Yang Jia, the brothers fought for the throne in the imperial court and the reign began to decline. Kings lavished on building palaces; nobles

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lived a luxury and decayed life, and the country was in chaos. After the death of Yang Jia, his younger brother Pan Geng succeeded him. He forced nobles and commoners to cross the river and migrate to Yin (the present-day Xiaotun Village Anyang County in Henan) in order to restrain vices and alleviate class conflicts. From then on, Shang was also called the Yin Dynasty. This move promoted economic and culture development.

From Pan Geng to Zhou, most kings of Shang were muddleheaded except Wu Ding and Zu Jia, who did not know the hardship of agriculture production, and not care for the pains of the people, but sought blindly for enjoyment and pleasure. The last king, Zhou is known in history as an infamous tyrant. After the battle at Muye (Southwest of the present-day Jixian in Henan), the Shang Dynasty was overthrown by King Wu of Zhou.

商是中国历史上最早留有文字记载的朝代。然而同夏一样,长时间以来,人们认为商代只是个神话传说。对商的考古发现源于中国药店里售卖的一味中药——龙骨。1899 年,一位清朝官员在大夫开的药方中发现一味药叫龙骨。仔细研究后他发现所谓龙骨其实是刻有一些奇怪符号的龟壳,于是他派人到各家药店去买龙骨,并请史学家研究考证。最终,人们在这些骨头和龟壳上发现了 400 万多个汉字。这些特殊的龙骨就是现在的甲骨。

至今已有 100 000 片甲骨在河南安阳的殷墟出土。3 000 年前,安阳曾是商的都城。甲骨文中记载了有关商代的政治、经济、文化、宗教、地理、天文、历法、艺术及医药等方面的情况,为研究中国早期文明提供了重要线索。

传统史学认为商是中国历史上第二个世袭王朝,存在了 600 多年(公元前 16 世纪~公元前 11 世纪),从汤至纣传十七代三十王。

正当夏朝逐渐衰败之时,一个部落正在黄河下游的易水边崛起,这就是商族。据说商族的祖先是帝喾的小儿子契,关于他的出生还有一段美丽的传说。一天,契的母亲简狄在河边看到一对燕子飞过来,它们在她头上盘旋、鸣叫。不一会儿,燕子落在一棵高大的柳树上,接着在乱草中生下了一个蛋。这时,简狄似乎听到有人对她说:"这个蛋是为你生的,快把它吃了吧!"于是,简狄捡起那只燕子蛋,默默地祈祷了一阵,把蛋吞下去。第二年,简狄便生了个儿子,叫契。契曾经帮助大禹治水,舜帝对他很是欣赏,命他主管教育,并把他封在商地。于是,契在封地建立了商——夏王朝的属国。

自契至汤十四代,商迁居八次,主要是沿河南、山东境内的黄河流域迁徙。汤灭夏以前,商已是一个兴旺的小国,农业、手工业、商业都比夏朝进步,因此造成代替夏朝兴起的形势。汤徙居亳(山东曹县南),做好灭夏的准备。他在伊尹、仲虺的辅助下,国力愈益强大。伐夏前,商征服了附近的许多小国,后经鸣条(今河南封丘

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东)之战灭夏。桀逃离南巢(现安徽省巢湖市西南),夏朝被推翻,汤建立了商朝,定都今河南商丘。

商汤吸取了夏朝灭亡的教训,广施仁政并任用德才兼备的大臣。在商汤统治时期,商的经济取得了极大的发展。



商汤之后,由太甲到太戊,是商朝巩固和发展时期。太甲(商汤的孙子)在位时,有一个伊尹放太甲的著名故事。此后商朝的统治一直很平稳。

从汤传到盘庚,中间迁都5次。从第六代中丁到第十代阳甲,众兄弟之间争夺王位,政治衰乱。国王大造宫室,贵族奢侈腐化,国家处于混乱状态。阳甲死后其弟盘庚继位。为了抑制奢侈恶习,缓和阶级斗争,盘庚强迫贵族和民众渡河迁殷(河南安阳县小屯村)。盘庚以后,商又称殷,又称殷商。此次迁都促进了经济与文化的发展。

盘庚传到纣,只有武丁和祖甲比较贤明,其余多是昏聩国王,不知道稼穑的艰难,不留心民众的劳苦,一味讲究享乐淫逸。纣,商的最后一位国君,是中国史上有名的暴君,牧野(今河南汲县西南)一战,商被周武王攻灭。

商朝的政治
Politics of the Shang Dynasty

State System: The Shang Dynasty practiced hereditary system, in which the throne was transmitted from elder brother to younger one or from father to son. At the late stage of the Shang Dynasty, that the title was passed down to son via primogeniture was finally established, and the first born of the queen was usually the heir. It laid an important foundation for the feudal-patriarchal system in the Zhou Dynasty. Meanwhile, the Shang Dynasty was also famous for its divination. The existent inscriptions on the oracle bones are the records of it. The rule of king was confined to the narrow central land, the around areas and peripheries were manors of royal members and clans. The centralized-power had not come into being.

State Organs: The state organization was more perfect, mainly embodied in

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the official system, army and penal code. The king of the Shang Dynasty was the imperator, arrogating all powers to himself; under him was the minister, the head of all officials, assisting the king to rule the country. Other officials under the prime minister took charge of agriculture, handicraft industry and military affairs, etc. Others with religious functions were the shamans, the recorders and the diviners. The dynasty had a large army with certain division. Oracle-bone inscriptions stated that the king had set up three army units—the right, the center and the left. Solders were mainly commoners, sometimes including slaves. It was also recorded that the king dispatched an army of three thousand or five thousand, sometimes even thirteen thousand to go to war.

Shang had many prisons as well as statute laws, including cruel punishments, which reflected the development of slavery. *Penal Code of Tang* in the Shang Dynasty is the written law with cruel penalty. Slave owners and nobles wielded such a colossal state apparatus to exploit and oppress the majority of slaves and commoners.



商朝的政治
Politics of the Shang Dynasty

国家制度：商朝基本上是王位世袭制，从兄终弟及、父死子继到商后期确立了嫡长子继承制，这也是后来周朝宗法制的重要基础。同时，商的占卜也很出名，现存的甲骨文便是占卜的记录。商王的统治仅仅限于狭小的中央地带，四周及边缘地区是王室诸子及各族的领地，中央集权还没有形成。

国家机构：商的国家机构比夏代更加完善，主要表现在官制、军队和刑罚三个方面。商王是最高统治者，独揽大权；王之下设相，是百官之长，辅佐商王以统治全国；相之下有官员，管理农业、手工业生产和军事。还有卜、史、巫、尹等，为卜筮、记事之官。商朝的军队庞大，有一定的编制。据甲骨文记载商王编军队为左、中、右三师，士兵主要由平民组成，有时也有奴隶。有史料经载，商王曾派 3 000 ~ 5 000 人出兵打仗，更有参战士兵多达 13 000 人的时候。

商朝的监狱很多，刑罚很残酷，这是奴隶制度发展的反映。商有《汤刑》，为成文法，刑罚很残酷。商朝奴隶主贵族依靠这样庞大的国家机器对广大奴隶和平民进行残酷的经济剥削和政治压迫。

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社会经济
Social Economy

Slavery system prevailed in the Shang Dynasty. Slaves were forced to engage in production, meanwhile, divisions of labor in agriculture and handicraft, as well as in manual and mental labor developed on a large scale, which promoted the ancient civilization of China.

Animal husbandry had already had a long history during the period of Shang. The oracle-bone inscriptions even record the species and genders of the animals. Agriculture was the major part of production. The findings in the ruins of Yin show that the productivity reached a relatively high standard: farm implements had been improved with ploughs, spades and sickles made of wood or stone were widely used; the primary crops included rice, millet and wheat; cellars for storing grain were built, too, by the merchants. Many wine vessels unearthed indicate that drinking wine was common among the nobility. Wine making and drinking symbolized the advance in agriculture.

Handicraftsmen in the Shang Dynasty were slaves separating from the agricultural activities. As professional contingent, they boosted the development of technology rapidly. In addition to the leading industry-bronze casting, there were ceramics, bone tools making, textile, carpentry, masonry, jade work, lacquering, wine brewing etc.

Iron had been discovered and was already in use. The newly excavated iron-blade bronze battle-axes have proved it. However, most of handicraft tools including axe, knife, saw, chisel, drill, needle, shovel, etc were all made of bronze. It is clear that bronze metallurgy was highly developed. Bronze culture appeared in China before 3 000 BC and reached its summit around the 13th century BC. Bronze objects affected not only people's daily life but the military weapons of the state. Its wide use enabled unprecedented accomplishments of the Shang Dynasty in politics, economy, culture and art.

The bronze industry got a great expansion, which not only possessed a mass output, but a high level of technique as well. In the reign of King Wuding, the

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landmark was the appearance of an alloy of copper, lead and tin which had an epoch-making signiticance in the smelting history. The bronze wares found in the ruins of Yin are as many as thousands of pieces. They fall mainly into two categories: cooking vessels and alcohol containers. Among them, the most famous largest rectangular cauldron si mu wu ding can be taken as a representative of the advanced bronze metallurgy of the late Shang. Its height is 133 cm to the top of the handle, the opening is 110X 78 cm, and the weight is 875kg ,as the largest bronze ware ever found anywhere in the world. The chemical analysis has showed it contains 84.77% of copper, 11.64% of tin and 2.79% of lead. The percentage meets the rigidity demand of founding bronze vessel. To finish this great work, two or three hundreds skilled craftsmen were needed to perform different tasks. The site of bronze casting excavated near Xiaotuncun in Anyang is more than 100 000m^2, which was in accord with the requirement at that time.

The white pottery appeared in the Shang Dynasty, along with the common earthen crockery. It was hard, clear and pure with delicate engravings. There was also a kind of primitive porcelain made of porcelain clay. Coated with blue glaze, it was solid and did not absorb water easily, for it had been fired at a temperature of 1 200℃. The primitive porcelain was a great invention of the slaves then.

The textile industry had subdivided into linen and silk. Traces of silk left in the ruins of Yin are plain designed or decorative. The patterns indicate that there might be simple jacquard loom at that time.

Commercial exchange had grown, and businessmen began to emerge, but rare. What's worth attention is that currency had been used in the business transaction, and it was called "bei" (or shell), mostly sea shell. The shell produced in the South Sea, and it was really hard to get at the Yellow River valley, therefore, particularly valuable, and it was used as money. The oracle-bone inscriptions record the acquisition and bestowal of shells.



社会经济
Social Economy

商朝时期奴隶制度占主要地位。商朝在生产力仍很低的情况下,用奴隶制残酷的强制手段进行生产,并使农业和手工业、体力劳动和脑力劳动

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更大规模的分工，从而推动了我国古代文明的发展。

畜牧业在商时期就已有了较长的发展历史，甲骨文中甚至留有对牲畜种类和性别的记录。农业是社会生产的主导。殷墟的考古发现显示商代的农业已发展到相当高的水平：农具显著改善，石制或木制的犁、铲、镰刀得到广泛使用；主要的农作物有稻、粟、小麦；商人还建造了储存谷物的廪。出土的大量酒器表明贵族饮酒是司空见惯之事。酿酒、饮酒同样标志着农业生产的进步。

商代的手工业劳动者为奴隶，都是从农业生产中分离出来的专业技术队伍，因此技术提高很快。代表性手工业为青铜铸造业，此外还有制陶业、制骨器业、纺织业、木工、石工、玉工、漆工、酿酒等业。

最近发掘出土的铁头铜斧表明商时人们已开始使用铁，但是大多数的手工用具，如斧头、刀、锯、凿子、钻、针、铲等，是铜制的。显然，商代的炼铜技术已发展到相当高的水平。早在3 000多年前，中国就已有了炼铜的历史。公元前13世纪，炼铜技术达到顶峰。青铜制品不仅与人们的日常生活息息相关，对军队的武器装备也有至关重要的影响，其广泛使用使商朝在政治、经济、文化、艺术方面获得了前所未有的发展。

商代的青铜业不但产量大，工艺水平也很高。在武丁统治时期，出现了铜、铅、锡的合金，这在冶炼史上具有划时代的意义。在殷墟一处出土的青铜器就多达几千件，主要分为两大类：炊具和酒器。其中最著名的当数司母毋大方鼎，它是商晚期青铜冶炼技术的杰出代表。司母戊鼎通耳高133厘米，横长110厘米，宽78厘米，重875公斤，是迄今为止发现的世界上最大的青铜器。有关部门的化学分析显示，其含铜84.77%，锡11.64%，铅2.79%，这个比例是符合铸造青铜容器硬度的要求的。完成如此的工程需要庞大熟练工人的分工合作，而在安阳小屯附近发现的商代铸铜遗址的面积在10 000平方米以上，正好符合当时的需要。

商代除一般泥质陶器之外，还出现了用高岭土（瓷土）制作的白陶，质地坚硬，色泽皎洁，刻镂精美，工艺水平极高。还有一种原始瓷器，也是用高岭土制成，表面涂以青釉，质地坚硬，吸水性很弱，烧制的火候约在1 200℃左右。原始瓷是当时奴隶们的又一伟大创造。

纺织业中有麻纺织和丝织业。在殷墟发现的丝绸残片，有平纹、花纹。从花纹组织来看，当时可能已有了简单的提花装置。

商代的商业交换已有初步发展，开始出现专业商人，但很少。值得重视的是在当时的商业交换关系中已使用了货币，时称为“贝”，主要是海贝。海贝产于南洋，在黄河流域十分难得，因而珍贵，用作货币。甲骨文中有有关贝的获取及赏赐情况的记载。

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文化和科学
Culture and Science

Culture: The tradition of ancestral worship has a long history in China. Archeologists have found it was practiced even in Prehistoric Times. With the emergence of farming, people worshipped the heaven in hope of favorable weather for crops. It was actually a kind of nature worship. Another kind of worship was ancestor worship, also called soul worship. People offered sacrifice to their ancestors, praying for blessings bestowed by their ancestors. From the Xia Dynasty onwards, the primitive religion changed greatly. Kings were endowed with supreme authority. In order to secure his power, the king combined ancestral worship and nature worship to create the God or the Heaven, and proclaimed himself the agent or the worldly descendent of the God.

Characters had existed in the Shang Dynasty, and discovered written materials are the remains of the late Shang, which mainly preserved on tortoise shells or shoulder blades of cattle. Nowadays, they are referred as oracle-bone inscriptions. Since mainly used to record the facts of divination, it is also called oracle inscription. A piece of it is about forty or fifty words, the longest a hundred words or also. Apart from this, some bronze vessels are also engraved with a few characters, called jin wen (writings on bronzes) or zhong ding wen (writings on bells and tripods). The longest writing consists of forty or fifty words, while the shortest one only five or six words, even one or two. Up till now, not many of such inscriptions have been found, but they are a primary source of historical materials for the research of the Shang period.

Oracle-bone inscriptions are the important state archives. The Shang rulers were very superstitious, and they would enquire ghosts and gods through divination when there was sacrifices, wars, hunting, diseases, agricultural affairs, weather conditions etc. Usually, a question was written on a tortoise shell or shoulder blade of cattle, then fired; when cracks were produced, the oracle was interpreted on the basis of the pattern of them, and the interpretation was then written on the bone, too. After the predicted event occurred, the date of the occurrence was also written on the bone. One hundred thousand of pieces of oracle-bone in-

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scriptions have been found in the ruins of Yin, which contains about 4 500 characters and about 2 000 have been deciphered. The written characters were already formed in four different ways: pictographs, ideographs, associative compounds and phonetic compounds.

Scientific Achievements: The development of production is closely related to the advance of scientific knowledge. The Shang people made great achievement in astronomy, calendar and mathematics. The oracle-bone inscriptions have records of solar and eclipse, some constellations and newly discovered stars, for example, the Shang astronomers discovered Mars and various comets.

The Shang calendar had been quite perfect. It used a lunar calendar combined with the solar year, disciplining month by moon, numbering year by sun and adjusting season with an intercalary month. The common year was 12 months, and the leap year 13 months. The intercalary month was at first added at the end of the year, but later inserted in the middle. Ten characters known as "heavenly stems" and twelve other known as "earthly branches" were used to name the days in a cycle of sixty days. There is a complete list of stems and branches in the oracle bone inscriptions, which is the earliest one in the Chinese history. The advanced astronomy and calendar were closely connected to agriculture.

Oracle-bone inscriptions show that numbers as large as 30 000 with a decimal system were used; ideas about odd and even numbers came into being; the primary ability to calculate was also developed.

Optics knowledge was applied to long ago. The convex mirror unearthed can reflect a man's whole face in a quite small surface.



文化和科学
Culture and Science

文化:祭天祀祖在中国有着悠久的历史,在史前时期的考古中曾一再发现这类遗存。随着农业的出现,人们为祈求风调雨顺的好年景而产生了对天的崇拜,这是自然崇拜中的一种。祖先崇拜又叫灵魂崇拜。人们祭祀祖先,为的是求得先人的保佑。自夏代开始,原始宗教的内容发生很大变化。由于帝王是世上最高的统治者,为了维护他的统治,就把祖先崇拜与自然崇拜结合起来,创造了天或上帝这样

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的至上神，并称自己为上天的使者或是其子孙。

商代已有文字，现在已发现的文字资料都是商代后期的遗物，主要保存在龟甲和牛肩胛骨上的，今人称之为甲骨文。因多为记录占卜之事，亦称卜辞。卜辞一篇约四五十字，最长的有百字左右。在少量铜器上亦铸有一些文字，称为金文，或钟鼎文。铜器铭文长的有四五十字，短的只有一二字或五六字。迄今为止，发现的钟鼎文数量并不多，但它们是研究商代的重要历史资料。

甲骨卜辞是商朝的国家档案。商统治者非常迷信，凡遇祭祀、征伐、田猎、疾病、农业的丰歉、天气的阴晴风雨等大事，都要用占卜的方法询问鬼神。每次占卜时，先将所问事项刻在龟甲或牛肩胛骨上，然后把骨头放在火上烤，直至有裂纹出现，这时就可以根据裂纹的形状进行占卜。占卜的结果亦刻在骨上。日后预言成真时，事件的发生日期也会被刻到龟骨上面。在殷墟发现的甲骨卜辞约有 10 万多片，所记甲骨文单字总数约有 4 500 左右，今已确认者约有 2 000 千字左右，基本上具备象形、指事、会意、形声等造字方式。

科学发展：生产的发展与科技进步密不可分。商代人民在天文、历法、数学等发面均取得了巨大成就。甲骨文中有日蚀、月蚀、星座和新发现的星宿的记载。商代的天文学家已发现了火星及各种流星。

商代的历法已相当完善，为阴阳合历，以太阴（月）纪月，以太阳纪年，用闰月调整季节。平年 12 个月，闰年 13 个月。最初年终置闰。商代后期，也在年中置闰。用干支纪日，十干，即“天干”和十二地支相配合，60 日为一个周期。在甲骨文中发现有完整的干支表，这是我国最早的干支记录。商代的天文学和历法的进步，与农业生产的发展有密切关系。

数学：商代甲骨文中有大至 30 000 的数字，明确的十进制，奇数、偶数和倍数的概念，有了初步的计算能力。光学知识在很早就得到应用，出土的商代微凸面镜，能在较小的镜面上照出整个人面。



重要帝王
The Emperors in the Shang Dynasty

Tang of Shang: At the end of the Xia Dynasty, the Shang tribe became powerful gradually. Witnessing tyrannical activities of Jie, and the alienation of the popular

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will, Tang was determined to overthrow Xia. Meanwhile, Jie feared that the mightiness of Shang might be a threat, so he summoned Tang to the capital and imprisoned him in Xiatai. The Shang tribe immediately sent a lot of money to Jie and bribed his favorites as well. Therefore, Tang was released. After this, he tried to win people's support with benevolent policies. First, he enumerated Jie's immorality, calling on vassal states to desert Jie and submit to his authority. Then, to those who refused to follow his advice, he launched successive wars to eliminate Jie's power. The more he fought, the stronger he was, while Jie became isolated. Later, Tang moved the capital to Bo, and the preparation to attack the Xia Dynasty was finally made.

Tang adopted Yi Yin's suggestions to stop paying tribute to the Xia Dynasty in order to sound out the strength of Jie. Soon, Jie ordered Jiuyi tribes to dispatch troops to go on a punitive expedition on Tang. This indicated that Jie was able to maneuver the army of Jiuyi, so Tang and Yi Yin apologized to Jie at once, and resumed paying tribute. A year later, Jiuyi tribes could not bear the inhumane control of Jie and rebelled one after another; Jie's power was greatly weakened. Tang and Yi Yin took the opportunity of it, calling on all tribes to crusade against Jie. Consequently, Jie was defeated at the battle of Mingtiao (East of the present-day Fengqiu in Henan). Tang established the second slave dynasty—the Shang Dynasty, and the capital was Bo.

During his reign, Tang lightened taxes and encouraged production to appease the morale. His influence spread to the upper reaches of the Yellow River, and many outlying tribes became vassal states. The Shang Dynasty became another powerful dynasty. Tang had been the tribe leader for 17 years and the king of the Shang Dynasty for 13 years after he founded it. He died of illness.

Yi Yin: The establishment of the Shang Dynasty had a close connection with the assistance of Yi Yin. Yi Yin, the prime minister, had been a dowry slave of Tang's wife working in the kitchen. He was very capable. In order to have Tang notice his ability, he sometimes cooked the meal delicious, sometimes salty or tasteless deliberately. When Tang blamed him for this, Yi Yin took the opportunity to utter his opinion about administration, and Tang was shocked. Realizing his talent, Tang freed Yi Yin and assigned him as the prime minister. Since then, under the design of Yi Yin, Tang made an active preparation to overthrow the Xia Dynasty.

After the death of Tang, Yi Yin assisted Tang's three children ruling the country. King Tai Jia did not obey the decree made by Tang in his three-year reign, and

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Yi Yin persuaded him for many times, but failed. Consequently, Yi Yin shut him in Tonggong Palace, hoping him to have a self-reflection, and governed the state himself.

Living in the Tonggong Palace for three years, Tai Jia eventually regretted and went straight. Then, Yi Yin restored him. TaiJia became benevolent and diligent, so the people began to live a stable life, and all vassal states admired him very much. Living for more than a hundred years, Yi Yin had been the prime minister for twenty years, laying a solid foundation for the stabilization of the Shang Dynasty. He became the first capable official in Chinese history.

Pan Geng: After the establishment, the Shang Dynasty moved five times in three hundred years due to the deluge of the Yellow River, or civil strifes. Among them, the most famous one was Pan Geng's move to Yin (the present-day Anyang in Henan). Once settled, the Shang Dynasty had never moved, so it is also called Yin Shang.

Pan Geng was the nineteenth king. He removed the capital to Yin after a fierce struggle. Kings succeeded Tai Jia all lived a decayed life. They were superstitious and paid little attention to state affairs. With the internal struggle for power and conflicts among the nobility intensified, arms were frequently appealed to. At the same time, some vassal states did not obey the command, each going his own way and fighting with each other. Pan Geng succeeded in peril. He was a sagacious and virtuous ruler. When analyzing the situation, he believed that the capital should be moved to Yin, but the notion offended the interest of the majority of nobles, and encountered strong objection. Meanwhile, the common people were in dread of migration, and reluctant to leave their hometown. Determined, Pan Geng finally led his officials and civilians to trudge from the north of the Yellow River to Yin, in the south of the Yellow River. When settled, the state began to practice Tang's policy, so that the political situation tended to be stabilized, the declination held back, the goal to make the country strong was achieved, and a new economic and cultural prospect also came forth.

Wu Ding: Wu Ding, the best ruler after Pan Geng, left behind him a much-told story in history. He is supposed to have spent his early years among the common people, being familiar with their hardship; therefore, he formed a simple living habit. Additionally, he made friend with a slave, Fu Yue, who was twenty years older than he was. Though a slave, Fu Yue was bright and capable. When he became the king, Wu Ding intended to have Fu Yue as prime minister, but feared that

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the other officials would not agree because of Fu Yue's identity. It is said that Wu Ding had not uttered a word for three years. One day, he suddenly said that in the dream the forefather Tang had asked him to invite Fu Yue to be the prime minister. Then he described the appearance and locality of Fu Yue, ordering officials to look for him. Fu Yue was found among the criminals eventually. Since the Shang people trusted ghost, the nobility dared not to object when Fu Yue was appointed as prime minister. Thereafter, there were some innovations in politics, the state became stable, and the Shang Dynasty restored.

King Zhou of Shang: King Di Xin, the last king of the Shang Dynasty is called Zhou, one of the notorious despots in Chinese history. Quick-witted and Quick-tempered, Shang Zhou in his early reign showed the abilities which surpassed the ordinary man. He headed the troops to fight a long time war with the Dongyi tribe, during which he won the battle frequently. After the victory over Dongyi, he spread the advanced technology and culture of Shang to the Huaishui River and the Yangtze River valley, so he was a king who had made achievements and contributions. However, the constant war exhausted the state power, and tadded to the people's burden. Meanwhile, the triumph developed Shang Zhou's thought of being proud and seeking for enjoyment, which made him become another notorious tyranny after Xia Jie.

In the later years, he was given over to drinking and women, preferring these to the proper governance of the country, and ignoring almost all the state affairs. His viciousness was beyond measures. Apart from this, he tried every means to extort money form people, so that countless jewellery and treasure piled up in Lu tai (Shang Zhou's palace).

Shang Zhou favored a beautiful consort Daji, and committed all manners of evil and cruel deeds with her. His brother Wei Zi tried to persuade him to change, but got rebuked. His uncle Bi Gan similarly remonstrated with him, but Shang Zhou had his heart ripped out so he could see what the heart of a sage looked like. When his other brother Ji Zi heard this, feigning madness, he went to remonstrate with the kingly brother but, was imprisoned.

At that time, the Shang Dynasty was in imminent danger. When King Wu of the Zhou launched a punitive expedition on Zhou, he was utterly isolated. With his army changing the side in the war, Shang Zhou fled to the capital, set light to Lutai and committed suicide by burning himself.

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重要帝王
The Emperors in the Shang Dynasty

商汤：夏朝末年，商族逐渐强大，眼见夏桀暴虐，失去民心，汤决心灭夏。同时，桀担心汤势力壮大而威胁自己，便将汤召入夏都，囚禁在夏台。商族又送桀以重金，并贿赂桀的亲信，使汤获释归商。汤以仁厚收揽人心，争取人民的支持。其一，汤历数夏桀的暴虐无道，号召夏的附属小国背弃桀，归附商；其二，对不听他劝告者，就先后出兵攻灭，以剪除桀的羽翼。商汤越战越强，夏桀陷于孤立的境地。汤还迁都于亳，以此为前进的据点，准备最后攻灭夏朝。

汤还采纳伊尹的建议，停止朝贡夏朝以试夏桀的实力。桀命令九夷族发兵征讨商，这说明桀还能调动九夷族的兵力，汤和伊尹就马上请罪，恢复向夏桀的进贡。一年后，九夷族忍受不了桀的残暴统治，纷纷叛离，使桀的力量大为减弱。汤和伊尹见时机成熟，就由汤召集部众，出兵伐夏，在鸣条（今河南封丘东）一举攻灭了夏桀，建立了中国历史上第二个奴隶制王朝——商朝，定都亳。

汤建立商朝后，减轻征赋，鼓励生产，安抚民心。商的势力扩展至黄河上游，许多部落成为其属国。商最终成为又一个强大的奴隶制王朝。

汤为部落首领17年，建商后称王13年。后病故。

伊尹：商汤建朝与伊尹的辅佐是分不开的。伊尹，宰相，曾是汤的妻子陪嫁奴隶，在厨房干活。伊尹很有才能，为了让汤发现自己，故意有时把菜做得很可口，有时却或咸或淡。有一次，汤就此事责问他，他就乘机向汤谈论了自己对治理国政的见解。汤大为惊奇，知道他是一个贤才，就免除他奴隶的身份，任为右相。自此，在伊尹的谋划下，汤积极准备灭夏。

汤死后，伊尹辅佐汤的3个孩子为天子。太甲在位3年期间，不遵守商汤立下的法令，伊尹多次劝告无效，于是，伊尹把太甲关进桐宫，希望他反省，自己亲自执政。

太甲在桐宫住了3年，终于悔过自新，伊尹又把政权交给他。太甲改恶从善，勤政修德，人民生活安定，各属国都很钦佩。伊尹活了100多岁，当了20年国相，为商王朝的稳定打下了坚实的基础，成为我国历史上第一个著名的贤相。

盘庚：商朝建立后的300多年中共搬迁5次，或避黄河泛滥之天灾，或避内乱之人祸。其中最著名的是盘庚迁都。商定都殷（今河南安阳）后，再未迁移过，故商朝亦称殷商。

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盘庚是商朝的第19任君主。一番激烈斗争后，他迁都于殷。太甲后的历代君王生活逐渐腐化，迷信鬼神，不知发展生产。王室内部争权夺利，矛盾日趋尖锐，经常兵戈相见。与此同时，一些属国也不再听从商朝的指挥，各行其道，相互争斗。危难之际，盘庚继位。他是个贤明有德之君，分析形势后，他认为应迁都于殷。可是这一打算却触犯了大多数贵族奴隶主的利益，遭到了强烈的反对；而百姓因畏惧迁徙之苦，亦不愿离开故土。但是盘庚决心已下，终率领官民经过艰难跋涉，从黄河北迁都至黄河南面的殷地。迁殷以后，“行汤之政”，政治局势趋于稳定，遏制了商的衰亡之势，达到了迁都图强的目的，社会经济和文化也随着出现了一个新的发展局面。

武丁：武丁是盘庚以后最好的国王，历史上曾留下他借梦求贤相的佳话。武丁儿时曾在平民中生活过，不仅养成了简朴的生活习惯，还同一个比他大20岁，名叫傅说的奴隶交上了朋友。傅说虽是奴隶，但聪明能干，文武全才。武丁即位后想请傅说做宰相，但碍于其身份，又恐大臣不答应。相传武丁三年不说话，后自称先祖汤托梦给他，让他请傅说为相。说出傅说的面貌和所在后，令百官到处去寻找，终于在罪徒中找着了。殷人信鬼，傅说做宰相，贵族们不敢反对。其后，商在政治上进行改革，国家日趋安定，商朝因而复兴起来。

商纣：商朝最后一个国王帝辛，叫做纣，是历史上有名的暴君。他机智敏捷，却又脾气暴躁。早年间，其统治能力超乎常人。他曾亲自率兵与东夷进行了一场持久战，在战争中屡屡获胜。平定东夷后，他把商朝先进的生产技术和文化传播到淮水和长江流域一带，是个有成就、有贡献的君主。但是，长期的战争消耗了商朝的国力，加重了人民的负担。而战争的胜利，又滋长了商纣居功自傲和贪图享乐的思想，使他成为我国历史上继夏桀之后的又一个臭名昭著的暴君。

在其统治后期，商纣沉湎酒色，荒淫无度，置朝政于不顾。大肆搜刮民财，无数珍宝堆满了鹿台。宠信美女妲己，与她一起行凶作恶。他的哥哥微子前来进谏，却反遭指责。他的叔叔比干来劝他，商纣却把他的心挖出来看看是什么样子。他另一哥哥箕子虽然装疯指责他，也没能免遭囚禁。

此时的商王朝已是岌岌可危。武王伐纣时，商王朝众叛亲离，军队倒戈。商纣逃回商都，在鹿台自焚而死。

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Chapter 4 西周 The Western Zhou Dynasty

The people of Zhou were an ancient tribe on the loess plateau in the middle reaches of the Weishui River. According to legend, they were the descendants of Qi, the son of Di Ku. Qi had been an official in charge of agriculture during the period of Yao and Shun, known as Hou Ji, and his family name was Ji. Qi was enfeoffed in Tai, for he was credited with teaching people to farm. In the early Shang, his offspring Gongliu settled down in Bin (the present-day Xunyi County in Shaanxi). Dodging the invasion of Rong and Di tribes, Gugong Danfu led his clansmen to Zhouyuan (the present-day Qishan County in Shaanxi). With the development of social economy, private ownership emerged, and classes came into being gradually. Gugong had his men built city walls and houses, and people began to live in the cities called yi. Meanwhile Gugong reformed conventions and set up official system. All of these indicated that the state organization was taking shape. Gugong Danfu was later honored as Great King. In his time, the Zhou tribe submitted to Shang, but they also had conflicts due to the growing power of the Zhou. After the death of Gugong Danfu, his son Ji Li succeeded to the throne. He practiced morality and justice, developing production, driving out Yi and Di tribes, and the Zhou state grew stronger. However, he was killed by King Wen Ding of the Shang Dynasty.

Ji Li was succeeded by Chang, enfeoffed as Xibo (viscount of the west) by King Zhou, posthumous King Wen of the Zhou. King Wen had been imprisoned at Youli (present Tangyin County in Henan), then got released. Under the assistance of Lü Shang, Chang made great efforts to develop production, attracting more vassals to submit to the Zhou State, then attacking hostile states and allies of Shang, titled himself king this was King Wen. During his reign, Zhou entered the primary stage of feudal society—the society of feudatory system, or society with a system of feudal serfs. With its economy, culture and military forces growing rapidly, King

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Wen launched a series of wars against small states, Rong and Di tribes in the neighborhood. Then, he moved the capital to Fengyi (on the west bank of the Fengshui in Xi'an), ready for conquering the Shang Dynasty.

King Wen was succeeded by his son Ji Fa, known as King Wu. With the help of Lü Shang, Zhou Gongdan, Zhao and Bi, he moved the capital to Hao (southwest of present-day Chang'an County in Shaanxi), continuing his father's unfinished task. In 1048 BC, King Wu called for a meeting of the surrounding dukes at Mengjin. More than 800 dukes came to the meeting. In 1046 BC, seeing that the Shang government was in a shambles, King Wu launched an attack along with many neighboring dukes. In the Battle of Muye, Shang forces were destroyed, and King Zhou of Shang set his palace Lu Tai on fire and burned himself to death. King Wu established the Zhou Dynasty, which had the longest duration.

The Zhou Dynasty lasted over 800 years with 37 generations of kings, and was conquered by the Qin in 206 B. C. In 770 B. C., King Ping removed the capital to Luoyi (now Luoyang, Henan). Since Fengyi and Haojing were in the west and Luoyi in the east, the Zhou Dynasty before 770 B. C. was called the Western Zhou, while the other the Eastern Zhou.

The Western Zhou (1046 B. C. ~771 B. C.) started from King Wu, who vanquished the Shang Dynasty, and ended with King You, lasting about three hundred years. It is not only an important age in the imperial period , but also the heyday of ancient civilization as well, which has exerted a great influence on the development of later history.

It was the golden age of the Zhou Dynasty under the reigns of King Wu, King Cheng and King Kang, but the crisis emerged when the King Zhao was in the throne. King Zhao died on his tour to the south. It is said that he was killed by boatmen with a specially-designed mud boat when crossing the Han River. When Mu was enthroned, he reinforced the governmental administration to restore the prestige, instituted penal codes, alleviated punishments and enhanced the control over subjects. He practiced benevolent policies in the country. Meanwhile, he launched wars against the tribe of Quanrong in the west and Yi in the south, carried out active defense to invasions of frontier tribes, and put down plunder.

After King Mu, Zhou was declining. It was trapped in prolonged wars due to the intrusion of Di and Rong tribes, which exhausted the national resources, so the king increased the exploitation on the people and the internal contradiction intensified. When King Li came to the throne, residents in Haojing revolted, and he fled

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to Zhi (present northeast of Huozhou in Shanxi). Then, Dukes of Zhao and Zhou assumed management of governmental affairs. Their regency was known as "Zhou-Zhao Gong-He". The first year of Gong-He was 841 B. C. From that year on, we have continuous and accurate dates of recorded Chinese history.

After King Li died, his son King Xuan was enthroned. He refined the government, restoring the Zhou Dynasty for a time. However, when it was the turn of King You, the twelfth generation, the state crisis was more severe. Marquis Shen allying with the Quangong tribe fought against King You, and killed him at the foot of Mount Li. When Yijiu, the son of King You, came to throne, Guanzhong suffered the warfare looting and was in chaos. In addition to the harassment of Quangong, King Ping had to move the capital to Luoyi in 770 B. C. , which was called "King Ping Moved to the East in history." From this year the dynasty is known as the Eastern Zhou.

周族原是活动于今陕西渭水中游黄土高原的一个古老部落,传说是帝喾后裔弃的子孙。弃在"尧舜"时代做农官,号称后稷,以姬为姓。因教民耕稼有功,分封于邰。商朝初年,他的后人公刘迁居豳(陕西旬邑县)。到古公亶父时,为躲避戎狄侵略,又率族人迁居岐山下周原(陕西岐山县)。随着社会经济的发展,产生了私有制,阶级开始逐渐形成。古公在周原上筑城郭室屋,以邑为单位居住,改革旧俗,设立官司,这说明了早期的国家组织已经产生。古公亶父被后世尊为太王。这时的周族尚臣服于商,接受商的封号。但由于势力日益强大,和商也有矛盾。古公亶父死,子季历继位后,修行道义,发展生产,驱逐夷狄,力量更为强大。季历后被商王文丁所杀。

季历之子昌立,商封之为西伯,后世上谥号为文王。文王曾被商纣王囚于羑里(今河南汤阴),后又被放回。在吕尚的辅佐下,西伯昌大力发展生产,使更多的诸侯前来归附,进而征讨其他诸侯和商的盟国,自称王,即周文王。周文王统治时期,周已进入封建社会的初期阶段——封建领主制社会,或谓之封建农奴制社会。其社会经济、文化的迅速发展,武力也日益强大,先后灭掉邻近许多小国及戎、狄部落,后又将国都迁丰邑(今西安沣水西),做好了灭商的准备。

周文王逝世,其子姬发继位,称武王。他继续以吕尚为师,周公旦为辅,召公、毕公等人为主要助手,继续文王未尽的事业。将都城扩至沣水以东的镐京(今陕西长安县境西南),积极作灭商的准备。公元前1048年,武王在孟津召集八百诸侯会师盟誓。公元前1046年,武王见商已大乱,遂联合各方诸侯伐纣,在牧野打败商朝的军队,一把火点燃了鹿台,殷纣王自焚身亡,史称武王灭商,并建立了中国历史上最长的一个朝代——周朝。

周朝经历了三十七代天子,800多年,到公元前206年,才被秦国灭掉。公元前

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770 年，平王迁都洛邑（今河南洛阳）。丰镐二京在西，洛邑在东，习惯上称公元前 770 年以前为西周，以后为东周。

西周（公元前 1046 年～公元前 771 年）从武王灭商建国，到幽王亡国，共历 300 多年，是中国历史上的一个重要时期，也是中华古文明的全盛时期，对后世历史的发展有深远的影响。

周建国后，武、成、康三代，是周的黄金时代。但到第四代天子昭王时，就出现了危机。当时，王道微缺，周昭王贵为天子，据说南巡汉水时，却被船夫用特制的船暗算，葬身于鱼腹之中。周穆王继位后，为了恢复周王朝的威望，加强王朝的中枢管理，他制定刑律，减轻刑罚，以加强对臣民的控制，施善政于天下。他西征犬戎，南摄夷人，对边远民族的侵扰进行积极的防御，制止了掠夺。

穆王以后，周朝逐渐衰微，由于周围狄、戎部族的不断侵扰，周陷入长期的战争之中，国力消耗很大，不得不加重对民众的剥削，国内矛盾日益尖锐，王朝产生了深刻的危机。周厉王统治时期，镐京居民暴动，将厉王流放到彘（今山西霍州东北），由周公和召公共同执掌政权，历史上称为“周召共和”。共和元年即公元前 841 年，中国历史从这一年开始有了明确而且连续不断的纪年。

周厉王死后，他的儿子宣王整顿朝政，曾经使周王朝有所复兴。但到第十二代天子周幽王时，王朝的危机更为严重。申侯联合西方部族犬戎，举兵攻打周幽王，将其在骊山下杀死。幽王的儿子宜臼即位时，关中遭受兵火洗劫，残破不堪，犬戎又不时前来骚扰。公元前 771 年，周平王宜臼只得将都城迁到洛邑，史称“平王东迁”，东周开始。



西周的政治
The Political System in the Western Zhou Dynasty

Enfeoffment: After the eastern expedition, King Wu carried out the enfeoffment policy in order to strengthen control over the country and protect the interests of the royal family.

It is said that the Zhou Dynasty enfeoffed 71 small feudal states in the early years, among them 53 states' family names were Ji. These fiefs were big or small, some in Jinei—the central region, others distrbuted throughout the whole country,

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mingled with the established states, as consolidated the royal power directly.

The System of Hereditary Kingship: The Western Zhou practiced the system of hereditary kingship combined with a patriarchal clan system, which is a power division system with the essential feature of having the wife's eldest son a heir. Within the clan there was a distinction between major and minor lineages. The king made the eldest son born of his wife heir to the throne, who was called crown prince. The other sons born of his wife and of his concubines became the heads of minor lineages as Qing and Dafu in the central government . The vassal lords with the royal surname belonged to minor lineages in relation to the king, but in their own states they established the same kind of lineage system. A dafu (great officer) belonged to a minor lineage in relation to the vassal lord, but within his own fief he also maintained the same system Dazong/King. Thus by combining blood relationship with an enfeoffment policy, the nobles bearing the same surname were united. At the same time, the royal house intermarried with the ruling families of the fiefdoms and became related to those with different surnames. Such a clan relationship coupled with intermarriages strengthened the ties between the royal house and the vassal lords. The king of the Zhou was regarded as a descendant of God coming to the earthly world with the bestowed power by Heaven or God and controled the earthly world.

The official system: The official system of Zhou was more complicated. According to *the Book of Rites* , there were six ministers in the period of Zhou. The prime minister headed various officials, assisting the Zhou king. There were a minister of civil administration and land affairs (Si Tu), a minister of royal house affairs (Zong Bo), a minister of military affairs (Si Ma), a minister of construction (Si Kong), a minister of justice (Si Kou), and officials in charge of agriculture. All of them were called Qing Da Fu or Shi. Most of the official posts were held by nobles, so when the father died, the son could inherit the position. The salary of officials came from fiefs, which were inside the capital, and the fiefs were also hereditary. The political organization in each fiefdom was similar to that at the royal court.

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西周的政治
The Political System in the Western Zhou Dynasty

周初的“裂国分邦”：东征结束后，周武王为了加强对全国广大地区的统治，便实行大分封，以保障王室的利益。

据说，周初分封了七十一国，姬姓之国共有53个。这些封国大小不等，有的是畿内的采邑。它们广泛地分布在中原地区内，与众多的旧国错杂在一起，这就直接加强了周王室的统治力量。

王位世袭制：西周实行王位世袭制，此制度是与宗法制度结合在一起的。宗法制度是以嫡长子继承制为基本特点的权力分配制度。周王为天下的大宗，其嫡长子为宗子，是王位继承者，称世子；庶子为小宗，留在中央为卿、大夫。诸侯对天子而言是小宗，但在其封国内却是大宗。卿大夫对诸侯而言是小宗，但在其采邑内却是大宗。血亲与分封制度相结合，将同姓贵族紧紧联系在一起。同时皇室与大家族通婚，又将各种异姓势力联系在一起。这种宗族关系加上通婚加强了皇室与诸侯的联系。周王被视为天之子，受天之命以君临人间。

六官制：西周的中央官制更为复杂。据《周礼》记载，周有六官，亦称六卿：宰相统率百官，辅佐天子，司徒管土地和人民，宗伯管王族事务，司马管军事，司寇管刑法，司空管公共工程，还有负责农业生产的官员。这些官员统称为卿大夫或士，都由大小贵族充当，父死子继。官员都以采邑为俸禄，采邑在王畿内亦世袭。封地内的官制与朝廷大体相当。



经济
Economy

The slave system was well developed in the Zhou Dynasty. The king, vassals and high officials owned slaves of different status and under dif-

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ferent names and forced them to create great wealth for them. Common people living in the capital were called "guo ren", also interpreted as freemen; peasants in rural communes were called "ye ren", or "people in the fields". Both guo ren and ye ren were exploited by the king, nobles or slave owners under various names.

Agriculture in the Zhou Dynasty was very intensive and in many cases it was directed by the government. Farmland was periodically distributed on the basis of fertility. The peasant worked a piece of land distributed to him and let another piece lie fallow. The system of fallow was a progressive development and gradually replaced the method of slash and burn.

The ideal field system of the Zhou period as described *in the Rites of Zhou* is the well field system. Every arable area was divided into nine squares in the shape of the character for "water well". Eight families were supposed to cultivate one plot of land each with a common field in the middle. The crops from it were given to the government and that of surrounding squares kept by individual farmers. In this way, the government was able to store surplus food and distribute it in times of famine or bad harvest. Eight families bound to this field structure thus also built an administration unit from which taxes and services could be drawn by the government.

Sharp bronze tools for farm production were widely used in cultivation and tillage on a large scale at that time. The main method of farming was called "ou geng", or "two men working together". Peasants prepared their fields with a plough driven by two men, creating compartments one *chi* wide, six *chi* counted a pace. The standard measure of fields was one *mu*, namely one pace wide and hundred paces long, every man could obtain a field measuring one hundred *mu*.

The farm management made new progress: green fertilizer was employed, fire used to control pests and the technique of simple drainage and irrigation improved. There was a greater variety of farm produce, covering nearly all crops, beans and hemps. Along with Si Jia, an imperial court official guiding the agriculture development, there were also specialized officials, chang ren, in charge of gardens, managing the production of vegetable, melon and fruit.

Handicrafts continued to develop. Royal families and vassals controlled important handicraft industries, in which various handicraftsmen were engaged under the control of Si Kong. Bronze casting continued to be most important, particularly in the building of chariots. Craftsmen had a quite low social status and had to dwell in quarters within the capital and their status was inherited. Trade was an indispen-

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sable section in the social economy. Merchants' activities were restricted to official markets (shi) in the capital and were tightly controlled by the government. An official Zhi Ren was appointed to care for commercial activities. At this time, slaves, cattle and horses, arms and jewellery were exchanged through barter. Among the common people barter mostly involved daily necessities. The currency of the Western Zhou period was a coin shaped like a cowry shell with the currency unit *peng*. Another currency was copper with the currency unit *lüe* They all originated in the Shang Dynasty.



经济
Economy

周朝时奴隶制度发展完善。国王、贵族和高官都拥有奴隶，强迫他们劳动为自己创造财富。但是这些奴隶的地位和名字却有所不同。居住在都城中的普通人被称为“国人”，意为自由人，而在农村生活的人则是“野人”。国王、贵族和奴隶主会以各种各样的名义剥削他们。

周朝的农业大多数是在官府的指导下实行集约化生产。根据土地的肥沃程度定期进行重新分配。农民可以先耕种一块地，而休耕另一块。“休耕制”逐步发展，慢慢取代了原来的抛荒制。

根据《周礼》记载，井田制是最理想的土地制度。每一块耕地都被分成九块，形状尤如“井”字。八户人家为一个单位，集体耕作中间的公田，收获物归官府所有，其余部分归个人。这样，官府就可以把多余的粮食储存起来，以备荒年和收成欠佳时赈灾所用。耕种井田的八户农民实际是一个行政单位，他们要向官府交租，服劳役。

西周时，锋利的青铜农具广泛应用于规模较大的垦殖和耕耘，开始实行耦耕，即两人一起劳动。每块地上都由两个人扶一把犁耕作，每走一步都会留下一条一尺宽，六尺长的畎（田地中间的沟）。土地以亩为标准计量单位，即一步宽，一百步长。每个男子都可分到一块一百亩的地。

沤治和施用绿肥，以火烧法防治病虫害，标志了田间管理的新水平。农作物品种增加，谷类、豆类和麻类等。除负责指导农业生产司稼外，周朝特别设场人，专管园圃，从事蔬菜、瓜果的生产。

西周时手工业继续发展。比较重要的手工业都由王室和诸侯控制，众多的百

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工在司空的领导下负责管理各项手工业，其中最重要的仍然是青铜铸造业尤其是战车的制造。手工业者的社会地位极低，不得不居住在城市之隅，并且这种地位还要世代继承。商业已成为社会经济中不可缺少的部门。商贾的活动被限定在都城的“市”，又被官府牢牢控制。市场中设有“质人”管理商业活动。奴隶、牛马、兵器、珍异等物品的买卖主要是通过物物交换。百姓间的物物交换多为生活必需品。西周的主要货币仍然是贝，以朋为单位。还有金（铜），以锾为单位。这两种货币都源自商代。



重大事件
Important Events

King Wu: When Chang, the son of Ji Li, was in the reign, the state had been powerful and prosperous, for he was benevolent and courteous, and many scholars went to Zhou. Fearing for the prosperity of the Zhou, King Zhou of the Shang Dynasty imprisoned Chang in Youli for seven years. The Zhou people ransomed him with jewels and beauties. Hereafter, under the assistance of Lü Shang, Chang pretended to be obedient and make merry every day, but actually accumulated virtue, pleasing common people, developing production, having more vassals submit to him and subduing hostile ones. Eventually, Chang controlled much of the world, and in the name of the Mandate of Heaven he proclaimed himself king, namely King Wen of Zhou. King Wen moved the capital to Fengyi (now on the west bank of Fengshui of Southwest of Chang'an county in Shaanxi). Nine years later, King Wen died, and his son came to the throne, Known as King Wu. With Lü Shang as teacher, Duke Dan of Zhou, Zhao and Bi as assistants, King Wu continued his father's unfinished cause. In 1048 BC, King Wu called in eight hundred vassals to have a meeting, making a pledge to conquer the Shang Dynasty at Mengjin. Two years later, he led army to depart from Tongguan, allying various vassal states, and marching eastward. In the next February, King Wu defeated the Shang forces at the battle of Muye; then established the Zhou Dynasty.

King Cheng (1042 ~ 1006): King Cheng was succeeded to King Wu. However, King Cheng was young, and the Zhou Dynasty had just brought order to the empire. Duke Dan of Zhou was afraid that the patrician lords would rebel against

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Zhou, so he assumed the powers of a regent to administer the state. Guan Shu and Cai Shu, dissatisfied, together with, under the standard of Wu-geng, the son of the last Shang king Zhou, rose up in rebellion against the Zhou Dynasty.

Duke Dan of Zhou resolutely commanded the troops to launch on eastern expedition, which led to the deaths of Wu-geng and Guan Shu, and to the banishment of Cai Shu. Subsequently, he pacified the orient states. The unification was finally completed through the war.

In order or to enhance the control over the east, Duke Dan of Zhou acted under the order of King Cheng, taking charge of the task of building Luoyi. After the completion of the city, Duke Dan of Zhou installed Wei-zi Kai, a prince of Yin, as the clan leader of the Yin lineage and gave him a patrimonial estate in Song, the former capital of the Shang Dynasty. Then he rounded up many of the remnant people of Yin and presented them to his youngest brother Feng, who became the ruler of the land of Wei under the title Kang Shu. Thus, the remnants of the Yin had been split, who came to submit to the Zhou Dynasty gradually.

Duke Dan of Zhou occupied the office of regent for seven years. When King Cheng came to age, Duke Dan of Zhou returned to him the reigns of government and faced north at court in the position of a minister.

Duke Dan of Zhou established the Rites of Zhou and created the Classic of Music, setting up various institutions and systems, which led to the establishment of the patriarch system. King Cheng had headed the troops to launch a punitive expedition on Dongyi tribes and ensured the stability of the eastern regions. After the death of King Cheng, his son King Kang succeeded him to the throne. He carried on the cause of his farther, being diligent in the governmental affairs, amiable to the people. The penal punishment had never been used over the period of several decades, and the society was more stable.

Guoren's Uprising and the Period of Gonghe: In the later period of the Western Zhou, the social economy got a rapid development with mountains, forests, land and swamps exploited in certain degree. When King Li was on the throne, he took over all of these natural resources in the vicinity of the capital and had them under the control of royal house. Therefore, the nobles of lower ranks were excluded from using them, and the common people were not allowed to enter these areas to cut wood, pick, go hunting and fishing. The measure led to a wide discontentment In response, King Li employed a shaman to watch over the public, and anyone who spoke against him was executed, which intensified the contradiction.

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In 841 BC, Guoren (also interpreted as freeman referring the common people living in the capital cities with a relatively high social status) could no longer tolerate his tyranny, and rose in armed revolt. They attacked the royal palace and forced the king to flee. Then they surrounded the residence of Duke Zhao, where they got the news that Prince Jing, heir to the throne, was hidden. They compelled the Duke to hand over the prince. At this critical moment, the Duke made his own son take the place of the prince, thus saving the heir who later became King Xuan.

Since King Li had run away, there was no monarch in the imperial court. After the discussion of ministers, a decision was made that the Duke of Zhao and the Duke of the Zhou took charge of the government temporarily. This period was called the gonghe, known as"Gong-He". The first year of the gonghe was 841 B. C. From that year on, we have accurate dates of recorded Chinese History. The uprising of guoren shook the foundation of the Zhou Dynasty. The contradiction between the royal the common began to surface, and the prestige of the dynasty declined gradually.

Teasing the Dukes with Beacon: The period of Gong-He lasted for 14 years when the despot King Li died in Zhi, where he lived after the flight. The Dukes of Zhou and Zhao enthroned Prince Jing as King Xuan. In the first years of his rule, severe droughts occurred, but didn't develop into a serious situation. Later King Xuan carried out wars against some neighboring tribes and states and won some battles, but was defeated eventually. For a time during the reign of King Xuan, there were signs of revival for a time. But the conflicts between the Zhou State and the neighboring people, the social contradiction in the Zhou-controlled areas were not resolved. Moreover, continuous wars consumed much of the dynasty's manpower and material resources.

King You, who succeeded King Xuan, was a stupid, self-indulgent and cruel ruler. The existing contradictions grew worse. The struggle between big and small slave owners became sharper.

Severe natural disasters like earthquake, landslide and drying up of rivers occurred one after another in Guanzhong, which compelled people to leave their homes and wander about. Without comforting and compensating the bereaved people, King You became more extravagant, corruptive and insatiably avaricious. In order to gain a smile of his favorite concubine Bao Si, he even had the signal fire lighted, deceiving vassals into rescuing the king.

The most serious issue was that he dismissed Queen Shen and the crown

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prince Yi Jiu; and made Bao Si queen and her son to the throne. Marquise Shen, father of Queen Shen, attacked the king in collaboration with the Quanrong tribe and other states. As the vassals refused to send him reinforcements, King You was killed at the foot of Mount Li. Under the threat of Quanrong and their allies, the Zhou ruler had lost control over the old capital by 771 B. C. In the following year, King You's successor, King Ping, moved the capital to Luoyi with the support of some of the nobles and vassal. From this year, the dynasty is known as the Eastern Zhou. The dynasty's power and prestige had declined sharply, and the history entered a new stage.

重大事件
Important Events

武王伐纣:季历的儿子昌在位时,国富民强。昌,仁慈爱民,礼贤下士,天下士人都来投奔。周的发展,使商纣感到威胁,于是将西伯昌囚禁于羑里7年。周人以珍宝和美女将西伯赎出,此后,在吕尚的辅佐下,昌表面上耽于游乐,对殷纣十分驯服,实际上却更为积善修德,和悦百姓,大力发展生产,使更多的诸侯前来归附,进而征讨不驯服的诸侯和商的盟国,自称王,即周文王,并将都城迁到丰邑(今陕西长安西南沣水西岸)。9年后,周文王逝世,其子发继位,称武王。他继续以吕尚为师,周公旦为辅,召公、毕公等人为主要助手,继续文王未尽的事业。将都城扩至沣水以东的镐京(今陕西长安县境),积极作灭商的准备。公元前1048年,武王在孟津召集八百诸侯会师盟誓伐纣。两年后,文王兵出潼关,联合各方诸侯,挥师东向,于次年2月在牧野打败商朝的军队,建立了周朝。

周公辅成王:武王死后,其子成王继位。成王年少,天下初定,周公旦恐怕诸侯不服,以王叔摄政。管叔、蔡叔不服,与殷纣之子武庚,发动叛乱。

周公毅然率兵东征,平定了叛乱,诛杀了武庚和管叔,放逐了蔡叔,再相继平定了东方诸国。经过这次战争,周的统一事业才告完成。

为了加强对东方的统治,周公奉成王之命负责营建洛邑的工作。洛邑建成后,周公封降周的商贵族微子凯于商朝故都宋地;封武王少弟康叔于纣都,成立卫国,赐以殷国,赐以殷民六族。这样,殷商余民已被分割,逐渐服从于周朝的统治。

周公执政7年,成王成年后他就把政权交给成王管理,自己则面北称臣。周公还制礼作乐,建立了周朝的各项典章制度,确立了以宗法制度为中心的政治体制。

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成王曾亲自讨伐东夷，使东部得以安定。成王死后，继位的康王继承先王的事业，勤于政事，平易近民，刑罚几十年不用，社会更加安定。

国人暴动与共和行政：西周后期，社会经济发展较快，山林川泽有所开发。至厉王时，他把王畿以内的山林川泽收归王室控制，不许中小贵族利用，亦不准劳动人民进入樵采捕捞。厉王的这一措施引起人们的不满。他就派巫师监视，杀掉议论的人，使矛盾更为尖锐。至公元前841年，国人（居住在国都内的人的统称，多是平民，身份较高）发动暴动，反对周厉王。他们进攻王宫，厉王出逃。这时，有人听说太子静躲在大臣召公家里，他们又立即包围了召公的府邸，逼召公交出太子。情急之下，召公只得将自己的儿子顶替太子交了出去，这才保住了太子的性命。太子静就是后来的宣王。

厉王逃走后，朝廷里没有国王。经大臣们商议，由召公和周公暂时代替厉王执掌朝政，史上称之为“共和执政”。从共和元年，也就是公元前841年，中国历史上才有了确切的纪年。“国人暴动”大大动摇了周王朝的统治基础，贵族与平民的矛盾浮出水面，周朝日趋没落。

烽火戏诸侯：“共和执政”维持了14年之久，暴虐的周厉王终于在逃亡地彘死去。周公和召公立太子静为王，即周宣王。周宣王统治前期曾发生严重的旱灾，所幸并未酿成大祸。宣王统治后期不断对周边国家和部落用兵。虽然打了几场胜仗，但还是已失败而告终。宣王统治时期，周朝曾一度有所复兴。但是周与周边国家的矛盾以及国家的内部矛盾并没有得到解决。此外，长期的战争更是消耗掉了国家大量的人力和物力。

继宣王之后的幽王是个愚蠢、任性妄为的暴君。这时，王朝的危机更为严重。

关中地区发生地震、山崩和河水枯竭等严重自然灾害，人民流离失所。周幽王不仅不抚恤灾民，反而更加奢侈腐化，贪得无厌。为了博得宠妃褒姒一笑，幽王举烽火欺骗诸侯前来勤王。

最严重的问题是，幽王废了王后申氏和太子宜臼，另立褒姒为王后，立褒姒的儿子为太子。申后的父亲申侯于是联合西方部族犬戎以及其它国家，举兵攻打周幽王。由于各路诸侯不去救援，幽王被杀死在骊山脚下。在犬戎和联军的威胁之下，公元前771年，周王已无法控制旧都。次年，在一些贵族和诸侯的支持下，平王迁都洛邑。从这一年起，东周开始。东周的实力和影响力急剧下降，历史又步入了一个崭新的阶段。

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Chapter 5 The Eastern Zhou Dynasty (The Spring and Autumn Period)

东 周(春秋)



春秋纷争

Wars among the States in the Spring and Autumn Period

Eastern Zhou Dynasty came into being in 770 B. C., when King Ping of Zhou moved the capital eastward to Luoyi, and ended in 256 B. C., when conquered by the Qin, lasting 514 years under the reign of 25 kings. It is traditionally to be divided into two phases: the Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period. The Spring and Autumn Period was from about 770 to 476 B. C. The name for this period derives from *the Spring and Autumn Annals*, a history record of the state Lu (a fiefdoms of the Zhou Dynasty) adapted by Confucius. The second half, the Warring States Period, began in 475 B. C. and stretched down to 221B. C..

The Spring and Autumn period was not only a changing period, but the interim as well, during which the social economy experienced rapid transformation, the political situation became complicated, warfares emerged endlessly, academic study and culture were extraordinarily splendid, and the ancient Chinese civilization was evolving to the middle age.

Internal power struggles and invasions of Rong tribe forced King Ping to abandon Haojing and with the help of such states as Jin and Zheng moved to Luoyi in 771 B. C. Hence, relying on the support from some powerful vassals both in politics and in economy, the imperial court began to decline, and times when Zhou king

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controlled the country had gone forever. In 707 B. C. , King Huan launched a punitive expedition against the unruly state of Zheng, he was not only defeated, but also wounded by an arrow. Hereon, the king of Zhou existed in name only.

According to history records, there were 128 vassal states during the Spring and Autumn Period, while the important ones were ten or more. Resorting on the military strength, they launched wars constantly, annexing small states, expanding the domain, and a situation of vassals contending for hegemony came into being.

The Five Hegemons are also called the Five Counts. There are different versions about their identities. The traditional definition is that Duke of Huan of Qi, Duke Wen of Jin, Duke Wu of Qin, Duke Xiang of Song, and King Zhuang of Chu; the other is Duke Huan of Qi, Duke Wen of Jin, King Zhuang of Chu, King Helü of Wu and King Goujian of Yue.

Duke Huan of Qi (in the throne from 685 B. C. ~643 B. C.) was the first overlord. In the east, the state of Qi had rich natural resources. Kings through the ages were engaged in the rectification of politics and the development of economy, so its national strength grew gradually. When he was in the throne, he designated a statesman named Guan Zhong as his prime minister to carry out reforms, and Qi became powerful rapidly. Duke Huan of Qi succeeded in uniting the vassal lords by invoking the slogan of "loyalty to the King of Zhou", defeated Northern Rong tribe and deterred invasions of Di tribe, due to which he was widely supported by vassals and his prestige rose greatly. In 656 B. C. , Duke Huan led an alliance of eight vassal states to attack Chu, and finally concluded a covenant at Zhaoling (the present-day Yancheng in Henan). Qi's supremacy reached its apex. In 651 B. C. , Qi organized a meeting at Kuiqiu (now Northeast of Minquan County in Henan) with the participation of the monarchs of Lu, Song, Wei, Zheng, Xu and Cao participating in. Even the Zhou King sent his representative. The meeting decided that states creating a friendly alliance should never attack each other, and that they had to assist each other if one partner should be attacked by an enemy. Duke Huan thus became the hegemon of the alliance, namely the overlord, and controlled the king of Zhou, acting as the highest judicial person.

When Duke Huan died, the intense contention for succession occurred and the power of Qi was weakened. Chu took this opportunity to enhance its force, devastating several small states in the north successively, and then directing the spearhead at the central plain again. Figuring for the position of overlord, Duke Xiang of Song had a contest with Chu. The two armies met at Hongshui in 638 B. C. Conse-

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quently, Song was defeated, and Duke Xiang was wounded, and died shortly. The state of Song lost its last chance to rise to political and military significance.

As Chu was ruling the central plain, Jin in the west was rising up quietly. Duke Wen of Jin ascended to the enthronement after 19 years of hard exile. Duke Wen of Jin carried out political reform, and strengthened the national economy and thus he gained high prestige among lords. In 635 B. C. , the King Xiang of Zhou escaped from inner disturbances to Zheng. Duke Wen of Jin saw his chance. Raising the banner of "loyalty to the king of Zhou", and allying other lords, he conquered Wang Zidai, rescued the king and accompanied him back to the royal domain, highly rewarded by the King. The next step for the Duke should be to challenge the power of Chu. In 633 B. C. , the state of Chu led an alliance with Chen, Cai, Zheng and Xu, and then attacked Song. In response, Jin led the force of Song, Qi and Qin to rescue Song, and crashed the alliance of Chu at the battle of Chengpu (Linpuji in the Southwest of modern Juancheng in Shandong). Duke Wen of Jin established a new friendly alliance during the meeting at Jiantu (Southwest of present Yuanyang County, Henan) and became the new overlord. However, the contention between Jin and Chu for supremacy lasted for many years.

Qin used to be a small country in the west of modern Shaanxi. During the reign of Duke Mu, Bai Lixi was appointed as Dafu (a high official), rectifying civil affairs and encouraging production, therefore, the state was gradually rich and strong, its territory was expanded eastward, and bordered with the state of Jin. Qin launched a war against Jin in 645 B. C., not only defeated Jin utterly at the battle of Hanyuan (the modern Ruicheng in Shanxi), and captured Duke Hui of Jin as well. In 627 B. C. , Duke Mu launched a surprise attack on Zheng, but was intercepted at Xiao (in the northwest of modern Luoning in Henan) by Jin; all his three generals were captured, and the whole army was annihilated. From then on, the military confrontation between Qin and Jin went on constantly, and each side had victories and losses. Since Jin blocked the gate for Qin to the Central Plain and Qin could but expand its territory to the west. After annexing some Rong Di tribes, Qin began to dominate the area of Western Rong.

Chu was a barbarian state in the basins of Jiang and Han. During the reign of King Zhuang of Chu, Sun Shuao was designated as prime minister. With his help, the internal affairs were regulated, irrigation system was constructed, and the state became powerful and prosperous. In 606 B. C. King Zhuang headed troops arriving at the outskirts of Luoyi, and King Ding of Zhou was forced to hold ritual of

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consolation for him. In 598B. C. King Zhuang besieged the state of Zheng, and Jin sent army to rescue it. Then at the battle of Bi (in the east of modern Zhengzhou in Henan) the army of the former hegemonial state of Jin was defeated. In 594 B. C., Chu defeated the state of Song and obtained the hegemonship over the Central Plain.

When the contention in the central plain came to an end, states Wu and Yue in the lower reaches of the Yangtze River rose to prominence. In 506 B. C., appointed Wu Zixu as general, King Helü of Wu launched an punitive expedition against Chu, and captured the capital of Chu, Ying. In 496 B. C., King of the Wu state commanded the army to march south and attack the state of Yue. King Goujian of Yue led the army to fight back and King Helü suffered an injury which led to his death. In 494 B. C., King Fuchai of the Wu state, the son of Helü, attacked Yue to seek revenge. Yue was defeated. King Goujian sued for peace, sending jewels and Xishi (a great beauty in Chinese history) to the Wu king, and leading the horse for Fuchai himself. Degrading himself as a Wu subject, Goujian prepared to restore his state. Exploiting the victory, King Wu launched an attack northward and defeated Qi, attempting to seize hegemony.

After ten years of sleeping on brushwood and tasting gall, Goujian finally annihilated Wu. Ashamed and resentful, Fuchai committed suicide. Goujian went to the north to confer with Qi and Jin at Xu, and became the last hegemon.



春秋纷争
Wars among the States in the Spring and Autumn Period

东周自公元前770年周平王东迁洛邑，到公元前256年被秦所灭，共传二十五王，前后经历了514年。我国习惯上把这段历史分为两个时期，公元前770年至前476年，为春秋时期，因孔子改编的鲁史《春秋》而得名；另一半，从韩、赵、魏"三家分晋"（公元前475年）至秦始皇统一六国（公元前221年），为战国时期。

春秋时期，是中国历史上社会经济急剧变化、政治局面错综复杂、军事斗争层出不穷、学术文化异彩纷呈的一个变革时期，是中华古代文明逐渐发展为中世纪文

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明的过渡时期。

在内乱和戎族入侵的交织打击之下，公元前770年，周平王被迫放弃镐京，依仗晋、郑等诸侯的力量迁都洛邑。从此王室开始衰弱，在政治上和经济上都依靠一些比较强大的诸侯的支持，周天子号令天下的时代一去不复返。公元前707年，桓王出兵伐桀骜不驯的郑国，不仅为郑师所败，还被射伤。从此，周天子名存实亡。

春秋时期，见于史书的诸侯国名有128个，但比较重要的不过十几个。这些比较大的诸侯国凭借其实力，不断发动战争兼并小国，扩充领土，形成了诸侯争霸的局面。

春秋时期的“五霸”，历史上有不同的说法：一说是指齐桓公、宋襄公、晋文公、秦穆公和楚庄王；另一说是指齐桓公、晋文公、楚庄王、吴王阖闾和越王勾践。

最早称霸的是齐桓公（公元前685～公元前643在位）。齐国在东方，自然资源丰富，历代君主致力于整顿政治，发展生产，国力逐渐发展起来。齐桓公继位后，以管仲为相，改革内政，使齐国迅速强大。后以“尊王攘夷”为名，联合个诸侯国打败了北戎，制止了狄人的侵扰。齐桓公救患扶危的行为，得到一些诸侯的拥护，威信大增。公元前656年，齐桓公带领8个诸侯国的联军攻楚，订立了召陵（今河南偃城）之盟，其霸业发展到顶峰。公元前651年，齐桓公在葵丘（今河南民权县东北）大会诸侯，参加会盟的有齐、鲁、宋、卫、郑、许、曹等国的国君，周天子也派代表参加。这次会盟史称“葵丘之会”。葵丘之会规定各国和睦相处，互不侵犯。任何成员国受到外敌攻击，其他各国均应救援。齐桓公为盟主，就是霸主，得以挟天子以令诸侯。

齐桓公死后，齐国出现争夺君权的内乱，力量削弱。楚国乘机发展势力，先后灭了楚国北边的几个小国，重新把矛头指向中原。宋襄公为谋取霸主地位，展开了与楚国的较量。公元前638年，两军在泓水相遇，宋军大败，宋襄公受了箭伤，不久便死去了。宋就此失去了在经济、军事上称雄的机会。

正当楚国称雄中原的时候，西部的晋国悄然兴起。晋文公重耳在外流亡19年后继位。他改革政治，发展经济，在诸侯中威信很高。公元前635年，周襄王为了避内乱逃到了郑国。晋文公以为是取威定霸的好机会，便打着“尊王”的旗号，打垮王子带，把襄王送回王都。接下来，晋文公就要与楚国一决雌雄。公元前633年，楚与陈、蔡、郑、许结盟，攻打宋国都城。次年初，晋文公率齐秦联军兵救宋，在城濮（现山东鄄城西南临濮集）大败楚军。战后，晋文公在践土（河南原阳县西南）会盟诸侯，成为中原霸主。然而，楚晋之争并未就此结束，战争延续多年。

秦国原是活动在陕西西部的一个小国。秦穆公时，任用百里奚为大夫，整顿内政，奖励生产，国家逐渐富强，疆土向东扩展，与晋国相接。公元前645年，秦伐晋，大破晋军于韩原（今山西芮城），生俘晋惠公。公元前627年，秦又袭郑，在回军至殽（今河南洛宁西北）时，遭晋军截击，秦军的三个将军被俘，全军覆没。史称“殽

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之战”。此后，秦、晋屡有战争，互有胜负。秦国为晋所阻，不得向东发展，转而向西，吞并了一些戎狄部族，称霸西戎。

楚是江、汉流域的一个蛮族国家。楚庄王时，孙叔敖为宰相，整饬内政，兴修水利，国势更加强盛。公元前606年，楚庄王率军至雒邑的郊外，周定王被迫派人为他举行慰劳欢迎之礼。公元前598年，楚围郑，晋救郑。次年，晋、楚军战于邲（今河南郑州市东），晋军大败。史称“邲之战”。公元前594年，楚又败宋，楚庄王成为中原的霸主。

当中原诸侯争霸接近尾声时，地处长江下游的吴、越发展起来。周敬王十四年（公元前506），吴王阖闾以伍员（伍子胥）为大将，统兵伐楚，攻进楚都郢。周敬王二十四年（公元前496）又挥师南进伐越。越王勾践率兵迎战，越大夫灵姑浮一戈击中阖闾，阖闾因伤逝世。周敬王二十六年（公元前494），吴王夫差为父报仇，兴兵败越，越王勾践求和，送给吴王珍宝美女西施，自己亲自为夫差牵马。勾践自贱为吴民，志在复国。吴王乘胜向北进击，大败齐军，成为小霸。

越王勾践卧薪尝胆，十年生聚，十年生息，终于在周元王三年（公元前473）消灭吴国，夫差羞愤自杀。勾践北上与齐晋会盟于徐，成为最后一个霸主。



重大历史事件
The Important Historical Events

Meetings to Put Down the War: In the middle of the Spring and Autumn, the contention between Jin and Chu intensified, endless wars brought nothing but disasters to the people, and small states also got tired of it. Additionally, Jin and Chu matched each other in strength, so it was impossible for them to wipe out the opponent. Therefore, in 579 B. C. and again in 546 B. C., the state of Song, which had suffered enormously from the warfare among the big states, called a peace conference to stop wars. It succeeded in attaining its goal that the two big states Jin and Chu shared the hegemony equally. Since then, wars decreased greatly, which was good to help all states to restore and develop economy, and stabilize the people's life.

The collapse of the well fields system and the emergence of the private ownership of lands brought out great changes in politics. Many lords were trapped in warfare, which led to financial difficulties and a declining authority, while nobles

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took the possession of vast lands, mastering mighty political and military power. As a result, contradictions continued to sharpen between the sovereign and the nobles, even among the nobles themselves. The most representative events were the division of Jin by three clans—Han, Zhao and Wei and the expedition against Qi from the Tians.

The Division of Jin by Three Families: In the middle of the Spring and Autumn, the regime of the state Jin had been controlled by six ministers gradually. The so-called six ministers refer to the six noble families, Zhao, Han, Wei, Zhi, Fan and Zhonghang. Later the Fan and Zhonghang families collapsed due to the joint efforts of the other four families. In 453 B. C., Zhao, Wei and Han divided Zhi among them. The political power and the Lands were then set for the three remaining families to divide whenever they liked.

In 403 B. C., the King Weilie of Zhou recognized the three families, Han, Zhao and Wei as vassals, and the state Jin existed in name only. After this, Han, Zhao and Wei evolved into strong states in the central plain; consequently Jin disappeared. It marks the beginning of the Warring States Period.

The Tians Attacked: Qi Like Jin, the noble families in Qi grew in power after the death of Duke Huan. Among them were Guo, Gao, Yan and Tian, the last one Tian was most powerful, eventually overwhelming all the others and controlled the state. The Tian clan was the descendants of Chen. Under Duke Huan of Qi, they fled to Qi dodging the internal disorders. In the middle of the Spring and Autumn, the influence of Tians was increasing. In 490 B. C., Guo and Gao made Duke Tu the monarch after the death of Duke Jing. Tian Qi took this opportunity to launch an armed coup, defeated Guo and Gao, and then crowned Duke Yangsheng, another son of Duke Jing. Tian Qi became the prime minister.

In 481 B. C., Tian Chang, the son of Tian Qi, did the same thing again. He went as far as killing Duke Jian of Qi. From then on, Tians held the political power in Qi. It was in 391 B. C., Tian He, the great-grandson of Tian Chang, replaced Duke Kang of Qi, and took the sovereign himself.

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重大历史事件
The Important Historical Events

弭兵之会：春秋中期，晋、楚争霸激烈。连续不断的战争给人民带来巨大的灾难，也引起中小国家的厌倦，加以晋楚两大国势均力敌，谁都无法吃掉对方。于是饱受大国战争之苦的宋，于周简王七年（公元前579年）和周灵王二十六年（公元前546年），发起举行了两次弭兵会盟，晋楚两国平分了霸权。从此，战争大大减少。这种形势对恢复、发展各国的社会经济，安定人民的生活，都有很大的好处。

井田制的瓦解和土地私有制的产生引起政治上的巨大变化。许多诸侯长期陷于争战之中，经济困难，政治权力日弱，而卿大夫却拥有大量的土地，掌握了强大的政治、军事权力。为此诸侯王与卿大夫等贵族势力之间的矛盾，以及贵族之间的矛盾不断激化。其中最有代表性的事件是“韩、赵、魏三家分晋”和“田氏代齐”。

三家分晋：在春秋中期，晋的政权已逐渐为六卿所控制。所谓六卿，就是赵、韩、魏、知、范、中行氏六家。后来，赵、韩、魏、知四家联合起来，消灭了范氏和中行氏。至公元前453年，赵、韩、魏三家又联合起来，消灭了知氏，晋国的政权就控制在这三家手中，晋国的绝大部分土地也在他们的控制之下。

公元前403年，周威烈王承认韩、赵、魏三家为诸侯，晋国名存实亡。此后韩、赵、魏成为中原大国，晋亡。战国时期也由此开始。

田氏代齐：同晋国一样，齐桓公死后，齐国的贵族势力逐渐强大起来。田氏是虢氏、高氏、鲍氏、晏氏等贵族中势力最强大的，并最终取代各家，把持朝政。田氏原是陈国后裔。在齐桓公时，为避陈之内争，逃来齐国。春秋中期，田氏势力逐渐强大。公元前490年，齐景公死，贵族虢氏、高氏立景公的儿子公子荼为国君。田氏乘机发动武装政变，打败了虢氏、高氏，立景公的另一个儿子公子阳生为国君（齐悼公），田乞为相。

公元前481年，田常田乞之子又发动武装政变，并杀死了齐简公，政权完全控制在田氏手中。到田常的曾孙田和时，其于公元前391年废掉齐康公，自立为国君。

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经济
Economy

During the Spring and Autumn Period, the Zhou rulers almost lost their control over lands. Vassals and nobles turned the public lands into private, adopting a new method of exploitation: farm laborers turned over a large part of products and kept the rest. Thus, slave-owners became feudal landlords, while slaves tilling well fields became peasants. Starting from State Lu, the well field system disintegrated gradually in all states, which was the sign of the collapse of slave society.

Iron wares were in common use in agriculture and handcraft industry, symbolizing the improvement of the social productivity. Cattle ploughing fields became a common sight, cultivation technique was raised, and agriculture got further development. At the turning point of the Spring and Autumn and Warring States, people began to make steel due to the improvement of iron-casting technology, and for the first time, it was used in weapon-making industry, like casting sword. Wu, Yue and Chu were famous for sword casting with well-known swords like Yuchang, Ganjiang, Moye etc. were all made in these states.

Some craftsmen turned into individual producers and traders. They lived in a large market in the city, manufacturing and selling at the same time. It was in the last years of this period that Luban, the founder of carpenter, lived.

Coins emerged at that time. Jin was one of the first places to mint and use coins.



经济
Economy

春秋时期,周天子对土地的控制力已几乎完全丧失。诸侯、贵族把公田化为私田,逐渐采取了新的剥削方式,农民被迫交出大部分产品。这样,

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奴隶主贵族转变成了封建地主，原来耕种井田的奴隶转变成为农民。从鲁国开始，井田制在各国逐步瓦解，标志着奴隶社会的逐步崩溃。

铁器已经在农业、手工业生产中普遍使用，这标志着社会生产力的显著提高。此时，也开始用牛耕地。耕作技术提高了，农业生产进一步发展起来。由于冶铁技术不断提高，春秋战国之交还出现了炼钢，并首先被用于铸剑等兵器制造业。吴、越、楚等国都是当时铸造名剑的地方，出现鱼肠、干将、莫邪等名剑。

一部分工匠成为个体生产和经营者，聚居于城中的肆里，边生产边销售。被称为匠师之祖的公输般鲁班，就生活于春秋末年。

铸造金属货币产生于春秋时期，晋国是最早铸造和使用铸币的地区之一。

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Chapter 6 东周(战国)

Chapter 6 The Eastern Zhou Dynasty (The Warring States Period)

In the middle and late years of the Spring and Autumn Period, economy in all vassals states got certain development. Correspondingly, the political situation changed, and a new internal power—qing dafu evolved gradually. In 403 B. C., Jin was divided into three independent states, which symbolized the beginning of the Warring States Period. Apparently, seven powers launched wars to scramble for cities and territories, but in essence they were fierce fighting initiated by promising landlords, merchants and lobbyists to establish a landlord regime. The prolonged war lasted 182 years, and basically it was Qin that fought against the other six states—Qi, Chu, Yan, Han, Zhao, Wei and conquered all the rivals eventually. In 221 B. C., the first unified feudal dynasty in the history of China—Qin Dynasty was founded.



During the early period of the Warring States Period, there were still about 20 vassal states, among them Qi, Chu, Yan, Qin, Han, Zhao and Wei were the most powerful, known as the "Seven Overlords". Geographically Chu was in the south, Zhao in the north, Yan in the northeast, Qin in the west, Qi in the east, and Han and Wei in the center. Qin, Wei and Qi, located along the Yellow River from the west to the east, were dominant powers in the early period.

In the early and middle period, starting with the reform of Li Kui in Wei, all states carried out political reforms in order to enrich the country and build up militar-

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y powers, which laid substantial foundations for large-scale and prolonged wars.

春秋中后期，各诸侯国的经济得到不同程度的发展，政治形势也产生了相应的变化，诸侯国内部卿大夫的势力逐渐发展起来。公元前403年，以三家分晋为标志，战火连绵的战国时期开始了。这一时期的战争形式上是七个大领主争城夺地，实际是新兴地主阶级以及大商贾和说客、游士为建立地主政权而展开的激战。182年的长期战争，基本上是秦对齐、楚、燕、韩、赵、魏六国的猛烈进攻，结果秦国胜利，于公元前221年建立了中国历史上第一个统一的封建皇朝——秦朝。

战国初期，尚有20余个诸侯国，其中以齐、楚、燕、秦、韩、赵、魏7国实力最强，史称“战国七雄”。楚在南，赵在北，燕在东北，齐在东，秦在西，韩、魏在中间。在这7个大国中，沿黄河流域从西到东的3个大国——秦、魏、齐，在前期具有左右局势的力量。

战国前中期，以魏国的李悝改革为起点，各国为了富国强兵，相继展开了轰轰烈烈的变法运动，为发动规模空前、旷日持久的战争奠定了物质基础。



各国的改革
Reforms

Marquis Wen of Wei, a famous statesman, appointed Li Kui to carry out reforms. Li Kui changed the old hereditary system, and put two new agricultural policies into practice, which encouraged peasants to develop agriculture and stabilized food prices. Meanwhile, he formulated *A Book of Laws*, a famous law book. Though it was set to protect the interests of the exploiting class, it placed an important role in maintaining the social order and stabilizing the political situation in Wei. After a series reforms, Wei became the strongest state in the early Spring and Autumn Period.

In 382 B. C., Chu King Dao designated Wu Qi to reform. Similar to Li Kui, he focused his reform on the hereditary system, selecting and appointing persons on their merits, rewards and punishments being rigid. There measures rectified the political system, and strengthened the armed forces, which benefited the state but aroused the resentment of nobles. As the conservative forces of Chu were power-

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ful, when Chu King Dao died, Wu Qi was killed with arrows, and his reforms were nearly abolished.

Zhao, Han, Qi and Yan also reformed, but the most radical one took place in Qin launched by Shang Yang. Shang Yang was a declining noble of Wei, and his surname was Gongsun, a distinguished legalist. He went to Qin for not being put in an important position in Wei. In Qin he was enfiefed in Shang (in Southeast of Shang County in Shaanxi) due to his merits, therefore he was called Shang Yang.

Shang Yang's reform was a thorough revolution of the landlord class. In 356 B. C. and 350 B. C., Duke Xiao of Qin appointed Shang Yang to reform twice. His measures included: encouraging the population growth, elevating agriculture and downgrading commerce, abolishing the traditional privileges of the nobles, rewarding a person for his military exploit, registering the residents. To establish a political system of centralization, Shang Yang grouped all villages and towns into 31 counties governed by magistrates, who were designated by the monarch, in which way the sovereign's control could be reached. Since the reform of Shang Yang, Qin became the most powerful state in a short time. Though Shang Yang was put to death by his opponents, the new laws were not eliminated, which paved the way for Qin to conquer the other six states and unify the whole country.



各国的改革
Reforms

魏国的建立者魏文侯是著名的政治家，任用李悝进行改革。李悝改变旧的“世卿世禄”制度，实行“尽地力”与“善平籴”两项农业政策，鼓励农民积极发展生产，稳定粮食价格。此外，李悝还制定了《法经》。这一法律虽然主要是保护剥削阶级的利益，但对魏国来说，在维护社会秩序、稳定政局方面，起了重要的作用。经过一系列改革，魏国成为战国初期最强大的国家。

周安王二十年(公元前 382 年)，楚悼王任用吴起进行变法，他改革的重点和李悝一样，主要也是在于削弱旧的“世卿世禄”制度，选贤任能，赏罚严明。楚国经过此次改革，政治得到整顿，军力也日益强大。改革虽有利于国家，却引起了贵族的不满。楚国旧势力强大，楚悼王刚死，吴起就被乱箭射死，其改革几乎都被废除。

赵、韩、齐、燕四国亦进行了改革，但战国时期最彻底的改革当数秦国的“商鞅

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变法”。商鞅姓公孙，名鞅，卫国没落贵族，杰出的法家，他在魏不被重用而入秦。在秦以功封于商（今陕西商县东南），因称商君，亦称商鞅。

秦国的“商鞅变法”是一场比较彻底的地主阶级政治改革。公元前356年和公元前350年，秦孝公任用商鞅进行了两次变法，内容包括鼓励人口增长，重农抑商，废除世卿世禄制度，奖励军功，编制户口，为实现中央集权而建立县制。在全国设置31个县，国君直接派官吏治理，国家统一控制。自商鞅变法后，秦国一跃成为七国中实力最强的国家。虽然后来商鞅被车裂而死，新法却并未废止。商鞅变法为秦消灭六国、统一中国奠定了基础。



从诸侯称雄到秦朝统一中国
Unification

Wei held a dominant position during the early stage of the Warring States Period. However, with the growth of Qi and Qin, it became the victim of attacks and declined gradually. In 354 B. C., Wei launched a punitive expedition against Zhao, besieging its capital Handan. Qi sent out troops to rescue Zhao at the latter's request. Having Tian Ji as the commander, and Sun Bin as the military advisor, Qi launched a sudden attack on Daliang the capital of Wei (the modern Kaifeng, Henna Province) instead of Zhao. The Wei forces had to withdraw to defend their capital. When marched to Guiling (the northwest of modern Changyuan County, Henan Province), they were intercepted by Qi army. Wei suffered crushing defeated with his general, Pang Juan captured by Qi. This is the Guiling Battle famous for the strategy of "besieging Wei in order to rescue Zhao" in Chinese military history. Wei launched an attack on Han in 342 B. C.; once again Qi dispatched troops to help Han. This time, Sun Bin lured the enemy to Maling (the southwest of modern Fan County, Shandong Province), where Qi gave the Wei forces a severe blow. At the battle, Wei's crown prince, Shen was captured, and its general, Pang Juan, committed suicide.

Soon after the defeat at Maling, Wei was conquered by Qin, ceding its land on the west of the Yellow River to Qin. At that time, Qin was the biggest menace, so Wei removed the capital to Daliang from Anyi for the sake of safety in 339 B. C., and negotiated peace with other states in the Northeast at the same time. Threat-

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ened by Qin, they allied with each other, and soon a military alliance to confront Qin came into being, which was known as vertical coalition.

The formation of vertical coalition succeeded in holding back the eastward invasion of Qin for 15 years. However, the allies suspected each other, and confrontations were numerous, thus the alliance was anything but solid. In order to destroy the vertical coalition, and pave the way for its eastward development, Qin took advantage of this situation. It managed to form an alliance with the other six powers respectively through exerting military pressure or sowing political discord, which was called horizontal coalition. According historical contexts, important figures engaged in vertical coalition was Su Qin of Luoyang, while in horizontal coalition was Zhang Yi of the Wei state.

As wars went on, the horizontal coalition among Qin, Wei and Han and vertical coalition between Qi and Chu finally came into being. In 313 B. C., sending Zhang Yi as an envoy to Chu, Qin succeeded in breaking off relations between Qi and Chu. When finding cheated, King Huai of Chu dispatched troops to attack Qin. Unfortunately, Chu was not only defeated at Danyang, but also a large piece of land was captured by Qin as well. Zhang Yi also convinced Han, Zhao and Yan to have an alliance with Qin. In 301 B. C., the alliance of Qi, Han and Wei attacked Chu. In 299 B. C., being deceived, King Huai of Chu went to Qin with which he was hoping to form an alliance, but he was detained at Qin's capital Xianyang, where he later died. Since then, Chu had never recovered from the setback. Consequently, it was more difficult for the other states in northeast to ally.

As Qin and Chu fought against each other, great changes took place in Zhao, Qi and Yan simultaneously. In 307 B. C., King Wuling of Zhao carried out military reforms. He organized a powerful cavalry, clothing the cavalry men in the style of nomadic people, making it easier for them to ride and to shoot. This consolidated the military strength of Zhao, which became a new barrier on Qin's way to the east.

In 314 B. C., taking advantage of the internal disorder of Yan, Qi attacked Yan and conquered it in fifty days. As Qi's forces slaughtered a lot of inhabitants, the people of Yan rose up to rebel, and Qi was forced to withdraw. However, it indicated Qi's great potential. In 284 B. C., King Zhao of Yan dispatched general Yue Yi to launch a retaliatory war against Qi and in five years, took more than seventy cities, leaving only two cities, Jü and Jimo(the present Jimo city, Shandong), still in Qi's control. Later, Qi's general Tian Dan recovered the lost territory, but the war

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between Qi and Yan, lasting 35 years, exhausted the energy and weakened their strength in confrontation with Qin.

Qin took the opportunity to adopt a policy of befriending distant states while attacking those nearby, and unfolded a swift and fierce attack on the six powers. In 278 B. C., Qin's general Bai Qi captured Chu's capital, Ying, compelling Chu to move its capital to Chen (modern Huaiyang, Henan Province), and raised the curtain on the unification of China. In 260 B. C., Bai Qi attacked Han, and then fought for Shangdang County with Zhao. At the battle of Changping (modern Gaoping County, Shanxi Province), Bai Qi routed Zhao's troops, killing more than 400 000 men, including Zhao's general Zhao Kuo. Changping battle was decisive to Qin and it was the war with his last powerful opponent on the central plain, and it also was a final large-scale batle in the Warring States Period, which laid foundation for Qin to unify China.

In 246 B. C., 13-year-old Prince Ying Zheng ascended the throne, and the new ruler was later known as the First Emperor of the Qin Dynasty. The prime minister Lü Buwei served as regent. In 238 B. C. Qin King was in power. He put down the rebellion of Laoai, and then removed Lü Buwei, who committed suicide later. After putting internal affairs straight, Qin launched the final attack on his six rivals. In 230 B. C., Qin conquered Han with the Neishi, whose name is Teng as the leader and, in the following nine years, conquered the other states such as Zhao, Wei, Chu, Yan and Qi as well. Consequently, China, a former feudal separatist ruled country, became unified and centralized.



从诸侯称雄到秦朝统一中国
Unification

战国初期,魏国势力最强。随着齐、秦相继强盛,魏不断遭到两国的轮番进攻,逐步衰落。公元前354年,魏伐赵,围之于邯郸,赵请救于齐。齐以田忌为将,孙膑为军师,出兵未去韩而直趋大梁(今河南开封)魏的都城。魏军不得不回师救梁。行至桂陵(今河南长垣西北),遭齐军截击,魏军大败,主将庞涓被擒。这就是历史上以"围魏救赵"的战法著名于世的"桂陵之战"。公元前342年,魏又伐韩,韩亦请救于齐,齐再次出兵。孙膑诱敌至马陵(今山东范县西南),大败

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魏军。庞涓自杀,太子申被虏。

魏在马陵失败不久,又为秦击败,并被秦夺回河西之地。当时秦对魏的威胁最严重。魏为了安全,于公元前339年(魏惠王三十一年)将国都自安邑东迁大梁,并与关东各国议和。关东各国也畏于秦的东侵,就互相结盟,迅速形成了关东各国与秦的对抗。关东各国为了抗拒强秦,组成军事联盟,称为"合纵"。

"合纵"的形成,曾使秦兵不敢窥函谷关(今河南灵宝东北农涧河畔王垛村)十五年。可是关东各国之间互相猜疑,矛盾重重,在对抗秦的进攻方面,各有打算。秦为了破坏关东的"合纵",便于其向东方发展,就用军事压力和政治离间等手段,在关东争取盟国,称为"连横"。文献记载,从事于"合纵"运动的主要人物是洛阳人苏秦,从事于"连横"运动的是魏人张仪。

随着战事的不断发展,最终形成秦、魏、韩三国"连横",齐与楚两国"合纵"的对抗形势。为了破坏楚、齐联盟,公元前313年,秦派张仪出使楚国,使楚与齐绝交。当楚怀王察觉受骗,又发兵攻秦。秦军在丹阳打败楚军,攻取楚国的汉中地600里。张仪又说服韩、赵、燕与秦连横。公元前301年,齐、韩、魏联合攻楚。公元前299年,楚怀王受骗往秦,被扣留,最后死于咸阳。从此,楚国一蹶不振。关东各国虽还想合纵,情况更困难。

秦、楚抗衡之际,赵、齐、燕的国内形式也发生了巨大变化。公元前307年,赵武灵王实行胡服骑射,改传统的甲兵为骑兵,使赵国的军事实力大为增强,成为秦国向东发展的新障碍。

公元前314年,齐乘燕内乱,出兵伐燕,50余日,就攻取燕国全境。由于齐军大量杀戮平民,燕人奋起反抗,齐军被迫撤退。但此事证明,齐国的力量仍相当强大。公元前284年,燕昭王为报仇雪恨,以乐毅为帅出兵伐齐。5年间,除莒和即墨(今山东即墨市)两个城外,攻下齐70余城。虽然后来齐将田单收复了失地,但齐国与燕国长达35年的战争耗尽了两国的精力,削弱与秦抗衡的力量。

秦乘机采取远交近攻之策,展开了对六国的凌厉攻势。公元前278年,秦将白起攻破楚都郢城,迫使楚迁都于陈(今河南淮阳),揭开了秦国统一战争的序幕。公元前260年(秦昭王四十七年),白起攻韩,又与赵争夺韩的上党郡。在长平(今山西高平),大破赵军,杀赵军统帅赵括,其士卒40余万人。长平之战是秦国与他在中原最后一个强手的决战,也是战国最后一次大战。此战役的胜利奠定了秦灭六国统一中国的基础。

秦王政于公元前246年即位,时年13岁,他就是后来的秦始皇。由相国吕不韦掌权。公元前238年,秦王亲政,镇压了嫪毐的叛乱。次年,免除吕不韦的相国之职,后吕不韦自杀。秦王政整顿了国内的政治之后,就展开了对六国的进攻。公元前230年,秦灭韩,此后9年分别灭赵、魏、楚、燕、齐。中国终于由一个诸侯割据称雄的封建国家转变为一个中央集权的封建国家。

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经济发展
The Economy of the Warring States Period

Warring States period thinkers created four social classes that should be the theoretical framework for political thinking for the next two thousand years: scholars, peasants, craftsmen, and merchants. As we can observe from these four categories, peasants, by far the largest section of the Chinese population still today, played an important role in political thinking. The peasantry did not only contribute the most part of the state income by taxes, but also served as laborers for state projects and as militia in the ever larger infantry units. The heaviest burden thus lay upon the shoulders of the farmers that were not only exploited by their own ruler but also had to suffer the inflictions of the intense warfare campaigns between the contending states. In years of famine, peasants gave up their fields and engaged as craftsmen, petty traders or sold their labour force as day-laborers. In the worst case, the whole peasant family sold themselves as slaves. While during the Spring and Autumn period, only the state and the aristocracy owned slaves—either debt slaves or war prisoners—it was now possible for every wealthy household to acquire slaves. It was especially the class of merchants that was able to accumulate extraordinary wealth by purchasing cheap and selling expensive. The inter-state trade was of great importance and contributed to the cultural and economic flourishing at the end of the Warring States era. The new class of rich merchants even gained access to important political posts that were hitherto reserved to members of the aristocracy. The best example is the case of Lü Buwei, a wealthy merchant with an exceptional education background who helped to promote Prince Yiren of Qin who was exiled in Zhao to become heir apparent and later king of the state. Lü Buwei, member of the despised class of merchants, became chancellor of Qin.

During the Warring States Period, iron farm tools were in common use, replacing wooden and stone implements, which not only helped to fell trees, construct water conservancy, reclaim wastelands and practice deep ploughing and intensive cultivation, but to promote the agriculture greatly as well. When weeding, peas-

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ants paid special attention to tell the differences among various types of soil, so that they could select the suitable crops. The technique of fertilizing was improved, and a variety of manure, ranging from animal droppings to green manure and wood ashes was applied widely. At the same time, they began to give their attention to seeds selection, and plant disease and insect pets prevention. A new kind of farming method was introduced, which was convenient to ventilate the fields, and prevent water-logging. Peasants were good at breeding, weeding, intercropping and commanding farming season. The system of twice ripeness in a year was spread, which raised the output per unit enormously.

To assure the moisture of soil, Chinese farmers since oldest times built dykes and canals with small sluices, while the rulers of all states also took the development of water conservancy as one of the important measures to enrich countries. They would usually organize the digging of great canals from the rivers to the fields around the capital, like King Lianghui from Wei who had built a canal from the Yellow River to the capital Daliang (near modern Kaifeng in Henan). In Sichuan (part of Qin state then), canals and waterways dotted the Chengdu Plain. Around the capital Xianyang (modern Xianyang in Shaanxi), the Qin King had built canals to fertilize the central region of Qin with the help of Zheng Guo, a famous waterwork architect. These canals contributed to the richness of Qin. Many rulers of various states employed political advisors who proposed methods for a successful economic policy, like the legist politician Guan Zhong in Qi , Li Kui in Wei, Shang Yangin Qin, and many advisors whose methods are described in the book *Lüshi Chunqiu* . The enhanced productivity of the peasant household allowed them even to sell some surplus on the markets.

The handicraft industry of the Warring States Period also got a rapid development with the significant technology improvement in iron-smelting, bronze wares casting, lacquer and cloth-weaving. Having mastered the casting technique of pig iron, in which high temperature water was used to deoxidize iron, handicraftsmen could forge high-carbonic steel applied to swords. Bronze wares were made in the method of smelting and welding. New techniques came up that covered the surface of the vessels with beautiful ornaments made of inlaying gold and silver. Exceptionally wonderful appearance of Warring States bronze vessels were created by the lost wax technique. All of these wares were light, small and exquisite with delicate and complicated patterns. The technique and art had reached a rather high level. Glass composed of lead and barium was produced. Lacquer-work had

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grown into an independent section. A wood roughcast was painted with a variety of bright and beautiful patterns in more than ten paintings like black, red, yellow, blue, purple and white etc. Woven textiles of the Warring States period show a wide diversity in patterns and coloring, but also in weaving technique. With the development of handicraft industry, private entrepreneurs in some businesses were able to acquire wealth and finances, like the salt producer Yi Dun of Lu, Widow Qing in the state of Qin owned mines producing cinnabar, ironworks of the families Kong and Zhou in Wei, and Guo Zong in the State of Zhao.

Increasing productivity and wealth led to a likewise rising marketability of agricultural and industrial goods that were offered and purchased in the markets in the large cities. Goods from all over the country were traded along the canals and trade routes often passing through several different states before being sold in shops in capital markets. These shops were observed by a government official who had to collect taxes and to care for law and order. Even estate like fields and houses were tradable.

The existence and the development of a market economy made it necessary to produce more coins and a standardized currency. The old cowry shells (Beibi) were replaced by spade-shaped copper coins (Bubi), large specimen were used in the Central Plain while smaller types of the spade coins were produced in the state of Jin and its three successors(Zhao, Wei, Han). In the states of Yan and Qi coins in the shape of a knife (Daobi) was issued. On most coins the name of the mint was given where the coins were cast. Until the 19th century coins in China were not minted but cast. The states of Zhou, Zhao, Wei and Han were the first to issue round coins with a round hole (yuankong yuanqian), from the 3rd century B. C. Qi and Yan issued round coins with a square hole (fangkong yuanqian), a shape that became popular four bronze (copper) coins until the end of the empire in 1911. In the southern state of Chu a different kind of coin was in use, a round type with a protruding "ant nose" (Yibiqian). Larger sums were paid or stored as gold bars (jinding) or "gold cakes" (jinbing), especially in the state of Chu. Merchants like Bai Gui and Zi Gong could accumulate exorbitant wealth from the interstate trade with different goods. The most prosperous cities were seen at Linzi (modern Zibo in Shandong), capital of Qi and home for about seventy thousand households, and Ying (modern Jiangling in Hubei), capital of Chu. Many new towns were founded like Handan (modern Handan in Hebei), capital of Zhao.

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经济发展
The Economy of the Warring States Period

战国时期的思想家提出了士、农、工、商(四民)的划分理论,为其后2 000多年的政治思想提供了理论框架。在这些人中,农民对政治统治发挥着巨大的作用。他们不仅要交租税,保障政府的财政收入,还要因国家大兴土木而服徭役,在日趋扩大的军队中服兵役。他们不仅受到统治者的剥削,还要饱受战乱之苦,负担沉重。饥荒之年,农民无法种田,往往改做手艺人、小商贩或出卖体力作佣工,最糟的情况下甚至还会卖身为奴。春秋时期还只有国家和贵族才能拥有奴隶(包括债务奴隶和战争奴隶),战国时每个富有之家都可以有奴隶。特别是商人,他们通过贱买贵卖积聚了大量财富。战国末年,诸侯国之间的贸易极为重要,为繁荣经济、文化的发展做出了巨大贡献。新兴的商人阶级甚至可以谋取重要的官职。吕不韦就是一个最好的例子。他凭借自己特殊的教育背景帮助流亡在赵国的秦国公子异人成为太子,后又成为秦王,而吕不韦——一个备受歧视的商人最终成为秦的相国。

战国时,铁制农具已代替木、石农具普遍用于生产之中,不仅有利于砍伐树林、兴修水利、开垦荒地和深耕细作,而且促进了农业生产的大发展。在深耕除草的同时,农民们注意识别土壤性质,因地制宜地选择不同的作物进行种植。施肥技术提高,懂得用肥汁拌种,粪便、绿肥和灰肥被普遍施用。开始注意选择籽种,防治虫病,实行畦种法,便于通风排涝;善于培根、除草、间苗和掌握农时季节。普遍推广一年两熟制,大大提高了单位面积的年产量。

为保持土壤的水分,中国劳动人民很早就开始修筑带有水阀的沟渠。各国的统治者也把水利事业的发展看作是富国之道的重要措施之一,他们通常会组织人力开渠引水灌溉都城附近的田地。梁惠王开通了连接黄河与都城大梁(今河南开封附近)的水渠,在四川(秦的蜀郡)的成都平原上沟渠星罗棋布。秦又用水工郑国在都城咸阳外筑渠,灌溉秦中部地区。郑国为秦的富强做出了重大贡献。各国国君还纷纷聘请谋士,他们都提出了发展经济的成功政策,例如齐国的管仲,魏国的李悝,秦国的商鞅。他们的改革措施在《吕氏春秋》中都有记载。生产力的提高使农民有剩余产品可交换。

战国时,手工业大大发展。冶铁、青铜器铸造、漆器、丝织业的生产水平都有显着的提高。已经较好掌握了高温液体还原法的生铁冶铸技术,能锻打出用于剑身

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的高碳钢。青铜器的制作普遍使用熔铸、焊接。也出现了和金银嵌错和失蜡法等新工艺，产生了在铜器表面涂金、鎏金和刻纹工艺，器型轻薄灵巧，花纹细致繁复，具有高超的技术和艺术水平。铅钡琉璃业已产生。漆器制造业成为独立的手工业部门，所造漆器以木为胎，有黑、红、黄、蓝、紫、白等十多种颜色的漆，在器物上绘出各种光泽美丽的花纹。编织物的颜色和花纹以及编织工艺更为多样化。随着手工业的发展，出现了一些私营大手工业主，如鲁国煮盐的猗顿，秦国巴地开采丹砂的寡妇清，冶铁业如魏国的孔家、卓家和赵国的郭纵等。

随着生产力的提高和财富的增加，大城市的市场中可供交易的农产品、手工业品越来越多。全国各地的商品通过水路、陆路源源不断地涌入都城中的市肆。市场中设有专人收税，并维护治安。各种不动产，如土地、房屋也可以买卖。

经济的存在与发展需要更多的货币和统一的货币制度。布币取代了旧时的贝币。中原地区使用大的铲形布币，晋及其后的赵、卫、韩三国使用的是小的铲形布币，齐、燕两国主要是用刀形的刀币。大多数钱币上都铸造有地名。周、赵、卫、韩四国是最早使用圆形圆孔钱的。公元前3世纪，齐国和燕国开始使用圆形方孔钱，这种圆形方孔钱后来相当流行，一直使用到1911年，中国的封建王朝结束。南方的楚国主要是用形似贝壳的蚁鼻钱。大量的金锭和金饼被用于流通或贮存，特别是楚国的商人白圭和子贡更是通过诸侯国间的货物交易积聚了万贯家财。当时最为繁华的城市是楚国的都城郢（今湖北江陵）和齐国的都城临淄（今山东临淄），其居民多达70 000户。同时许多新城市也出现了，如赵国的都城邯郸。



周朝的文化、思想与哲学
Literature, Thought, and Philosophy in the Period of the Zhou Dynasty

The Zhou culture is apparently a mixture of different cultures of peoples that lived in the Wei River valley. After leaving the Wei River plain to expand their realm, the Zhou people adopted keenly the culture of the subdued Shang people. Oracle bone divination, bronze casting for sacrificial purposes and burying rites were almost the same as that of the Shang Dynasty. On absorbing and assimilating others, they also created the culture of their own, and the long history of the Western Zhou, the Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States

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period witnessed the splendid cultural development in ancient Chinese history. The primary cultural achievements include the following three parts.

Five Classics: *Book of Odes*, *Book of Documents*, *Book of Rites*, *Book of Changes* and *Annals of Spring and Autumn* are the most important texts to the Zhou tradition, which became also the core texts of the later Confucian classics.

The "*Book of Odes*" or (*Shijing*) is the earliest collection of hymns, critics and popular songs from the early Western Zhou and the mid-Spring and Autumn periods. Now there are 305 pieces left. It's the product over 500 to 600 years of accumulation, modification and embellishment.

The "*Book of Documents*" (*Shujing* or *Shangshu*, literally "*Texts of the Old*") is the collection of corpus, accounting the important events like major wars, class relationship, political system and policies from the Shang Dynasties to the Zhou period. They are valuable historical documents.

The third great text is the "*Book of Changes*" (*Yijing* or *Zhouyi*), a manual for milfoil divination. Its ideas on natural and social changes are simply dialectic. It is said to have been compiled by the Duke of Zhou.

"*The Book of Rites*" is the compilation of partial rites system over the period of the Spring and Autumn and the Warring States, totally 17 pieces. It is traditionally believed to have been compiled by the Duke of Zhou and revised by Confucius.

The Spring and Autumn Annals is the earliest annalistic work, which is mainly about the history of the state of Lu. Confucius is the supposed writer.

The Hundred Schools of Thought: The Spring and Autumn and The Warring States period is the transitional time from feudal fief lords to feudal landlords, when contentions between the new class and the old became complicated and intense. Scholars or thinkers on behalf of different classes and political powers attempted to explain the universe and society or make proposals according to the interests and demands of their own class or group. Consequently, the contention of hundred schools of thought in the ideological field came into being. Among them are Confucianism, Daoism, Mohist and Legist who have the great influence in the ideological field.

Confucius, whose personal name was Qiu and courtesy name Zhongni, was born in 551 B. C. and died in 479 B. C., a native of the state Lu in the late Spring and Autumn period. During his youth, Confucius was for a time a low-ranking and then middle official; then he set up a school and lived on teaching. He traveled to the states of Wei, Song, Chen, Cai, Chu to spread his political opinions, which

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had never been adopted.

Confucius is a great thinker as well as an educator. In politics, he advocated the sage rulers of Yao, Shun and Yu, praising the system of the Western Zhou, supposing it the ideal society. Benevolence was the core of his political and world views. The system and rules instituted to realize it is called Li. Confucius proposed the performance of a benevolent policy. The theory of Confucius not only pushed forward the ancient politics and ethic to a new stage, but also it was the essence of politics and social doctrine of Chinese feudal society. The collection of Confucius' sayings is called *the Analects* or *Lunyu* .

As the pioneer of private schooling, Confucius was said to have 3 000 students.

Mencius and Xunzi are the followers of the Confucianism. Mencuis inherited and developed the theory of Confucius with benevolence and righteousness as the pith of his theory. He assumed that man was good by nature, advocating the benevolent administration and the protection of people and objecting to the dogfight launched by various vassals and cruel exploitation and suppression. All his ideas could be found in his book *Mencius* .

Xunzi, also known as Xun Kuang or Xun Qing, was a native of Zhao. Though a Confucian, he had the idea of Legist, contrary to Mencius, assuming that mankind was naturally evil and therefore had to be guided by ritual and rules. The book *Xunzi* contains most of his important ideas.

The second great philosophical school of China, after Confucianism, is Daoism. Lao Zi is the founder of it, whose surname was Li and personal name Er, also known as Lao Dan, a native of Chu and a contemporary of Confucius. *Daodejing* of Laozi was completed in the period the Warring States. It was in favor of letting nature take its own course and of non-interference in people's life. An ideal society was one small in population and territory.

Zhuangzi was the representative of Daoism in the Warring State Period. Zhuangzi's personal name was Zhou, a native of Zhao. He wrote the book *Zhuangzi* .

Mozi was the founder of Mohists. His personal name was Di, a native of Lu. The book *Mozi* contains most of his thoughts. His greatest merits were the proposals of a universal love and non-violence. He objected to wars, the decayed lifestyle of the ruling class and extravagant funerals.

The thought of Legists reflected the interests of the emerging landlord class. In

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the early period its leaders were Li Kui, Shang Yang, Shen Buhai and finally Han Fei. Han Fei was born in a noble family in Han; he and Li Si were the students of Xunzi. He wrote the book of *Han Feizi*, illustrating his thought and proposals. He advocated laws and objected to the doctrine of Confucianism as well as errantry. He maintained that a sage ruler should neither long for the past nor copy obsolete rules. Instead, they should look at social conditions and adopt appropriate measures. The king of Qin paid attention to his thought. Then Han Fei came to Qin from Han, but he was murdered by Li Si, who was jealous of his talents.

Literature: From the Western Zhou to the Warring States Period, the masterpieces in literature were the *Book of Odes* and *Elegies of Chu*, while Qu Yuan's works were the best example of the latter.

Qu Yuan, whose personal name was Ping, a noble of Chu, was born in 340 B. C. and died in 278 B. C. He was worried about the fate of Chu, hoping to improve its political situation and ally with the state of Qi against Qin. However, the fatuous kings of Chu didn't follow his advices, and even exiled him twice.

Qu Yuan's works were a collection of poetic verses and songs written in the local dialect and tone of Chu, possessing strong regional characteristics and a unique style. It vividly portrayed the author's love to his motherland and the indignation to the corrupt and reactive aristocracy. Qu Yuan's works exerted tremendous influence on the development of Chinese literature.



周朝的文化、思想与哲学
Literature, Thought, and Philosophy in the Period of the Zhou Dynasty

周文化融合了居住在渭水流域的各个民族的文化。在向外拓展领土的同时,周人还接受了臣服的商文化,用龟骨占卜,铸造祭祀用的铜器等活动都与商时相同。在吸收借鉴他人的同时,周人也创造了自己的辉煌文化。西周、春秋、战国是我国古代文化大发展时期,主要文化成就有如下3个方面。

1. 五经:"五经"是《诗》、《书》、《易》、《礼》、《春秋》,是记录周文化传统的重要古典文献,也是儒家的经典著作。

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《诗》也叫做《诗经》,是我国最早的一部诗集,现存305篇。最早的约创作于西周初年,最晚的约创作于春秋中期。全书经过500~600年时间的积累,并经过搜集者的加工和润色而成。

《书》也叫做《书经》或《尚书》,是我国最早的一部文集。主要记述商、周两代的一些重大政治事件,如重要战争、阶级关系、政治制度和政策等,有很高的史料价值。

《易》也叫做《易经》或《周易》,是我国最早的占卜用书。其对自然或社会变化的论述,富有朴素的辩证法观点。相传该书为周公所编。

《礼》是春秋、战国时期的部分礼仪制度的汇编,共有17篇。旧说周公制作后经孔子修订。

《春秋》也叫做《春秋经》,是我国最早的一部编年体历史著作,以鲁国的历史为主。相传经孔子整理成书。

2. 诸子百家:春秋、战国时期是由封建领主制向封建地主制过渡的时期,新旧阶级之间斗争复杂而又激烈。代表各阶级、各派政治力量的学者或思想家,都企图按照本阶级(层)或本集团的利益和要求,对宇宙对社会做出解释,或提出主张,于是出现了一个思想领域里的"百家争鸣"的局面。其中的儒、道、墨、法四家在思想领域影响最大。

孔子,名丘,字仲尼(公元前551~公元前479年),春秋后期鲁国人。曾在鲁国任下级和中级官吏。后自办学校,以教书为业。为宣传他的政治主张,先后游访了卫、宋、陈、蔡、楚等国,但均不被采用。

孔子是一位伟大的思想家和教育家。政治上尊崇尧、舜、文、武、周公,赞扬西周的制度,奉之为人类的理想社会。"仁"是孔子的政治观和社会观的核心。为实现"仁"而制定的制度和行为准则为"礼"。孔子主张行"仁政"。孔子有关"仁"和"礼"的学说把我国古代的政治和社会伦理思想推进到一个新的阶段,此学说是我国封建时代政治和社会理论的精华,其重要言论收在《论语》中。

孔子是我国古代私人办学的先驱。相传他有弟子3 000。

儒家的代表人物还有孟子和荀子。孟子继承孔子的学说而有所发展,其学说的核心是"仁、义"。他提出"人之出,性本善",行"仁政"、"保民",反对诸侯混战,反对残酷的剥削和压迫,对当时各国的政治和战争多所抨击,其主要学说多收在所著《孟子》一书中。

荀子名况,时人尊称他为荀卿,赵国人。虽为儒家,但有较浓厚的法家思想。与孟子不同,他认为人之初性本恶,其主要学说多收在所著《荀子》一书中。

道家是继儒家后的第二大学说。老子是道家的创始人,姓李名耳字聃,楚国人。约与孔子同时。老子的《道德经》一书约成于战国时期。主张"顺其自然,无为而治"。认为理想的社会形态是小国寡民。

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道家在战国时期的代表人物是庄子。庄子名周，宋人，著有《庄子》一书。

墨子（约公元前468～公元前376年）名翟，鲁国人。墨家的创始人。《墨子》一书基本上保存了他的思想，最有代表性的主张是“兼爱”和“非攻”。他反对战争，反对统治阶级的腐朽生活，反对厚葬。

法家是反映新兴地主阶级利益的思想流派。前期法家的代表人物有李悝、商鞅和申不害，后期法家的代表人物是韩非。韩非（约公元前280～公元前232年）出身于韩国贵族，和李斯同是荀子的学生。著有《韩非子》一书，阐明他的思想和主张。他崇尚法治，反对儒家说教，也反对民间的游侠横行。他主张：“明主之国，无书简之文，以法为教；无先王之语，以吏为师。”韩非的主张很为秦王政所重视。后韩非自韩至秦，李斯嫉妒他的才能，把他谋害致死。

3. 文学：西周至战国时期，文学的代表作，前期有《诗经》，后期有《楚辞》。屈原的著作又是《楚辞》的代表。

屈原（约公元前340年～约公元前278年）名平，楚国贵族。他对楚国的命运很关心，想改善政治状况并联合齐国以抵抗强秦。可是楚王昏庸，不听他的主张，还先后两次将他流放。

屈原的作品采用楚国民间诗歌的形式、用楚国的方言而写成，有鲜明的地域特征和色彩。生动而形象地表达了他对祖国的热爱和对腐朽反动的贵族统治的愤怒。屈原的作品对中国文学的发展起到了重大作用。

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Chapter 7 Qin Dynasty 秦朝

In 221 B. C., King Zheng conquered its six rival states of the Warring States Period, put the long-time separatist lord regime to an end and found the first unified, autocratic and power-centralized feudal empire in Chinese history, making Xianyang, (a city near Xi'an in the Shaanxi Province), his capital city. The Qin enacted various important political and economic laws to consolidate the unification, which laid foundation for the establishment and development of Chinese feudalism. However, all the changes taking place within a short period of ten years shed harshness and brutality on the reign, and consequently led to peasant revolutions, overthrowing the Qin Dynasty. Although Qin is a short-lived dynasty with a span of only fifteen years, it starts off a 2,000-year-long imperial history in China, exerting a far-reaching influence on later dynasties, and its achievements are meritorious.

公元前 221 年,秦王嬴政(公元前 246 ~ 公元前 210 年)统一六国,结束了长期的诸侯割据的局面,建立了中国历史上第一个专制主义中央集权的国家,定都咸阳(在今陕西西安附近)。为了巩固统一大业,秦朝颁行了若干项新的重要政治、经济制度和政策、措施,为中国封建地主制社会的确立和发展奠定了基础。但是在短短的十来年内完成的诸多变革,使秦朝统治带上了苛急、暴虐的色彩,由此导致的秦末农民起义迅速推翻了秦王朝的统治。秦朝虽仅存 15 年,却是中国 2000 年封建历史的开端,但它对后世产生了深远影响,历史功绩不可磨灭。

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建立专制主义中央集权制国家
The Establishment of Centralized Government

The establishment of centralization: King Ying Zheng considered his achievement surpassing all the ancient rulers, therefore taking account of the legendary "San Huang (three emperors)" and "Wu Di (five sovereigns)", he gave himself a more distinguished title: "Qin Shi Huang" or "Qin Shi Huangdi", which means he was the first emperor of China. He wanted his successors to rule China forever with the title "Second Emperor", "Third Emperor", etc. Since then, "Emperor" had become an honorific title to the supreme ruler of the feudal society.

Immediately after the unification, the First Emperor (Qin Shi Huang, as he is generally known) declared to abolish the feudal fiefdoms and set a new autocratic system of centralized bureaucracy to meet demands of the landlord class. The Qin Empire relied on the philosophy of legalism (with skillful advisors like Han Feizi and Li Si). Centralization, achieved by ruthless methods, was focused on standardizing legal codes and bureaucratic procedure. The whole administrative set-up was like a pyramid. The emperor perched on the top, beneath him was the central government composed of three chancellors and nine ministers, who assisted the emperor to handle government affairs. Then Chengxiang (chief minister) aided the emperor in governing the country, Tai wei (marshal) took charge of military affairs, and the Yushi Dafu (censor) supervised officials of all ranks.

On the local levels, the system of prefectures and counties were put into practice. The whole empire was divided into 36 prefectures (later increased to 41), administered by a civil governor (*Junshou*), a military commander (*Duwei*.) The prefectures were divided into counties (*Xian*), administered by a magistrate (*xianling*). Under the counties, township officials administered education, justice taxation and public security. Under the townships, households, consisting of individual families in which men farmed and women wove at home, were organized in groups of five or ten. All the regional governments were subordinate to the central

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government, which was ruled by the emperor himself. Thus, the centralism came into being. The imperial court extended its control right down to the grass-roots units of the household groups which supplied labour, taxation and draftees. The First Emperor understood the importance of the individual families to the feudal empire.

The landed class availed this imperial system to control and suppress the people, but as a breakthrough in politics, it played a positive role in consolidation of the country and the economic and cultural development, and continued to be used over the next two millennia.

Standardization: On the basis of the established Qin standards, the First Emperor pushed forward economic and cultural reforms, eliminating regional diversities by every means, and consolidating the stability and unification of the imperial regime. The private ownership of lands, along with standardized currency and weights and measures promoted the development of economy.

Since all the cartwheel ruts had the same width, the axle length was fixed to six *chi* to ease transportation throughout the country. The writing system, especially the shape of characters, was reformed and resulted in the so-called Small Seal Script (*xiaozhuanti*), which effectively urged the cultural exchange.



建立专制主义中央集权制国家
The Establishment of Centralized Government

建立中央集权制度:秦王嬴政自认为功劳高于古代所有的帝王,于是兼采三皇五帝的尊号,宣布自己为始皇帝,后世子孙代代相承,递称二世、三世。这就是"秦始皇"一名的由来。从此,"皇帝"一词就成为封建国家的最高统治者的尊号。

在统一中国的同时,秦始皇即宣布废除封建领主制,创行新的适合于封建地主阶级专制主义的中央集权制度。秦以法家思想治国,拥有像李斯、韩非子等精通法学的谋士。以政令统一为中心,通过残暴的高压政策实现中央集权。秦的行政体制像金字塔一样。皇帝居于塔尖,其下设中央机关,以协助皇帝领导全国,处理政务。中央机关采用"三公九卿制",丞相、太尉、御史大夫等"三公"分掌政务、军务及监察。

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全国范围内实行郡县制度，分天下为三十六郡（后来增至四十一郡），由郡守、都尉和御史共同管理。郡下设县，由县令掌管。县下又有乡、亭、里等基层组织，乡官负责教育、司法、税收、安全等事项，5 到 10 个家庭为一里，每个家庭都是男耕女织。这样，全国由上到下均置于皇帝及其家族的严密统治之下，中央集权的制度从此确立。朝廷的统治可以延展到每个家庭，而家庭又是劳役、兵役和税收的重要提供者。秦始皇深知家庭对国家统治的重要性。

皇帝制、三公九卿制和郡县制是一套完整的封建政治制度，是地主阶级用来统治、镇压广大劳动人民的工具。但是作为古代政治制度的新发展，亦对巩固国家统一，促进社会经济、文化发展，起到了积极作用。在此后 2 000 多年的封建社会中，基本上沿用了这些制度。

实行统一经济、文化政策：秦始皇以原有的秦制为基础，大力推进有利于封建地主经济、文化发展改革，尽可能消除由于长期分裂割据造成的地区差异，巩固新建王朝安定、统一。实行土地私有化，统一货币和度量衡，促进经济的发展。

在全国范围统一车轨，大车的两轮之间，皆宽 6 尺，史称“车同轨”，促进了交通运输业的发展。秦始皇还对文字，特别是字型进行了改革，出现了小篆体。文字的统一有效地促进了文化交流。

镇压反动势力
The Suppression of anti-forces

Despite all great jobs he did, Qin Shi Huang ruled as a ruthless tyrant. To prevent future uprisings, Qin Shi Huang ordered to confiscate weapons, to destroy the city walls and military fortifications and to move the old nobles and magnates of the six states to Xianyang, Nanyang and Bashu so as to weaken their political and economic influence.

To facilitate the movement of troops and the transportation of army provisions, the First Emperor ordered to build highways. Meanwhile, the *Lingqu* Canal was dug, which linked the Yangtze River and the Zhujiang River together.

Burning books and burying scholars alive were brutal suppression in ideological field with which the First Emperor repressed the dissenting ones, and exercised autocratic control over thinking and culture. In 213 B. C., at a court banquet, *Chun* Yuyue proposed to follow the conventions of fief system and granted titles and

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lands to the heroes and nobles. Li Si, the Prime Minister held that these scholars were dangerous, so suggested that all historical records except those written by Qin historians be burned; that *the Books of Odes* and *Book of History* and works by scholars of different schools except those stored by officials be handed in to the local authorities for burning; that anyone discussing these two particular books be executed; that those using ancient examples to criticize contemporary politics be put to death and their families killed; that those who had not burned the listed books within 30 days be sentenced to four years' service; that books about medicine, divination, agriculture be preserved. The First Emperor accepted all these proposals, and then the event of burning books occurred.

In the second year of burning books, the event of burying scholars alive underwent. Dissatisfied with the First Emperor, some Confucian scholars and alchemists criticized him. The First Emperor sent inspectors to investigate, then arrested over 460 people and finally had all of them buried alive in Xianyang. By these means, the First Emperor gave a heavy blow on the aristocratic splittism, but wrecked the culture severely at the same time, causing enormous losses in the conservation of ancient documents and impartment of learning. All the practice made by the First Emperor were in line with the legalists, and many of his such behaviors had demonstrated it.

镇压反动势力
The Suppression of anti-forces

尽管秦始皇有许多创举，但他却是个暴君。为了防范暴乱，秦始皇下令收缴散落在民间的兵器，拆毁各地的城墙和防御工事，迁徙各国的旧贵族和豪富到咸阳及南阳、巴蜀等地，以削弱他们的政治、经济势力。

秦始皇为了方便调拨士卒和转运粮饷，又大修驰道。同时开凿灵渠，沟通了长江和珠江水系。

“焚书坑儒”事件则是秦始皇在意识形态领域内对不同政见士人的残酷镇压，是对思想文化的专制统治。公元前213年，秦始皇在咸阳宫举行宴会，博士齐人淳于越倡议，主张学古法，分封皇子功臣为诸侯。丞相李斯认为这样一群儒生是一种危险势力，于是提出了焚书的建议：“史官非秦记皆烧之。非博士官所职，天下敢有

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藏《诗》、《书》、百家语者，悉诣守、尉杂烧之。有敢偶语《诗》、《书》者弃市。以古非今者诛。吏见知不举者与同罪。令下三十日不烧，黥为城旦。所不去者，医药卜筮种树之书。”秦始皇接受了这一建议，于是就发生了焚书事件。

第二年，又发生了坑儒事件。起因是由于有些儒生和方士对秦始皇不满。秦始皇派御史侦察，先后逮捕了460多个儒生，全部在咸阳坑杀。秦始皇以焚书坑儒的手段打击了贵族政治的分裂思想，同时却严重摧残了文化，对于古文献的保存和学术的传授，造成了极大的损失。秦始皇施政定制根本上是以法家思想为依据。焚书坑儒以及”以法为教“，”以吏为师“等，更突出地反映了他的法家思想。



经略边疆
The Frontier Defence

Xiongnu, a powerful nomadic people living on the Mongolian plateau, often harassed the south at the end of the Warring States Period. In 215 B. C., the First Emperor had Meng Tian lead 300 000 soldiers to fend off these nomads, and finally recovered the south area of Hetao plain. Then, Meng Tian crossed the Yellow River northward, repaired and augmented the old walls left by Qin, Zhao and Yan according to the terrain, and eventually linked these defense works together to form the Great Wall extending from Lintao (modern Minxian County, Gansu Province) in the west to the Liaodong Peninsula in the east to protect the Northern agricultural areas. Tens of thousands of families were migrated to Hetao subsequently, which played a positive role in land reclamation and frontier defence.

Besides the building of public projects, the emperor ordered a string of palaces built. For the construction of the Epang Palace alone, 700 000 peasants were conscripted, while the building of his mausoleum took over 30 years to complete. In order to continue his reign after his death, he also ordered the construction of the Terra-Cotta Army in the east of his mausoleum.

All of these activities required enormous levies of manpower and resources, not to mention repressive measures. Endless labor, heavy taxation and harsh laws in the later years of the First Emperor's reign started to provoke widespread social discontent.

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经略边疆
The Frontier Defence

匈奴人分布在蒙古高原上，战国末年以来，常向南方侵犯。公元前215年，秦始皇派蒙恬率军30万抗击匈奴，收复河套以南地区。蒙恬又北渡黄河，利用地势，修缮、增补旧秦、赵、燕长城，并将其连接起来，筑成西起临洮（今甘肃岷县）、东迄辽东的万里长城，用来保护北方农业区域。接着，秦又徙民几万家于河套。这对于边地的开垦和边防的加强起到了积极作用。

秦始皇下令建造了许多宫殿，仅阿旁宫一处就征用了70万人，而始皇陵的建造更是花了30年的时间才完成。为了能在死后继续统治，秦始皇还下令在其陵墓以东修建兵马俑。

秦始皇的这一列系举措不但征用了大量的人力、物力，还以各种强制手段作为保障。频繁的徭役，沉重的赋税，加之残酷的刑罚令民众大为不满。



秦朝的灭亡
Downfall of the Qin Dynasty

Qin Shi Huang longed for longevity, so he sent his ministers to go on quests seeking for an elixir of immortality. However, death claimed him before he could find success on that matter. In 210 B. C., the First Emperor died unexpectedly on his inspection tour. The eunuch Zhao Gao and chancellor Li Si conspired to forge the emperor's will, declaring that the emperor ordered Fusu, the crown prince, to commit suicide, and his younger brother Hu Hai, the emperor's favorite, to succeed to the throne. Therefore, Hu Hai was installed as the Second Emperor. With the worsened exploitation and oppression, the contradictions were intensified, and a large-scale peasant uprising was on the verge of breaking out. When peasants were fermenting rebellion, the remaining aristocratic forces of the former six states were also waiting for their chances to carry out splitting activi-

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ties.

The uprising led by Chen Sheng and Wu Guang in Daze Township: In 209 B. C., when the Second Emperor got into the throne only 10 months, the Peasant Uprising led by Chen Sheng and Wu Guang broke out. In July, a band of 900 conscripted peasants heading for Yuyang (modern Miyun County, Beijing) for guard duties were delayed by heavy rain in Daze Township (part of Suxian County in Anhui Province), and it was impossible for them to arrive on time. According to the law of Qin, those who failed to report should be executed. Faced with the menace of death, they raised the first banner of a large-scale peasant insurrection at the head of Chen Sheng and Wu Guang. The insurgent army captured Daze Township and Qi County successively. When they took Chen County, the old capital of the state Chu (present Huaiyang, Henan), the number of the forces had reached up to tens of thousands. Consequently, they established the first revolutionary regime of peasants—Zhangchu, and Chen Sheng was made the king, and Chen County the capital.

The rebellious forces quickly grew into a large army with several hundred thousands of soldiers. They broke up into three forces to attack Qin. When the branch led by Zhou Wen besieged Xianyang, the capital of Qin, the Second Emperor became panic-stricken and mustered his troops in various parts of the country to launch a counter defence. Being lack of military training and war experience, the branch was defeated by the overwhelming Qin army.

Meanwhile, because of the split in its own side, Wu Guang was killed by his subordinates, and Chen Sheng was also assassinated. Thus, the insurgence led by Chen Sheng and Wu Guang failed.

The Battle of Julu: On the uprising of Chen Sheng, Xiang Liang and his nephew Xiang Yu rose up in Wu Zhong (modern Suzhou, Jiangsu Province), together with Liu Bang in Pei (present Pei County in Jiangsu Province). The old nobles of the six states also took opportunity to rebel, attempting to revive their countries. After the death of Chen Sheng, Xiang Liang made the grandson of King Huai of Chu, Mi Xin, the Prince of Chu for the sake of commending the public in 208 B. C. At that time, Xiangs became two important leaders of the peasants. When Qin general, Zhang Han launched a sudden attack on Xiang Liang at Dingtao (in modern Shandong Province), Xiang Liang was killed in the battle, and the insurrectionary army suffered an utter defeat. After the success, Zhang Han led his troops northward to attack the state of Zhao. The Prince Xie of Zhao was compelled to aban-

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don the capital Handan (in modern city of Handan in Hebei), and retreated to Julu (in modern Xingtai, Hebei). Zhang Han followed up the victory with a hot pursuit, ordering the general Wang Li, his assistant, to besiege the city. King of Zhao sent for reinforcements throughout the country.

Prince of Chu, sent Xiang Yu as the second-in-command to Song Yi in an expeditory force to relieve Zhao. After arriving at Anyang (in modern Henan Province), Song Yi didn't proceed any further for forty-six days fear of Qin. Xiang Yu persuaded him to move, collaborating with the Zhao army to conquer the Qin forces at one stroke. However, Song intended to save strength, waiting for Qin and Zhao forces to wear out each other, so refused Xiang's proposal. Xiang took extreme measures and assassinated Song later. The other generals offered Song's command to him, and Prince Huai of Chu was forced to retroactively approve it.

The relief forces sent by other rebel principalities built fortresses and fortifications, but dared not engage in warfare with Qin army, while Xiang Yu was an exception, who decided to fight it out with Qin. At first, he shut off the supply lines of Qin forces, and cut off the connection between Wang Li and Zhang Han. Then, he led his troops cross the river, having all the boats and cooking vessels destroyed and ordered his soldiers to carry enough grain rations for only three days to make it clear that no one could return unless they won. He directed his forces to launch successive attacks on Qin. After nine engagements, the imperial army was routed, Wang Li was captured, and Zhang Han fled south. The siege of Julu was released eventually. This victory virtually annihilated the military strength of the Qin Dynasty, turned the war situations and created a favorable condition for overthrowing the reactive rule of Qin.

When the Qin army besieged Julu, Prince Huai of Chu made an agreement with Xiang Yu and Liu Bang that whoever got to Guanzhong first would be made the King of Guanzhong. When Xiang Yu was engaged in the battle of Julu, Liu Bang in command of another expeditory force attacked Qin from the west. In a year's devious march, his troops took wuguan Pass, gateway to the heartland of the Qin regime, threatening the capital city of Xianyang in August 207 B. C.

It was during this period that the fight between factions started within the Qin ruling clique. Initially, Li Si, the prime minister, died at the hand of Zhao Gao and the Second Emperor. Shortly, Zhao Gao forced Huhai to commit suicide and replaced him with his nephew, Ziying. The title of Emperor was abolished and what Ziying assumed was "King of Qin". Before long, Ziying killed Zhao Gao and sur-

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rendered to Liu Bang when Liu arrived at Bashang (now the east of Xi'an city, Shaanxi) in October 207 BC, thus the Qin Dynasty came to an end. Liu Bang proclaimed himself the King of Guanzhong and won acclaim by instituting three regulations: "Let those who kill be executed, those who inflict be injured or rob others be punished."

The Qin Dynasty was short-lived, but particularly important. The First Emperor (Qin Shi Huang) was a tyrant, whereas he also made great contribution to the development of Chinese history. In a word, Qin devastated culture, yet it was a pioneer in certain aspects.

The war between Chu and Han: Xiang Yu was furious at the news of Liu Bang's entrance to Guanzhong. In December, he arrived at Hangu Pass with an army of 400 000. Only having 100 000 men, Liu Bang was forced to sue for peace. After overbearing Liu Bang, Xiang Yu entered Xianyang where he killed Ziying, burnt palaces, slaughtered and plundered wantonly. Then, he proclaimed himself the Hegemonic King of Western Chu and made Pengcheng the capital of his domain. He also granted fiefdoms to eighteen princes. With regard to Liu Bang, he gave him the title of Prince of Han with a fief covering Hanzhong, and Bashu. The allocations of Xiang Yu aggravated the separatist vassal regime. Qi soon rose in revolt, and the tangled warfare among vassals broke out again.

Liu Bang availed this opportunity to take possession of Guanzhong, then marched east from it, and unfolded a fight against Xiang Yu, contending for supremacy. From 206 B. C. to 202 B. C., Liu Bang and Xiang Yu were at war for many times. Suffering from a series of defeat, Liu Bang became strong gradually. Then the two men reached an agreement that Honggou Canal (modern Jialu River in Henan) be made the demarcation line, with the territory on the east going to Chu and on the west to Han. In December 202 B. C., Liu Bang joined forces with Han Xin at Gaixia (modern Guzhen, in Anhui) and surrounded Xiang Yu. However, he managed to collect eight hundred cavalrymen and fight his way to Wujiang (in modern Hexian County, Anhui Province), where he committed suicide. With his chief rival wiped out, Liu Bang unified China and built his dynasty—the Western Han. He ascended the throne to become known as Emperor Gao Zu of the Han Dynasty.

The peasant uprising at the end of the Qin Dynasty is the first rebellion countrywide in Chinese history, which not only pulled down the ruthless ruling clique of Qin, but pushed forward the social development as well. The battle between Chu

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and Han was originated from it. Though the peasant revolution succeeded in overthrowing the rule of the Qin Dynasty, the former leaders, Liu Bang and Xiang Yu transformed into rivals contending for sovereignty.

Apart from his great achievements that were actually the base for the foundation of the Han empire , the First Emperor was blamed to have burned books and buried alive Confucian scholars. The only books that were not forbidden are writings about medicine, herbs, divining and agriculture, however, arts and thinking were still going on under the First Emperor and prepared for the great flourishing of literature and philosophy in the Han Dynasty. Although the practical policy of the Qin rulers was legist, thus severe, bureaucratic and austere, the inscriptions in the steles the First Emperor had erected, also show that Confucian thinking like filial piety, humanity and righteousness of the ruler was still there. The emperor himself was very interested in Daoist practices to prolong his life or to gain immortality. He sent out an expedition to search for the islands of immortality called Penglai. After the proclamation as the First Emperor, he changed the official colors to black according to the theory of the Five Elementsand their cosmic influence. Meteors, flood and drought were a heavenly hint to him as well as it had been to the former Zhou kings. A comprehensive anthology of philosophical thinking around 250 BC is the *Lüshi Chunqiu* , compiled by the chancellor Lü Buwei.



秦朝的灭亡
Downfall of the Qin Dynasty

秦始皇想长生不老，于是派人去寻找可以让人长生不老的仙丹。可是还没等找到仙丹，他的末日就到了。公元前210年，秦始皇在巡游途中突然驾崩。太监赵高和丞相李斯合谋篡改遗诏，声称秦始皇命太子扶苏自尽，由其弟胡亥继位。后胡亥登基，即秦二世。随着剥削和压迫的加重，社会矛盾更加激化，大规模的农民起义已经到一触即发的地步。在农民酝酿反秦的时候，六国旧贵族残余势力也在伺机进行分裂活动。

陈胜、吴广大泽乡起义：公元前209年，秦二世继位仅10个月爆发了陈胜、吴广领导的农民起义。7月，一队开赴渔阳（今北京密云）戍边士卒900人，遇雨停留在大泽乡（今安徽宿县境），不能如期赶到戍地。秦法规定，戍卒误期当斩。他们面

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临着死刑的威胁。于是,在陈胜、吴广的领导下,在大泽乡举起了中国历史上第一次大规模农民起义的旗帜。他们先后攻占大泽乡、蕲县,在攻下楚的故都陈县(今河南淮阳)时,已有战士数万人。起义军推举陈胜为王,在陈县建立了中国历史上的第一个农民政权——张楚政权。

起义军的队伍迅速壮大到几十万人,分三路攻秦。当周文率领的队伍攻至秦的首都咸阳城下时,秦二世惊慌失措,速调集各地军队镇压起义军。由于缺乏训练,没有作战经验,加之寡不敌众,义军被秦军击溃。

与此同时,由于内部发生分裂,吴广被其属下杀死,而陈胜也遭暗杀。至此,陈胜、吴广领导的农民起义失败。

项羽巨鹿之战:陈胜起义后,项梁、项羽和刘邦相继在吴中(今江苏苏州)、沛县聚众起义。六国旧贵族也乘机起兵,企图恢复旧国。在陈胜死后,项梁于前208年立楚怀王之孙羋心为楚王,以为号召。项梁,项羽叔侄成为当时农民起义军的领袖。可就在这时,秦将章邯突袭项梁军于定陶(今属山东),项梁战死,起义军大败。定陶之战后,章邯移师北上,攻打赵国。赵王歇被迫放弃都城邯郸(现河北省邯郸市),退守巨鹿(今河北邢台)。章邯乘胜追击,命王离围困巨鹿(今邢台)。赵王派人向各地求援。

楚怀王命宋义为上将、项羽为次将,率兵北上救赵。大军抵达安阳后宋义即畏缩不前,一连驻扎了46天。项羽劝他迅速进兵,同赵军里应外合,一举击败秦军。宋义却想保存实力,乘秦、赵相斗,坐收渔利,故拒绝了项羽的建议。后项羽杀宋义,诸将拥戴其为将军。楚怀王见事已如此,便命项羽率军救赵。

各路反秦义军来救援赵者都筑垒壁守,不敢与秦军接战。唯有项羽决心与秦军决一雌雄。他先切断秦军运粮的甬道,分割王、章两军的联系。后亲自率楚军渡河,并下令全军破釜沉舟,规定每人只带三日口粮,以显示与秦军决一死战的决心。项羽指挥楚军连续作战,九战九捷,大破秦军,王离被虏,章邯南逃,解巨鹿之围。这场大战的胜利,基本上消灭了秦王朝赖以存在的军队,扭转了整个战局,为最后推翻秦王朝的反动统治创造了极有利的条件。

秦军围攻巨鹿时,楚怀王与项羽、刘邦约定,谁先入关灭秦,谁为"关中王"。在项羽救巨鹿时,刘邦奉命由西击秦。经过一年的迂回进军,于公元前207年八月,攻入武关,直逼咸阳。

当时秦的统治集团内部发生了火并。起初是赵高与秦二世勾结,杀掉李斯。不久,赵高又杀掉秦二世,取消皇帝称号,另立二世之侄子婴为秦王。子婴又杀赵高。10月刘邦军至霸上(今陕西西安市东),子婴投降,秦亡。刘邦宣布自己为"关中王",同时约法三章:"杀人者死,伤人及盗抵罪",深得秦人拥护。

秦朝是短暂的朝代,但又是极重要的朝代。秦始皇是暴虐的皇帝,但又是对历史有巨大贡献的皇帝。秦是文化的摧残者,但在某些方面又是先进者。

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楚汉战争:项羽听说刘邦已先入关,大怒,也率军于同年12月入函谷关。这时,项羽有士卒40万人,刘邦只有10万人,刘邦被迫求和。项羽入咸阳,杀子婴,烧秦宫,大肆杀掠。后自立为西楚霸王,建都彭城(今江苏铜山县),封十八王。刘邦为汉王,居巴蜀汉中。项羽的这一做法使诸侯割据的局面更为恶化。不久齐国首先发难,诸侯混战再次爆发。

刘邦乘机迅速占领关中,又东向出关,与项羽展开争夺天下的斗争。公元前206年至前202年,刘邦与项羽多次交战。经过一系列失败后,刘邦的势力逐渐强大起来,于是二人达成协议"中分天下",以鸿沟(今河南贾鲁河)为界,河东属于楚,河西属于汉。公元前202年12月,刘邦、韩信在垓下(今安徽固镇)会师,包围了项羽。项羽率800骑兵突围,逃至乌江(今和县境)自杀。刘邦统一中国,建立西汉王朝。刘邦即汉高祖。

秦末农民大起义是我国历史上第一次全国范围的农民大起义,推翻了贪婪残暴的秦统治集团,使社会得以前进。而楚汉之战则是由秦末农民战争直接演化而来的。农民战争虽然胜利地推翻了秦朝,但曾经是农民战争领袖的刘邦和项羽,却逐步转化为封建统治权的角逐者。

秦始皇创立的伟业虽为汉朝的建立奠定了基础,但他亦背负着焚书坑儒的罪名。尽管只有有关医学、草药、占卜和农业的书籍被保存了下来,但在秦始皇统治时期,艺术和思想文化仍在继续发展,为汉时的文学与哲学的极大繁荣做好了准备。秦朝的统治者以法家思想治国,实行专制、严厉的统治政策,然而秦始皇所立石碑的碑文却反映出忠孝仁义等儒家思想。秦始皇对道教有极大的兴趣,修道以求长生不老,还曾派人去寻找蓬莱仙岛。秦始皇称帝后便按五行之术将官方使用的颜色改为黑色。像周王一样,他认为流星、洪水以及旱灾均是上天的旨意。公元前250年,吕不韦著《吕氏春秋》,这是一部内容广泛的哲学著作。

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Chapter 8 Han Dynasty 汉朝

In 202 B. C., Liu Bang defeated Xiang Yu, winning the Battle Between Chu and Han, putting an end to the separatist lord regime and dog-fight, and founded the Han Dynasty with the capital at Changan (modern Xi'an, Shaanxi Province), which was known as Western Han or Former Han (206 B. C. ~ 25 A. D.). Later, the capital was moved to Luoyang (modern Luoyang, Henan Province), and Eastern Han or Later Han (25 ~ 220) started.

The Han Dynasty was a golden age in the Chinese history. Fundamental changes took place during this period of time which helped build up the Chinese culture. The governmental system with huge state bureaucracy, government mechanism on legist models took more concrete shape; the Confucianism rose as the feudal state doctrine; China became a powerful and affluent empire for a time.

公元前202年,刘邦打败项羽,结束了长达几个世纪的诸侯割据、混战的局面,建立汉朝。汉初定都长安(陕西西安),史称西汉或前汉(前206~公元25年);后迁都洛阳(河南洛阳),称东汉或后汉(公元25~220年)。

汉朝是中国历史上的第一个黄金时代。汉文化得以蕴育生成,法制化的国家制度及其庞大的官僚体系日臻成熟,儒家思想成为封建正统,国家一度成为强大、富庶的帝国。

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西汉
The Western Han or the Former Han

The Western Han Dynasty lasted more than 230 years over 14 generations, including the Xin Dynasty founded by Wang Mang. It is usually divided into three stages by historians: the time of consolidation by Emperors Han Gaozu, Wendi and Jingdi; the zenith period of centralizing power by King Wu of Han, and the late period of replacement of the imperial power by the mighty consort clan of the Wang.



西汉
The Western Han or the Former Han

西汉自高祖刘邦建国,历经十四代230余年(其中包括王莽的新朝)。史学家通常将这一时期分为三个阶段:汉高祖、文帝、景帝实行的"修养生息"的巩固期;汉武帝加强中央集权的鼎盛时期;外戚王氏篡权的后期。



西汉前期的"修养生息"
The Consolidation of the Han Empire—a Regime of Laissez-faire

Han Dynasty inherited most of the Qin's administrative systems. Given its rapid perdition, Emperor Gaozu abolished harsh laws of Qin, and a-

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dopted the *Huang-Lao* thought, which was based upon Daoism, exerting a regime of laissez-faire, and carried out more humane policies: lowering rental and taxes; reducing labor corvee; ordering officers, soldiers, and refugees to return home and providing them with houses and fields; restraining merchants and restricting the annexation of the peasantry by them. These measures stabilized the social order, restored and developed agriculture, which laid foundation for the prosperous Han. In 195 B. C., the Emperor Huidi was succeeded to the throne when Emperor Gaozu died, but it was Empress Lü Zhi who actually took over the reign. Being in power for 16 years, this woman was one of the few female rulers in Chinese history. In 183 B. C., Emperor Wendi was enthroned. Both he and his son Emperor Jingdi pursued the policies set by Gaozu. Consequently, the social economy was booming, and people's life was stable and national power strengthened. The time of Emperors Wendi and Jingdi, is characterized by most historians as a period of a prospering economy. In the early Han, there had been a grand system of dukes and princes, and prince's power of various principalities expanded gradually. During the reign of Emperor Wendi, the "Rebellion of the Seven Kingdoms" occurred eventually. Fortunately, the emperor succeeded in putting it down , which weakened the power of fiefdoms and enhanced the centralization at the same time. From the early Han down to the reign of emperors Wendi and Jingdi, the social economy rehabilitated gradually in sixty years or more.

Political System and Policies: When scrambling for sovereignty with Xiang Yu, Liu Bang enfieffed Han Xin, Ying Bu, Wu Rui and others as princes, who were known as kings who were not relative to the imperial family. However, the contradiction emerged with the failure of Xiang Yu, and Han Xin and Ying Bu were killed one after another. Hoping to perpetuate the supremacy of the imperial court, Liu Bang installed princes of royal blood to head fiefdoms, which co-existed with prefectures. All of these fiefdoms had vast territories and large population, and most were rich and strong and politically quasi-independent. Take Prince Wu, Liu Bi as an example, he had three prefectures that embraced 53 counties. Prefectures and fiefdoms were all directly under the imperial court control, but prefectures were far superior to fiefdoms.

The Reign of Emperors Wendi and Jingdi: During the reign of Emperors Wendi and Jingdi, they improved policies further, which alleviated the people's burdens and made economy evolve from restoration to development. The main measures included: Taxes were lowered to 1/30 of the harvest, labour corvée was re-

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duced to once every three years, heavy physical penalites were abolished, and the taxes on merchants were lowered to 40 *qian*. The policy of restricting merchants was replaced by that of favoring, which promoted the development of business and handicraft greatly. Meanwhile the brutal physical penalties were also abolished.

Weakening Fiefdoms: When Emperor Wendi was in the throne, the contradiction between the imperial court and the princes grew up. Emperor Wendi began to cut down the strength of princes so as to consolidate the centralization. Jia Yi, a famous political commentator, maintained that the large princedoms be divided into several small ones to reduce their political and economical independence. Jia Yi's proposal was accepted and put into practice, though no serious effort was ever made for its thorough implement.

When it came to the turn of Emperor Jingdi, the conflicts intensified. Chao Cuo suggested cutting down the fiefs of princes once they made mistakes. This plan resulted in the rebellion of seven princedoms, which was an insurrection launched by the princes of royal blood with the Prince Wu Liu Bi, the nephew of Emperor Gao Zu Liu Bang as the head. Having been plotting for a long time, in 154 B. C., Liu Bi allied with kingdoms of Chu, Zhao, Jiaodong, Jiaoxi, Zichuan, and Jinan staged a revolt, in the name of getting rid of Chao Cuo. Emperor Jingdi was scared, and killed Chao Cuo hoping to appease the rebelling princes. However, not only did Liu Bi withdraw the army, but also he proclaimed that he would seize the emperorship as well. Emperor Jingdi was finally determined to suppress the rebellion with force. He sent Marshal Zhou Yafu and Dou Ying on a punitive expedition, which was successful within less than three months.

Taking advantage of this victory, the emperor took steps to relieve the princes of their administrative powers, reduce the numbers of officials in the principalities and change the title of their prime ministers to ministers. From then on, the princedoms were pure large land estates owned by the princes. In 141 B. C., the last years of Emperor Jingdi's reign, the state treasury was consolidated, and granaries were full.

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西汉前期的“修养生息”
The Consolidation of the Han Empire—a Regime of Laissez-faire

汉朝各种制度基本上沿袭秦朝，但鉴于秦朝速亡，汉高祖废秦苛法，采用“黄老”学说，实行与民休息政策：减轻租赋徭役；令军吏士卒及流民各归本土，给予田宅；抑制商贾，限制商人对农民的兼并。这些措施稳定了社会秩序，使农业生产得到恢复、发展，为强大的汉朝盛世奠定了基础。公元前195年，高祖崩，传位惠帝刘盈，但此时政权实际已掌握在汉高皇后吕雉的手中。吕后前后共掌权16年，是我国历史上为数不多的女统治者之一。公元前183年，文帝即位，他与儿子景帝都继续执行高祖所制定的“休养生息”的政策，使社会经济蓬勃发展，人民生活安定，国力大大增强，史家称这一阶段为“文景之治”。由于汉初大封诸侯王，地方诸侯王势力膨胀，景帝时出现了“七国之乱”，平叛后诸侯王势力大大削弱，中央集权制也加强了。汉初至文帝、景帝的60多年内，社会经济逐渐恢复发展。

西汉初的制度和政策：刘邦在与项羽争夺天下的时候，曾封韩信、英布、吴芮等数人为王，史称“异姓王”。可是项羽败后，刘邦与这些人的矛盾迅速暴露，韩信、英布等相继被诛除。为巩固统治，在实行郡县制的同时，刘邦又大封其子弟为“诸侯王”，史称“同姓王”。这些封国的疆土广大，人口众多，多数王国很富庶，在政治上处于半独立状态。如吴王刘濞有3郡，计53县。诸侯王国和郡都直属于中央，但诸侯王国的地位远远高于郡。

文景之治：文帝和景帝统治时期，进一步改善政策，减轻人民的负担，使社会经济由恢复而发展。史称“文景之治”。主要的改革措施包括：减免田租，以三十税一为制；减轻徭役，“三年而一事”，即三年充更卒一个月；对商人的税收降至40钱，变“抑商”为“惠商”，使商业和手工业获得迅速的发展；废除肉刑。

削藩：文帝时，中央和诸侯王之间的矛盾日益发展。为加强中央集权，文帝开始削弱诸侯王势力。政论家贾谊主张将王国分割为若干小国，以削弱其力量。文帝采纳了贾谊的建议，但并未完全付诸实施。

景帝时，中央和诸侯王之间的矛盾更加尖锐。御史大夫晁错建议借诸侯王犯错误的时机，削减诸侯王的封地，结果导致“七国之乱”。“七国之乱”是以刘邦之侄吴王刘濞为首发动的一次同姓王联合大叛乱。刘濞蓄谋叛乱，为时已久。于公

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元前154年以"诛晁错,清君侧"为名,串通楚、赵、胶西、胶东、菑川、济南六国的诸侯王,发动了联合叛乱。景帝因惶恐,捕杀了晁错,乞求刘濞退兵。刘濞不仅不退兵,还公开声言要夺皇位。至此时,景帝才决心以武力进行镇压。他命太尉周亚夫与大将军窦婴率军平叛,只用了3个月的时间大破叛军。

景帝借机进一步削弱诸侯王的权力,减缩王国的政权机构,降低王国官职的等级,改丞相为相。至此,封地就只是诸侯王们纯粹的地产了。公元前141年,景帝在位末年,已是国库足、仓廪实。



汉武帝加强中央集权
The Zenith of the Han Empire: A Centralized Bureaucratic State

In 139 B. C., Emperor Wu Di succeeded to the throne. His long reign became known as the zenith or highlight of the Western Han period. The economy flourished, and the state treasury was abundent. The casting of coins became a state monopoly that was observed by special officials, and the currency was standardized to a nominal face value of five *zhu*. The most important tax reform was concerning the state monopoly on production, transport and merchandise of salt and iron that was centrally organized by the chamberlain for the national treasury. The transport system was standardized by special regulations, as well as the quality control of the goods. Therefore, the financial revenue increased greatly.

Politics: In politics, Emperor Wudi took further steps to consolidate the centralization. Substantial changes also took place in the structure of the central government that resulted in a new kind of bureaucratic centralism within a state that was officially Confucianist but in fact Legist. The emperor reformed the central government and built up his cabinet. The status of the Imperial Board of Secretaries was raised, for all the memorials to the throne would be submitted to the emperor by secretariats. This reinforced the autocratic monarchy and stripped power of the prime minister. Meanwhile, the emperor strengthened his control over the localities. He divided the whole country into 13 regions, and appointed an itinerant inspector to each of these divisions to keep a watchful eye on the local affairs. Adopting the proposal of Zhu Fuyan, the emperor decreed that when a prince died, his

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eldest son was to succeed him, and the territory of his principality was to be divided among all his sons. With the exception of the eldest son, each would be granted the status of a marquis, who was subjected to the prefecture. Consequently, the power of the principalities was split apart without their fiefdoms being taken back by the imperial court, which reinforced the centralization.

Not long after Emperor Wudi's ascension, Dong Zhongshu proposed the task of the "grand unification" of the empire in political philosophy. Emperor Wudi accepted his suggestion, adopted Confucianism as official philosophy, and denied scholars of all other schools the opportunity to enter the civil service. From then on Confucianism became dominant in the middle and late period of the Han Dynasty. Additionally, the emperor encouraged the study of the five Confucian classics, namely the *Book of Odes*, *Book of History*, *Book of Rites*, *Book of Changes* and *Spring and Autumn Annals*. He even set up the imperial academy in Chang'an to teach Confucian classics, cultivate qualified personnel and select government officials through regular written examinations.

Foreign Policies: On strengthening the autocratic monarchy, Emperor Wudi was also engaged in broadening the Han Dynasty's relations with the ethnic minorities to an unprecedented extent.

Wars Against the Xiongnu: In the earlier years of the Han Dynasty, Xiongnu nomads were very powerful. The Han rulers usually adopted a conciliatory attitude towards them. The chief policy to prevent its invasion was to arrange marriages between the royal family and the Xiongnu chieftains to maintain the peace. However, this had been unsuccessful, and Xiongnu harassed the borders constantly. When Emperor Wudi was in the throne, he tried a new tact. During ten years, namely from the year 128 B. C. to 119 B. C., the emperor sent Wei Qing and Huo Qubing to launch three large-scale expeditions against Xiongnu. By these actions, he drove them into the far north of Gobi, Desert, thus maintaining the safety of the Hexi Corridor.

Furthermore, new principalities were established there, and land reclamation was practiced, in which militiamen and their families were settled on military-agricultural colonies, where they worked and defended. The Great Wall was reconstructed, which had already served as defensive line against the stepped nomads for a few centuries. Beacon towers and post stations were built, which played a new role in the defence system of the Great Wall.

The constant wars between the Han and Xiongnu made both sides suffer great

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losses, having no spare capacity to continue the fight. In 33 B. C., Khan Huhanye paid a visit to Chang'an. Emperor Yuan married Wang Zhaojun, a beauty at that time, to him. This action not only improved the relationship between the Han Dynasty and Xiongnu, but also promoted economic and cultural exchanges between them. From then on, the Han and Xiongnu got along well with each other, and wars didn't break out for more than forty years.

Zhang Qian on a Diplomatic Mission to the West Regions: At the same time, in order to seek allies to fight against Xiongnu's invasion, In 138 B. C., Emperor Wudi sent Zhang Qian as envoy to Dayuezhi, which had originally lived in the area between Dunhuang and Qilian, and was driven to Guishui valley by Xiongnu during the period of Emperor Wendi. Unfortunately, Zhang Qian was captured on his way to Dayuezhi by Xiongnu. He was kept prisoner for more than ten years before managing to escape westward and finally made his way to the destination. However, Dayuezhi was reluctant to attack Xiongnu, and in 126 B. C., Zhang Qian returned to Chang'an.

In 119 B. C., Zhang Qian was sent to the West Regions again, inviting Wusun, who were settled in the Yili valley to form a common front to cut the right flank of the Xiongnu. The king of Wusun, who was old, dared not ally with the Han, for his territory was close to Xiongnu and was subjected to its menace. Zhang Qian failed a second time, but his visits promoted understanding between the Western Han Dynasty and the regions north and south of the Tianshan Mountains, cemented its links with adjacent regions, and helped to spread the influence of the Han Empire.

More importantly, Zhang Qian's westward travels also opened the very important trade route to the Central Asia, which later called Road of Silk. Many Han commodities like silk and ironware were brought to the west, while spice, grape, woolen carpets, sesame and peaches etc. were introduced to China.

With his northwest frontier secured, Emperor Wu then expanded the empire in a northeast direction. With The capture of an area south of the Yangtze River, the territory of Han far exceed that of the previous dynasties. The Han Dynasty then began to expand its political and cultural influence over Vietnam, Central Asia, Mongolia, Korea and other counties. However, it was no easy task to hold or appease all these far territories, and rebellions and territorial losses occurred many times for the rest of the Han period. At the beginning of Emperor Wudi's reign the state treasury was full, but when he died, luxury and war campaigns had exhausted the

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empire.



汉武帝加强中央集权
The Zenith of the Han Empire: A Centralized Bureaucratic State

公元前139年,汉武帝继位。武帝时期是西汉发展的鼎盛时期。期间经济繁荣、府库充实。国家统一货币,铸五铢钱,严禁私铸钱;进行税制改革,盐、铁的生产、运输、销售由大司农负责,实行国家专营;实行均输法、平准法,朝廷财政收入大增。

政治方面:武帝进一步采取措施加强中央集权,国家的政治制度发生了实质性变化,形成了新的外儒内法的中央集权的官僚体制。具体包括:"改革中枢体制,建立中朝"。尚书台的地位提升,大臣们的章奏要由尚书进呈皇帝。这一举措加强了王权,削弱了丞相的权力。加强对地方的控制,将全国分为13个州部。每个州部设刺史一人,以监察地方。武帝采纳了主父偃的建议,规定诸侯王死后,除嫡长子继承王位外,其他庶子由皇帝分割原王国的部分土地为列侯,列侯归郡统辖。这样一来,朝廷虽未剥夺诸侯封地,却成功地分化了诸侯国的权力,进一步加强了中央集权。

汉武帝即位不久,董仲舒提出了"大一统"的政治哲学思想。汉武帝采纳了这一建议,实行"罢黜百家,独尊儒术",从此儒家学说逐步成为西汉中后期的统治思想。汉武帝鼓励学习《诗》、《书》、《易》、《礼》、《春秋》等儒家经典,在长安兴办太学,传授儒家思想,培养人材,并通过考试选拔官吏。

外交政策:在巩固王权地同时,汉武帝还致力发展与少数民族的联系。为此,汉时的民族关系达到到前所未有的程度。

抗击匈奴:西汉前期,匈奴势力强大,汉朝主要通过"和亲"政策防范匈奴侵略,维系和平。可是这一政策并不成功,匈奴一再入侵。汉武帝即位以后,开始发动对匈奴的战争。从元朔元年(公元前128年)到元狩四年(公元前119年)的10年中,先后三次派卫青、霍去病抗击匈奴,迫使匈奴北徙漠北,确保了河西走廊的安全。汉朝还在西北边地设郡、屯田,修长城,筑烽燧,建邮亭驿。烽燧和邮亭驿在长城防御体系中发挥了新的重要作用。

汉匈战争不断,双方均损失惨重,无力再战。公元前33年,呼韩邪单于到长安,汉元帝将宫人王昭君嫁与呼韩邪单于。昭君出塞改善了汉、匈之间关系,还促

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进了两族人民间的经济文化交流。汉、匈从此友好相处，在40多年间没有发生战争。

张骞出使西域汉：武帝为反击匈奴，争取联合力量，于建元三年（公元前138年），派张骞出使大月氏（zhī）。大月氏原居于今敦煌、祁连之间；文帝时期，为匈奴所破，西徙妫（guī 圭）水（今阿姆河）流域。张骞在路上为匈奴所虏，在匈奴十余年，后乘机西逃，到大月氏。大月氏不愿共击匈奴。公元前126年，张骞返回长安。

公元前119年，汉武帝第二次派张骞出使西域，约居于伊犁河流域乌孙共击匈奴，以折匈奴的右翼。乌孙王年老，又因其国临近匈奴，受匈奴的威胁严重，不敢与汉联合，张骞出使未果。尽管如此，张骞出使西域促进了天山南北各少数民族与汉朝的交流，密切了汉与周边地区的联系，使汉朝的影响更为广泛。更为重要的是，张骞出使西域，打通了汉朝通往中亚的贸易通道——丝绸之路。当时运往西方的商品有蚕丝、铁器等。西方经“丝绸之路”输入中国的商品，有香料、葡萄、芝麻、胡桃、毛毯等。

在巩固了西北边境后，汉武帝开始向东北方向拓展疆域。攻占长江以南后，汉的领土已大大超过了前朝。同时汉朝的政治、文化还对越南、朝鲜、中亚、蒙古等国产生了重要影响。但是对广大边疆地区的统治、平叛却非易事。汉朝中后期，叛乱和疆土流失不断。汉武帝统治前期，国库充盈。但由于挥霍无度加之连年争战，武帝死时，已是国库空虚。



西汉中后期的政治与社会经济
The Politics and Economy in the Late Years of the Western Han

Politics: In his later years, Emperor Wudi squandered money, exhausting the treasuries accumulated in the early period. In order to increase the financial income, he formulated harsh laws and raised taxes, which put a heavy burden on the people. In addition to frequent natural disasters, large quantities of peasants became impoverished and went into exile. Therefore, peasant uprisings broke up constantly throughout the country. Confronted with the social crisis, Emperor Wudi decided to stop wars to develop agriculture in 90 B. C.. He even went to the fields personally, showing his determination to attach importance to production and his

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care for people's life. With all of these measures, the country became stable gradually. In 87 B. C., Emperor Wudi fell ill on the inspection tour, and died soon. Only a few days before his death, Emperor Wudi named his son Liu Fuling to his successor. Huo Guang and Shangguan Jie, and Jin Midi built a triumvirate to assist the young emperor (posthumous Han Zhaodi) in government.

Emperor Zhaodi who was then only eight years old was assisted by Grand General Huo Guang, Chancellor of Military Affairs. Facing the intensified conflict in the later years of Emperor Wudi, the new ruler and his regents had to rely on fiscal austerity in order to stabilize the state treasury and to appease the rebellious peasants. Taxes were lowered, and peasant labour was reduced, which lifted the yoke on the peasants. Meanwhile, the imperial court managed to improve the relationship with Xiongnu, so large-scale wars stopped, which also benefited the economic recovery. Due to the proper internal and external policies, the contradictions left in the later period of Emperor Wudi were under control, and the declining trend of the Western Han was reversed.

In 74 B. C., Emperor Xuandi ascended to the throne. He paid great attention to improving the local administration, maintaining that the method of running country should be combined with hegemony's and the king's way, and objecting to the monopoly of Confucianism. So during his reign, "officials were qualified to their positions, and the people were contented with their trades". In 72 B. C., the emperor allied with Wusun to attack Xiongnu, and then taking opportunity of the Xiongnu's internal splitting established a friendly relationship with Khan Han Chan Yu. The Han Empire and the Xiongnu were on good terms in the next 40 years or so and the frontiers came to peace gradually. The time of Emperor Xuandi is often compared with the peaceful and prosperous time of the Emperors Wendi and Jingdi. Nevertheless, all of these positive measures couldn't compeletly solve the problem that bureacrats and aristocrat annexed lands thoroughly.

In 48 B. C., when Emperor Yuandi came to the throne, the social conflicts intensified further, and the country couldn't recover after that, which marked the beginning of the decline of the Western Han. In 6 B. C., Wang Mang, a nephew of the empress of Emperor Yuandi, usurped the throne and three years later founded the Xin Dynasty. No long afterwards, peasant uprising broke out all over the country, resulting in Wang Mang's downfall and the restoration of the Han sovereignty. Chinese historians call this period as the Eastern Han.

The rise and reign of the Wang Clan: Availing himself of the political corrup-

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tion in the later years of the Western Han, Wang Mang, the founder of the Xin Dynasty, usurped the throne through consort clans monopolizing power. Wang Mang was the nephew of the empress of Emperor Yuandi, Wang Zhengjun. When Emperor Pingdi was on the throne, Empress Wang assumed the reign of the government as grandmother. Wang Mang was designated Chancellor of Military Affairs, who was also in charge of civil administration throughout the country. After the death of Emperor Pingdi, Wang Mang placed a two-year old baby, Ruzi Ying in 9 A. D., on the throne. No more than three years, he dethroned Ruzi Ying, and proclaimed himself emperor, changing the reign motto to Xin, which marked the end of the Western Han Dynasty.

Wang Mang pushed forward new policies and carried a series of reforms, hoping to retrieve the glory of Han by adopting policies described in the Confucian classics. He decreed that farmland be renamed as "royal land", slaves "private belongings", and both prohibitted from buying and selling. Five largest markets were set up to manage business, control prices rigidly and strengthen taxes, implement economy monopoly. Currency system was changed several times, which made a multitude of currency items and complicated the exchange, which resulted in a social and economic chaos. So was the official system. Wang Mang also launched wars against Xiongnu, and ethnic minorities on the border of the northeast and the southwest. Heavy taxes and labor corvée, together with harsh penalty, made the complaints to be heard everywhere. In addition to natural disaster in successive years and roaring prices, a nationwide peasant uprising finally broke out.

The peasant rebellions in the later years of the Xin Dynasty first began in the north, and then spread to the Yellow River valley and Yangtze River valley. The first great insurrection was that of the Lülin region (in modern Hubei) led by Wang Kuang and Wang Feng in 17. This group of peasant insurgents is referred to as the Green Wood Army.

Shortly after the first rebellion of the Lülin peasant, Fan Chong led an uprising at Jü (modern Jüxian County in Shandong). With its headquarters in Mountain Tai, his army quickly grew to be several tens of thousands. They were called the army of Red Eyebrows because they had their brows painted red as a mark of identification. Meanwhile, scores of big and small insurgent groups rose on the great plain in present-day Hebei and Shandong provinces north of the Yellow River. At Nan yang (modern Nanyang in Henan Province) Liu Xiu and his elder brother Liu

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Yan, both were the descendants of the Han royal family, hoisted the banner of reconstructing the Han Dynasty.

Scared with the successive victories of the rebellious armies, Wang Mang hurriedly dispatched his generals Wang Xun and Wang Yi at the head of a crack unit of 420 000 to launch yet another offensive war on the Green Wood army. Initially, they had 100 000 soldiers besiege the Kunyang city. The insurgent leader, Wang Feng with about 9 000 men held fast to the city, while Liu Xiu broke through the tight encirclement and went enlisting reinforcement elsewhere. He mustered a unit of several thousand men, and then raided on the Wang's headquarters, which disturbed the enemies greatly. The Green Woodmen defending the Kunyang city also came out to join in a converging attack on Wang Mang's men, who ran over each other in a helter-skelter retreat. Consequently, Wang Xun was killed, and Wang Yi fled in a fluster. This is the famous battle "Kunyang Campaign", which is one of the well-known examples in the annals of war showing how a small army can overcome a big one. The Kunyang campaign dealt a crushing blow to Wang Mang both in military affairs and in politics. Liu Xiu also gained the prestige through the Kunyang battle.

In 23, the Green Woodmen installed Liu Xuan as emperor, a member of the Han royal house, using the reign title of Gengshi. However, Liu Yan disagreed with it, intending to proclaim himself emperor, so Liu Xuan and Wang Kuang killed him. Liu Xiu dared not to resist openly due to the weak forces, and outwardly showed his willingness to submit to the insurgents. Liu Xuan appointed him as general, sending him to go to Hebei to enlist services of the rebellious armies there. Taking opportunity of it, Liu Xiu led the army to Hebei to conquer fields with an intention to enlarge in his own influence. Some changes were taking place within the ranks of the rebellious army as well as in the characteristic of the peasant uprisings.

In 24, the Green Wood army broke into Chang'an, where people were also ready to rise in revolt. Wang Mang fled to Jiantai, but was killed by a rebellious merchant Du Wu. His death ended the Xin Dynasty. In the same month, another detachment of the Green Woodsmen took Luoyang. Following the fall of the Xin Dynasty, the Gengshi regime made Luoyang its capital. It sent emissaries to persuade the Red Eyebrows to surrender. When Fan Chong came to Luoyang with a score of his generals, the Gengshi authorities failed to unite with them. Conflicts began to appear between Gengshi and the Red Eyebrow, and they had to appeal to arms. In 25, the Gengshi regime moved its capital to Chang'an. Later, the Red Eyebrow

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army captured Chang'an, and killed Liu Xuan.

Meanwhile, Liu Xiu was successful in his activities in Hebei. He gradually detached himself from Liu Xuan and extended his own influence, so that in 25, he proclaimed himself emperor and is known in history as Emperor Guang Wu.

When the Red Eyebrows entered Chang'an, it had been utterly dilapidated. Around it was the forces of landlords everywhere, hoisting the banner of Han, they set up separatist regimes to fight against the Red Eyebrows. Occupying Chang'an for a period of time, the Red Eyebrows were starved out systematically and withdrew to the west in search for supplies, yet were caught in a heavy snowstorm with many soldiers dying of starvation and coldness. They were forced to come back to Chang'an. At that time, Liu Xiu's troop had marched into the Guanzhong Region and attacked them repeatedly. With many soldiers wounded and killed, the Red Eyebrows suffered severe losses, and its strength weakened. In 27, Liu Xiu wiped out the Red Eyebrows and the remnant forces of the Green Woodsmen. Thus Liu Xiu deprived the fruits of the peasants uprising and eventually re-founded the Han house, a period began that is later called the Eastern Han or Later Han in contrast to the Western Han or Former Han because the capital, Luoyang, was to the east of the Western Han capital of Chang'an.



西汉中后期的政治与社会经济

The Politics and Economy in the Late Years of the Western Han

政治:汉武帝统治后期,挥霍无度,国库空虚。为增加收入,武帝制定重法,加税、加捐,人民负担加重。加上灾荒频繁,导致大批农民破产流亡,各地农民起义不断发生。面对社会危机,公元前90年,武帝停止用兵,发展农业生产。他还亲自下地表示今后要重视生产和百姓生活。这样,国内才逐渐安定了下来。公元前87年,武帝外出巡游,不久后病死。临死前几天,他立刘弗陵为太子,命霍光、上官桀、金日磾三人辅佐太子。

昭帝刘弗陵继位时年仅8岁,遵照武帝遗诏由霍光辅政。针对武帝末年国内矛盾激化的情况,昭帝及其佐臣依靠节省财政开支的办法,稳定国库,平抚暴乱农

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民。昭帝多次下令减轻人民负担，减轻赋税，减轻农民的重压。与此同时，改善与匈奴的关系，停止大规模的战争，有助于国内经济的恢复与发展。由于内外措施得当，武帝后期遗留的矛盾基本得到了控制，衰势得以扭转。

公元前74年，宣帝继位。他注重加强地方治理，认为治国之道应以“霸道”“王道”杂治，反对专任儒术。为此，宣帝统治期间“吏称其职，民安其业”。公元前72年，宣帝与乌孙联合攻打匈奴，后趁匈奴内部分裂之机，与呼韩单于建立友好关系。此后40多年中匈关系良好，边境地区逐步宁息。宣帝之治常被与文景之治相媲美，史称“宣帝中兴”。然而宣帝推行的一系列积极政策并不足以从根本上解决官僚贵族兼并土地的问题。公元前48年，元帝继位后，社会矛盾进一步激化，终于使西汉王朝一蹶不振。公元前6年，王莽篡位，3年后建立新朝。不久全国爆发农民起义，王莽垮台，汉室恢复，史称东汉。

王氏家族的崛起和篡位：新朝的创立者王莽是利用西汉末年政治腐败，通过外戚专政来夺取皇位的。王莽是汉元帝皇后王政君的侄子，平帝时王政君以太皇太后临朝称制，王莽取得大司马大将军的职位，总揽朝政。平帝死后，王莽立年仅两岁的孺子婴为帝。不到3年，王莽便于公元9年废孺子婴，自立为帝，改国号为“新”。西汉亡。

王莽在全国范围内推行“托古改制”的新政：他下令天下农田改称“王田”，奴婢改称“私属”，禁止买卖；设立五均，管理工商业，严格管制物价和加强税收，实行经济垄断；屡次改变币制，货币名目繁多，换算复杂，造成社会和经济的极大混乱；更改官制名称，滥加封赏；又发动对匈奴和对东北、西南边境各族的战争。沉重的赋役，残酷的刑罚，使人民怨声载道，加上连年灾荒，物价飞涨，终于引起全国性的农民大起义。

新末民众起义首先发生在北方边郡地区，接着在黄河流域、长江流域也爆发了农民暴动。而第一次大规模的农民起义是公元17年发生在湖北绿林地区的王匡、王凤领导的绿林起义。这支起义队伍史称绿林军。绿林起义不久，琅邪人樊崇也在莒（今山东莒县）领导了农民起义。起义军后来以泰山地区为根据地，展开斗争。队伍很快发展到几万人。因其将眉毛染成红色以识别身份，故被称为“赤眉”。与此同时，黄河以北的河北、山东等广大地区，大大小小数十支起义队伍也在迅速崛起。西汉皇室宗亲刘縯、刘秀两兄弟亦打着光复汉室的旗帜，在南阳起义。

起义军节节胜利王莽十分恐慌，急派王寻、王邑，征调精兵42万人，迎击起义军。先以10万人围攻昆阳。起义军将领王凤自率约9 000人坚守昆阳城，派刘秀率小部突围，收集各县起义军回救昆阳。刘秀收集了数千人，突入王莽军的指挥中心，莽军大乱。城内守军乘势杀出，莽军大败，死伤无数，王寻被杀，王邑狼狈逃窜。这就是军事史上以少胜多的著名战例之一“昆阳之战”。昆阳一役在军事和政治上给王莽以沉重打击，刘秀亦因昆阳之战扬名。

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公元23年，王匡、王凤等立汉室宗亲刘玄为皇帝，国号“汉”，年号“更始”。刘縯极力反对立刘玄，自己很想称帝，刘玄和王匡杀掉了刘縯。刘秀因兵力薄弱，不敢公开反抗，表面上表示忠顺于起义军。刘玄封刘秀为将军命他去河北招募起义军。刘秀乘机北上，率军到河北各地，图谋发展自己的势力。起义军内部逐渐分裂，农民起义的性质正悄然变化。

公元24年，绿林军攻破长安。此时，长安城里的起义已蓄势待发。王莽逃到渐台，被起义商人杜吴杀死，王莽的反动统治至此结束。同时，另一支绿林军攻克洛阳。新朝覆灭后，更始朝定都洛阳。刘玄派人劝赤眉军归降。樊崇率手下入洛阳，但双方并未达成联合的一致意见。更始朝与赤眉军间开始出现矛盾，最终不得不诉诸武力。公元25年更始朝迁都长安，后赤眉军破城，杀刘玄。

此时，刘秀在河北进展得相当顺利。他逐步摆脱了刘玄的控制，扩大自己的势力。公元25年，刘秀称帝，史称汉光武帝。

赤眉军进入长安后，长安已残破不堪。长安城外到处是地主的武装，都打着“汉”的旗号，割据一方，与赤眉军相对抗。赤眉军在长安日久，缺乏军粮，就离开长安向西寻找给养。又遇大雪，士卒因饥寒而死的极多，赤眉军又回到长安。这时，刘秀军队已进入关中，一再进击赤眉军。赤眉军的士卒死伤惨重，势力大大削弱。公元27年，刘秀最终消灭赤眉军和绿林军的残余势力，从而抢夺了农民革命的胜利果实，恢复汉室，定都洛阳，后称东汉或后汉，因为洛阳在西汉都城长安以东而得名。



科学与文化
Science and Culture

Significant academic and cultural achievements were made in the Han Dynasty. Confucianism set up its supreme status in the ideological field of the feudal society. At that time, *Yuefu Poems* appeared (*Yuefu* was an official department being responsible to collect and process folk songs). They were composed of sentences of varying lengths, common for folk songs of the Han time, and were intended to be set to music and song. Many of *yuefu* poems are found in the collections “*New songs from the Jade Terrace*”, “*Collection of Music Bureau Poetry*” and the small anthology “*Nineteen Old Poems*”.

A very common verse style from Han to Tang was the prose-poetry *fu*, mas-

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tered by Sima Xiangru , Yang Xiong and Ban Gu . *Zi Xu Fu* and *Shang Lin Fu* written by Sima Xiangru were the masterpieces in the Western Han period.

Historiography achieved great complishment during the Han Dynasty, because a new style of writing history was invented by Sima Qian, who composed the "*Records of the Historian*". The traditional way of recording history was in chronical order, which is found in the *Classical Annals of Lu* , and the *Bamboo Annals* or the free anecdotical style that is found in the "*Stratagems of the Warring States*". However, *Records of the Historian* is totally different, and it is a thirteen-volume *juan* general history of China covering the period from the mythical Five Emperors down to Han Wudi. It is unique in its accounts on different historical stages and their characteristics, its portrayal and appraisal of historical figures and its description of social conditions. This type of biographical and thematic history writing had been used as the standard type of official historiography till the end of the Chinese empire.

In the regime of Chengdi, Liu Xiang was ordered to collate important books in the imperial library, such as the Confician classics, works of the different schools of thought written in the pre-Qin period, such as collections of poems, prose-poems, military and medical writings. He submitted memorials to the Emperor, which contained the essense and outline of every book. He also collected himself old texts, stories and statements and put them together to his books "*New Stories*", "*Garden of Explanations*", and *The Lienüzhuan* ,He was responsible for the redaction of unofficial histories of the Eastern Zhou period , the *Guoyu* or "*Accounts of the Feudal States*" and the *Zhanguoce* (the Strategies of the Warning States).

During the reign of Emperor Aidi, his son Liu Xin took over his job. He classified all the books under seven headings and briefly described the contents of each, and the summaries were later incorporated into *the Seven Categories of Writing* , which was the first bibliography in Chinese history.

Yang Xiong was a famous writer, philosopher and linguistist. In his early years, he wrote two famous prose-poems—— *Chang Yang Fu* and *Gan Quan Fu* , imitating the style of Sima Xiangru. Later, he changed his stand, claiming that all sayings should be in accord with the Confucian Classics, and devoted himself to the study of philosophy. Then wrote Tai Xuan, a book modeled after *The Book of Changes* , and *Fa Yan* modeled after *The Analects* .

A new calendar—— *Taichu Calender* was practiced from the year 104 B. C. to 85 A. D. , which had far-reaching influence in the history of Chinese calendric sci-

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ence. It contained 24 solar terms and reasonable arrangements of the intercalary month. The first lunar month became the beginning of the year.

The Yellow Emperor's Classics of Internal Medicine, written in a question-and-answer form around the early Western Han period, explains the physiological signs and pathological changes of the human body, gives the earliest elucidation of its blood circulation and points out the importance of pulse feeling in diagnosis. Apart from suggesting the methods of treatment for 311 ailments and illnesses of 44 categories, it emphasizes disease prevention and getting at the root of a disease to seek a permanent cure.



科学与文化
Science and Culture

汉时的文化发展取得了辉煌的成就。儒教在意识形态领域成为封建正统。乐府诗也是出现在这一时期，乐府是官方的负责收集和创作民歌的机构。乐府诗的句子长短不一，这在汉时的民谣中较为常见，配曲后可以演唱。现在可以见于《玉台新咏》、《乐府诗集》、《古诗十九首》中。

汉、唐时赋是一种非常流行的韵文。司马相如、扬雄、班固是杰出的代表人物，而司马相如的《子虚赋》、《上林赋》堪称西汉时期的杰作。

汉时是历史编撰发展的关键时期。司马迁编写《史记》，一种新的历史编撰方式随之出现。中国传统的历史编撰多采用编年体，如《春秋左传》、《竹书纪年》，或是传奇形式，如《战国策》。《史记》是一部纪传体通史，全书共 13 卷，记录了从五帝至汉武帝之间的历史。该书在讲述各历史阶段及其特征，描绘、评价历史人物，描写社会状况方面别具一格。直到中国封建帝国末年，这种以纪传体编撰历史的方法一直为官方所使用。

成帝时，刘向受命编辑整理书库中的儒家经典、先秦的诸子百家著作：诗、赋集、军事和医学著作。他将每本书内容和提纲都写在奏章上呈给皇上，还收集很多古文献，传奇故事，将其编入《新序》、《说苑》、《烈女传》并负责编写了《战国策》、《国语》。

刘歆是刘向的儿子。哀帝时，他接替了父亲的工作。他将所有的书按其内容分为七类，附以简介，著成《七略》。这是中国历史上第一部图书目录。

杨雄，西汉文学家、哲学家、语言学家。早年仿司马相如作《长杨赋》、《甘泉

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赋》。后期主张一切言行都应以“五经”为准则，转而研究经学。仿《易经》作《太玄》，仿《论语》作《法言》。

《太初历》是汉武帝太初元年（公元前104年）至东汉章帝元和二年（公元85年）实施的历法，对我国历法学的发展产生了深远影响。该历法包含有24节气，对闰月进行了合理的安排，并以正月为岁首。

《黄帝内经》是著于西汉早期的一部医学经典。以问答形式解释了人体的生理和病理变化，并最先就血液循环进行了阐释，指出了把脉在诊疗中的重要性。在为311种、44类疾病提供了治疗方法的同时，强调疾病预防，以彻底根除隐患。



东汉
The Eastern Han Dynasty or the Later Han

The Xin Dynasty lasted only 14 years after Wang Mang usurped the throne, but it was more than a short interlude, and the Western Han and the Eastern Han were completely different because of it. In the Western Han, even though emperors relied on individual followers, it was rare for consort clans like families Huo and Wang to seize great power to interfere with the state affairs. On the contrary, a ruler in the Eastern Han had to depend on clans, otherwise, he couldn't maintain the sovereignty, for most consorts came from the upper class or rich and powerful families. Another difference was that eunuchs arrogated power. Once consort clans couldn't hold on power over weak emperors, eunuchs, who were all from the bottom of society, would take opportunity to obtain the power.



东汉
The Eastern Han Dynasty or the Later Han

王莽篡权建立新朝虽然只有14年的时间，但这并非是一个简单的历史插曲，东西汉因此而大不相同。西汉时皇帝虽也依赖身边的大臣，但能像

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霍氏和王氏那样专权的外戚只是个别现象。东汉时，皇帝则是不得不仰仗外戚，否则将无法维持自己的政权，因为大多数嫔妃出身贵族或豪门。与西汉不同的另一点是东汉时宦官专权。宦官都来自社会底层，一旦外戚无法控制软弱的皇帝，他们就会趁机取得实权。



光武中兴
The Rule of Emperor Guangwu

Strengthening the Centralization: The Eastern Han was another strong and prosperous dynasty after the Western Han, and its economy went on booming. Since its foundation by Emperor Guangwu, the empire lasted 196 years over fourteen generations.

The first 40 plus years of the Eastern Han witnessed the relative stability during the reign of the emperors Guang Wu, Ming and Zhang. After a civil war that had lasted from 25 A. D. to 36 A. D., Emperor Guangwu finally reunited the country. He tried to reinstate the central government, so the new dynasty was more autocratic than the Western Han. Although the emperor re-established the princedoms and marquisates, and gave titles and fiefs to his followers, all of them were free from executive powers actually. He made a comprehensive reform on the policies made by Wang Mang, rectifying the bureaucratic system. The power of the reputed three chancellors, i. e., the chancellor of civil administration, the chancellor of military affairs and the great censor, was weakened. Being still in high positions, but in name only, they didn't have any real power any longer. Then all the power was centralized in the imperial board of ministries, which took orders from the emperor directly. This played an important role in the autocratic sovereignty, which sustained and further enhanced the centralization of the Western Han. The inspection system was strengthened, and prefectural governor was appointed to each prefecture. He should go on an inspection tour around his administrative region in August every year, reviewing the lawsuits, inspecting the official achievements, and presenting a memorial of his inspection to the emperor at the end of the year. The local forces were also cut down step by step in order to enhance the central military power. Therefore, armies in prefectures and fiefdoms were too few to fight inde-

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pendently, and a big war had to resort to the central forces.

Economic Policies: One crucial task for the Eastern Han Empire was the reconstruction of the economy. Long years of war and the flooding of the Yellow River rendered many peasant refugees roam around in the countryside. In order to control the population and to restrict the power of the local nobility, Emperor Guangwu tried to implement a system of "measuring fields".

In 39, he ordered a country-wide check-up on land reclamation and census. However the local officials shielded the landlords and cheated on figures in order to shift tax burden onto the peasants. The emperor had a dozen magistrates executed, for being guilty of false measurement, and ordered to speed up measuring fields. The large land owners began to resist the property assessment with armed forces. The deceived peasants also put up a violent resistance. The emperor, who could do nothing effective, had to end the matter up with nothing definite. Therefore the counterattack was calmed down. Later, he issues six prescripts to release bondservants, which helped to stabilize the social order, restore and develop economy effectively.

After a series of reforms, the Eastern Han Dynasty had recovered its former prosperity under the reign of Emperors Guangwu, Ming and Zhang in the middle of the first century. This period of time is known as the Rule of Guangwu.

After Emperor Guangwu died in 57, Emperor Ming and Emperor Zhang came to the throne successively, and they all carried on the practice of the founder of the Eastern Han. This period of time was seen as days of peace and prosperity, when the economy found time to recover from the damage. The two emperors also attached importance to Confucianism. In 59, Emperor Ming personally lectured in the imperial academy and discussed Confucian classics with scholars. Nearly 100 000 people are said to have attended. In 79, since there were theoretical diversities existed within Confucianism, Emperor Zhang brought together the famous scholars in the White Tiger Hall in Luoyang to discuss the varieties and unities of the Five Classics. He ordered Ban Gu to incorporate the conclusions into a book, *Bai Hu Tong Yi* (Comprehensive Discussions in the White Tiger Hall), which served to deify and consolidate imperial authority.

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光武中兴
The Rule of Emperor Guangwu

加强中央集权：东汉是继西汉之后国力强盛，封建经济继续发展的一个王朝。自光武帝建国起共传14帝，经历196年。

汉光武帝、明帝和章帝统治的前40多年，东汉的社会比较稳定。公元25年至36年光武帝平定各地叛乱，重新一统天下。建国之初，光武帝重新加强中央集权，东汉政权较之西汉政权更为专制。光武帝大封功臣，却剥夺了他们的实权。全面改革王莽所实施的旧政策，整顿吏治。削弱三公即司徒、司空和太尉的权力。三公的职位虽高，徒有虚名，并无实权。权力集中于尚书台，尚书台则直接听命于皇帝，这对皇帝的个人专制独裁起到重要作用，这是对西汉武帝加强中央集权的继续和发展。加强监察制度，每州设刺史一人。刺史于每年8月巡行所属郡国，检阅刑狱情况，考察官吏政绩，年终奏于皇帝。一再削弱地方的军权，加强中央军权。为此郡、国的军队很少，一般不能作战。大的战争要依靠中央军队。

社会经济政策：东汉面临的首要问题是恢复经济。由于常年战乱，加之黄河泛滥，各地流民甚多。为控制人口，限制地方豪绅势力，光武帝实施“度田”政策。

公元39年，下令清查土地和人口。然而地方官吏偏袒地主，谎报数据，将赋税转嫁到农民身上。光武帝以“度田不实”之罪诛杀了10余个郡太守，下令加紧度田。这引起大地主的武装反抗，许多农民不明真象，也跟从反抗，这就是史称的“度田事件”。后度田不了了之，反度田斗争也就平息下来。光武帝6次颁布释放奴婢的诏令，对稳定社会秩序，恢复发展社会经济，都起了巨大的作用。

经过一系列的改革，到公元一世纪中叶，经过光武帝、明帝（58～76年在位）、章帝（76～89年在位）三代的治理，东汉王朝已经逐渐恢复了往日汉朝的强盛，这一时期被后人称之为“光武中兴”。

公元57年，光武帝死后继承帝位的先后是明帝、章帝。二人皆遵奉光武之治，为此这一时期国家繁荣、安定，社会经济得到恢复。两位皇帝也都很重视儒家思想。公元59年，明帝亲自到太学讲学，并与博士讨论儒家经典。据说有近10万人参加这一活动。公元79年，因经学家多分歧，章帝集中诸卿、博士等于洛阳白虎观讲议五经同异，并命班固将讨论结果整理成书，名为《白虎通德论》（又称《白虎通义》、《白虎通》），为神化和巩固封建政权服务。

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宦官与朋党
Consort Clans and Eunuchs

Consort clans and Eunuchs: The Eastern Han Dynasty entered its middle period when the 10- year- old Emperor He came to the throne in 88 AD, his mother, Empress Dowager Dou led the court audiences. By then, Xiongnu had split into the northern and the southern parts again. By 91, the northern group had been wiped out in the allied expeditions of Han and the Southern Xiongnu. The triumph over the Northern Xiongnu enabled Dou Xian, the commander-in-chief and the brother of the Empress Dou to take over the administrative affairs. This threw the imperial court into prolonged turmoil. In 92, Emperor He allied with his eunuch, Zheng Zhong, finally destroyed the power of the Dou clan and grasped the power himself. Zheng Zhong was granted the title of Marquise for it. From then on, eunuchs were involved in the reign progressively.

Most successors to of the throne after Emperor He were children. Therefore, reigns of government had to be held by empress regents, in fact who usually relied on their clansmen. Naturally, the power were lost, and the consort clans manipulated the imperial court. When a young emperor grew up, he tried to break away from the control of the empress's family, seeking the support of eunuchs close to him. Consequently, eunuchs replaced consort clans to seize the power. Such pattern repeated constantly, and the reign of Emperors An, Shun and Huan had no exception, either. The year 146, when Emperor Huan came to the throne, it was a turning point at which palace eunuchs began to rise to supremacy, causing even greater upheavals in the court. The Eastern Han Dynasty entered its last stage when consort clans and eunuchs had the imperial power in hands.

Liang Ji, the brother of the Empress Liang, was the general during the reign of Emperor Shun. After the death of Emperor Shun in 144, Empress Dowager Liang and Liang Ji became the prominent power holders of the Eastern Han court. Initially, Liang Ji installed a two-year-old boy on the throne, known as Emperor Chong. The young emperor died in the following year. Then he had another boy the emperor, who was the eight-year-old Emperor Zhi. Young as an emperor, he knew that Liang Ji was imperious and despotic. Once in the court, the young emperor

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said to Liang, "You are a domineering general." In resentment, Liang Ji poisoned Emperor Zhi, and put fifteen-year-old Liu Zhi on the throne, that was Emperor Huan. Therefore, Liang Ji controlled the imperial court for nearly twenty years and his influence was tremendous.

When Empress Dowager Liang died in 159, it gave way to Shan Chao, a eunuch who could defeat the Liang clan. Conspired with Emperor Huan, Shan Chao had the army besiege Liang's mansion, then Liang Ji committed suicide, while all his family members were executed. Title of nobility was bestowed to Shan Chao. In fact, it was the fourth time that eunuchs dealt heavy blows on consort clans in the history of the Eastern Han. It benefited the politics and society to annihilate Liang Li and his partisans, but from than on, the regime of the Eastern Han was monopolized by eunuchs.

When the imperial power came into the governance of eunuchs, the politics tended to be gloomy. At this point, some righteous state officials with their followers united to fight against the clique of eunuchs in various means. Then the Movement of Pure Comments and Partisan Prohibition took place successively.

The Movement of Pure Comments: Eunuchs' monopoly on the regime not only worsened the politics, but interdicted scholars' official career, depriving their further development. At that time, the number of students in the state academy had reached up to over 30 000. Along with many Confucian scholars in the prefectures and counties, they allied with scholar-bureaucrats, forming a huge political force in the court and the commonalty to criticize the eunuchs' interference in the regime. This is the so called Pure Comments.

Partisan Prohibition: Confucian officials and students of the state academy not only availed public opinion to attack eunuchs, but began a conscious effort to form a coalition to drive out the political influence of the eunuchs. Therefore, the conflicts between the two sides intensified gradually.

The matter came to a climax in 166 over a murder case. Zhang Cheng, a fortuneteller in Luoyang, instructed his son to commit a murder. Li Ying, one of the famous Confucian scholars in government who was serving as the governor in the capital province, arrested the Zhangs, but indeed at this time a general pardon was issued. Li disregarded it and executed the Zhangs anyway due to the Zhang's close relation with eunuchs. However, Li did not anticipate that Zhang's disciple would then accuse him of forming clique with students of the academy and scholars in various prefectures to defame the imperial court and the emperor. Emperor

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Huan became extremely enraged, and arrested Li as well as some 200 students. It was this arrest order that coined the term "the partisans". Later, officials Huo Xu and Dou Wu submitted humble petitions again and again, requesting leniency for the partisans. Under their urging, Li Ying and the university students were released and exiled back to their hometowns. Their civil liberties were stripped for life. This was the first partisan prohibition. After this event, the opposition and struggle between Confucian official and students and eunuchs became acute farther.

After the death of Emperor Huan in the next year, Emperor Ling succeeded to the throne. General Dou Wu, the father of Empress Dowager Dou and *taifu* Chen Fan acted as regents. They restored the rights of the partisans, like Li Ying and other famous scholars, and in fact made many of them imperial officials. Later in 168, concerned that the eunuchs were exerting too much influence over the young emperor and the empress dowager, Dou Wu and Chen entered into a plan to exterminate the leading eunuchs. When word got out, headed with Chao Jie, the eunuchs instead mobilized the imperial guards and had Dou Wu arrested, who committed suicide later. The clan of Dou was executed. The eunuchs immediately removed the partisans from government and again suspended their civil liberties. The eunuchs were not content with just removing the partisans from government. In 169, they persuaded the 13-year-old Emperor Ling that the partisans were intent to rebel. The leading partisans, including Li Ying, Du Mi, and Fan Pang were arrested and executed. Overall, about 100 people lost their lives. This was the second Partisan Prohibition.

The Partisan Prohibition was not lifted until 184, when the Yellow Turban uprising took place. It was Lü Qiang, also a eunuch, who made the proposal. Fearing that the prohibited partisans felt discontented and would plot with Zhang Jiao, then Lü made the suggestion. Emperor Ling accepted it, decreeing that the partisans be free from the prohibition. Then the internal struggle of the ruling clique, which lasted more than several decades, was suspended temporarily in the confrontation of peasant rebellions.

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宦官与朋党
Consort Clans and Eunuchs

宦官与朋党：公元88年，年仅10岁的和帝继位，窦太后临朝。东汉的统治进入了中期。这时，匈奴再次分裂为南、北两部分。公元91年，汉和南匈奴联手铲除北匈奴。这一胜利，使大将军窦宪（窦太后的兄弟）得以掌权。汉朝廷从此被卷入混乱的漩涡。和帝于公元92年与宦官郑众等人合力诛灭窦氏，掌握实权，郑众因功封侯。自此，宦官越来越多地参与到东汉的政治统治之中。

和帝以后继位的皇帝也多是小儿。太后临朝听政，实是依靠娘家的父兄掌权，因此往往是大权旁落，外戚势力集团左右朝政。小皇帝年长之后，为摆脱外戚的控制，就向身边的宦官寻求帮助，继而宦官又掌大权。外戚与宦官的斗争循环往复，在安、顺、桓帝时也都发生过。

公元146年，桓帝在位时，这一斗争出现了转折点。宦官的权利达到无以复加的地步，在朝廷中掀起更大的波澜，形成东汉王朝后期的宦官与外戚专权的格局。

顺帝时，梁冀（梁皇后的兄弟）为大将军。公元144年，顺帝死后，朝廷的大权便落入梁太后和梁冀的手中。梁冀先立2岁的小儿为帝，是为冲帝。次年冲帝死，他又立8岁的小儿为帝，即质帝。质帝虽小，但却知道梁冀专权骄横。上朝时，他说梁冀，“此跋扈将军也。”梁冀很忿恨，就把质帝毒死，另立宗室15岁的刘志为帝，是为桓帝。梁冀专权近20年，势力庞大。

公元159年（延熹二年），梁皇后死，桓帝与中常侍单超等人合谋，以1 000余人包围梁冀的府第，梁冀自杀，梁氏的族人皆被诛。单超因功封侯。这是宦官对外戚的第四次打击。诛除梁冀及其党羽，对当时的政治、社会都有好处；但从此以后，东汉政权为宦官垄断。

宦官垄断政权以后，政治日益黑暗，一些比较正直的高级官吏及其门生、故吏，采取各种形式，对宦官集团展开了斗争。于是相继发生了“清议”运动和“党锢”事件。

清议：宦官专政不仅使政治黑暗，而且也阻断了仕途，严重地侵夺了士人的上进之路。这一时期，太学生已发展到30 000余人，各郡县的儒生也很多，就与官僚士大夫结合，在朝野形成一个庞大的官僚士大夫反宦官专权的社会政治力量，批评宦官专权乱政。这就是所谓的“清议”。

党锢：官僚士大夫和太学生们不仅在舆论上抨击宦官，还试图在政治上打击宦

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官势力。这样,官僚士大夫和太学生与宦官集团之间的斗争愈演愈烈。

公元166年的一桩命案则使其斗争达到高潮。术士张成教唆其子杀人,为司隶校尉李膺逮捕。适逢国家有赦令,可是李膺因张成与宦官关系密切,就把他们处死。不料想张成的弟子,诬告李膺与太学生、诸郡儒生及游学士人"共为部党,诽讪朝廷"。桓帝大怒,逮捕了李膺等200余人。"党锢"一词由此而出。后经尚书霍婿、城门校尉窦武等一再向桓帝说情,才得赦免回归田里,但却禁锢终身。这是第一次"党锢"。自这次事件之后,官僚士大夫和太学生与宦官集团的对立和斗争进一步激化。

第二年,桓帝死,灵帝立。太后之父窦武以大将军的身份与太傅陈蕃辅政。他们起用了李膺和其他一些被禁锢的名士。由于幼帝和太后为太监所左右,公元168年,他们又共谋诛除宦官集团。可是,由于事泄,以曹节为首的宦官发兵逮捕窦武,窦武自杀,窦氏宗族惨遭灭门。曹节等宦官迅速清除其同党,再次实行免官禁锢。但是宦官并不满足于此,公元169年,他们对13岁的灵帝说朋党欲造反。后以李膺、杜密、范滂为首的朋党皆被杀,前后又100多人丧命。这是第二次"党锢"。

这次党锢直到中平元年(184年)黄巾大起义时才被解除。建议解除禁锢的也是一个宦官,即中常侍吕强。他怕受禁锢的人心怀不满,与张角等"合谋",因之提出这一建议。灵帝接受了这个建议,下诏解除了"党锢"。统治阶级内部的这场长达数十年的斗争,在农民起义面前,暂告中止。



东汉末年农民战争
Rebellion of the Yellow Turbans and the Fall of the Han Dynasty

In 184, the Yellow Turban Rebellion occurred, which was a peasant rebellion against the Eastern Han Dynasty in the reign of Emperor Ling. It was named for the color of the scarves which the rebels wore around their heads. Since the rebels were associated with secret *Taiping* Taoist societies, the rebellion also marked an important event in the history of Taoism.

After the death of Du Wu, Emperor Ling became a puppet manipulated by eunuchs. In order to secure the throne, he tried to please eunuchs, going so far as

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to refer to one of them as his father. Thus, the eunuchs extorted money from the people unscrupulously. The corrupt imperial court, the landlords' oppression along with the successive natural disasters made it impossible for the people to live on, so many of them rose up to revolt.

At the end of the Eastern Han, Zhang Jiao of Julu (modern Pingxiang in Hebei Province) established a secret Taoist sect— *Tai Ping Dao*, declaring himself to be Great Teacher. He traveled around the country propagating his faith and dispensing free treatment to the sick. In ten year or so, Tai Ping Dao spread more than half the country, and enlisted several hundreds of thousands of followers. In order to start up rebellion, Zhang Jiao divided the whole country into 36 *fang* (section) with a bigger *fang* consisting of more than 100 000 persons and a smaller one 6 000 ~ 7 000. Meanwhile he brought forward a slogan, "The Blue Sky has perished, the Yellow Sky will soon rise; in this year of Jia Zi (i. e., the year 184), let there be prosperity in the world!" (Blue Sky was referred to the Eastern Han and Yellow Heaven to the Yellow Turbans), which was an obvious call for peasants uprising against the Eastern Han court. He also sent Ma Yuanyi, to the Capital Luoyang and other places to see that everything was in order.

The uprising had been set on March the fifth, 184, but had to be launched in February ahead of schedule, for the betrayer, Tang Zhou, informed against the Yellow Turbans. Zhang Jiao called himself "Heavenly General", his younger brothers Zhang Bao, "General of the Earth" and Zhang Liang, "General of Men", who assisted him in the rebellion. In less than a month, the movement took hold with people responding from all over the country, and the uprising progressed rapidly.

The peasant uprising shocked the imperial court. On one hand, Emperor Ling mustered troops to defend the capital; on the other hand, he appointed generals Huangpu Song, Zhu Jun and Lu Zhi to attack the Yellow Turban forces.

Huangpu Song and Zhu Jun had an army of 40 000. In the attack on Yingchuan, Zhu Jun was defeated, while Huangpu Song was besieged in Changshe (modern Changge in Henan Province). With the help of reinforcements, they conquered the Yellow Turbans, slaughtering tens of thousands of rebels.

The imperial court had dispatched Lu Zhi to fight against Zhang Jiao, yet the attack yielded no victory. Then the unsuccessful Lu Zhi was replaced by Dong Zhuo, who also suffered a failure. Finally, Huangpu Song was moved to attack Zhang Jiao. At that time, Zhang Jiao died of illness, and the rebellious army was led by Zhang Liang and Zhang Bao. Huangpu Song sprang a surprise attack and

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put more than 80 000 insurgents, including Zhang Liang, out of action. The Yellow Turbans retreated to Xiaquyang (the west of modern Jinxian County in Hebei), only to suffer another defeats when encountered with Huangpu's army there. Zhang Bao was killed in the battle, and several hundred thousand of his men were killed, wounded or captured.

After nearly nine months of fierce battles, the main force of the Yellow Turban Army was wiped out, but the flame of peasants uprisings were far from extinguished. Many armed insurgent units kept on fighting. By 192, there were still 300 000 or more Yellow Turbans operating in present-day Shandong. Thirteen years later, the Heishan (Black Hill) Army in central-south Hebei still numbered upwards of 100 000. Despite the failure of the Yellow Turban uprising, it shook the Eastern Han Dynasty regime to its foundations. Its days were numbered. As a result of the Yellow Turbans, northern China was devastated, and the military leaders were prepared for the struggle among the warlords.

When Emperor Ling died in 189, Empress Dowager He took over regency, installing Lingdi's young son 13-year-old Liu Bian as emperor. He Jin, brother of the Empress Dowager, thought that the time had come to get rid of eunuchs definitely, and in order not to repeat the failure of 168, he invited Dong Zhuo to command his troops to enter and garrison in the capital Luoyang. However, the information was leaked to the eunuchs, who acted first and had He Jin killed. The powerful eunuchs being without military support, Yuan Shao and his brother Yuan Shu broke into the palace with their forces and killed more than 2 000 eunuchs. Not long after that, Dong Zhuo entered Luoyang, who deposed Emperor Shao and put Liu Xie, Xiandi on the throne. By intimidation and brutal force, Dong Zhuo gained his own position at the court ensured, while most men of rank had left the capital. Bureaucratic official throughout the country launched punitive expeditions against Dong one after another, and the situation of separatist warlord regime came into being eventually. The Eastern Han Dynasty endured only nominally and soon gave way to the Three Kingdoms.

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东汉末年农民战争
Rebellion of the Yellow Turbans and the Fall of the Han Dynasty

爆发于公元184年的黄巾起义是农民反抗灵帝统治的汉王朝的武装斗争，因起义农民头裹黄色丝巾而得名。起义者与太平教（一个秘密道教组织）关系密切，为此黄巾起义也是道教发展史上的重要事件。

窦武死后，灵帝成为宦官的傀儡。为了保住自己的皇位，灵帝极力讨好宦官，竟称宦官为父亲。宦官们更是肆无忌惮的搜刮民财。朝廷的腐败，地主豪强的压迫，再加上接二连三的天灾，百姓没法生活下去，被迫起来反抗。

东汉末年，巨鹿（今河北平乡）人张角创太平道，自称大贤良师，在各地传教，并免费给穷人看病。十余年间，太平道传遍了大半个中国，各地信徒发展到几十万人。为了发动起义，张角全国分为三十六方，大方有10 000余人，小方6 000～7 000人。张角又提出口号："苍天已死，黄天当立，岁在甲子，天下大吉。"（"苍天"指东汉王朝，"黄天"指太平道），用来鼓动广大农民起来革命。同时派马元义到京师洛阳和各地查看起义准备情况。

张角原定于公元184年3月5日起义。可是由于叛徒唐周告密，决定提前于2月间起义。张角自称"天公将军"，其弟张宝称"地公将军"，张梁称"人公将军"。不到一个月的时间，各地民众纷纷响应，起义浪潮迅速席卷全国。

黄巾起义后，汉灵帝和宦官们十分恐慌。他们一面调集军队，保卫京师洛阳；一面以皇甫嵩、朱隽、卢植为中郎将，率军进攻黄巾军。

皇甫嵩和朱隽共有40 000万余人，在进攻颍川黄巾时，朱隽被击败，皇甫嵩被围困在长社（今河南长葛）城中。后来他们得到支援，大败黄巾军，屠杀起义农民有数万之多。

朝廷派卢植进攻张角，结果大败。朝廷撤了卢植的职，另派董卓进攻张角，亦被张角打败。朝廷再调皇甫嵩进攻张角。此时，张角病死，起义军由张梁和张宝率领。皇甫嵩用偷袭的办法打败了黄巾军，张梁战死，黄巾军英勇牺牲的有80 000多人。起义军退至下曲阳（河北晋县西），皇甫嵩再行进攻，张宝战死，所部死伤被俘的有十余万人。

经过近9个月的激战，黄巾军的主力已基本被消灭，可是革命的烈火却已经燃烧起来了，各地的斗争前赴后继。至192年，还有30多万黄巾军在今山东地区活

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动。13 年后河北中南部的黑山军亦有部众 10 万人。

黄巾起义虽然失败了，但却动摇了东汉政权的统治基础，其灭亡已是指日可待。由于黄巾起义，北方地区遭受到巨大的破坏，各地豪强拥兵自重，相互争斗。

公元 189 年，灵帝驾崩，何太后临朝，立灵帝 13 岁的儿子刘辩为帝。何太后的哥哥何进认为清除宦官的时机已到。为避免重蹈公元 168 年之覆辙，何进邀董卓率兵进驻洛阳。不料走漏了消息，何进先为宦官所杀。但是太监并无兵权，袁绍和其弟袁术率兵入宫，诛杀 2 000 多名太监。不久，董卓率兵入洛阳，废少帝刘辩，立刘协为帝，是为汉献帝。董卓独揽大权，残暴专横，多数大臣已离开京城。各地官吏纷纷举兵讨伐董卓，逐步形成了诸强割据的局面，统一的王朝已名存实亡，魏蜀吴三国鼎立局面很快形成。

东汉经济
Economy of the Eastern Han

Agriculture in the Eastern Han was more advanced than that of the Western Han, for iron farm tools and ox plough were popular, which was not only used in the central plain, but in the remote areas, like Gansu and Guangdong, as well. In most cases were two oxen drawing a plough, while occasionally one ox was used.

In the earlier years of the Eastern Han, the government had attached importance to constructing water conservancy. In the reign of Emperor Ming, the noted specialist Wang Jing and Wang Wu organized the huge project to repair and harness the Yellow River and the Bianqu canal, in which hundreds of thousands of people were recruited. As a result, major breaks in the dykes or changes in the river course did not occur through the following 800 years. Many magistrates also paid attention to the local water conservancy. A lot of canals and ditches were rebuilt or dug, which contributed to the agricultural irrigation and water transport.

Water power had been applied to the production activities in the early Eastern Han. Besides the hydraulic water lifting devices, winnowers and water-powered mills were introduced, which raised efficiency by a wide margin.

Landlord manors came into being gradually in this period. A landlord possessing a large-scale field was a manor landlord, while the manor county estate. Man-

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ors included arable fields, mountain forests as well as rivers and pools, which were all in the possession of landlord. Most of peasants on the manors were renders, who engaged in agriculture or sideline activities under the instruction of landlords or his agents. The tenant farmers did not pay taxes to the state but only pay rental money to the landowner. The farmsteads comprised not only the huge buildings for the living of the noble family but also farm buildings, mills and factories, which were surrounded by a wall that made the farmstead a small fortress. A few large estate owners also possessed a private army to defend their possessions. Generally speaking, a manor was a self-supporting economic unit in landlord economy.

Salt-making, iron-smelting, bronze-casting, Lacquer wares and cloth-weaving were principle handicraft trades, most of which were privately running and superior in technology to that of the Western Han.

The iron-smelting industry was kept freely. The state-owned one was engaged in the making of weapons, chariot and horse gears as well as other implements of production and living. To meet the demands of market, the private industry focused on the production of commodities, including farm tools, manual instruments and living appliances. Pottery objects found their way into the daily life of the common people as they were in the families of privileged aristocrats.

A great progress was made in the technique of smelting, like the invention of steel making at a low temperature. With the spread of this technology, steel was more popularized. Thus, iron and steel replaced bronze in making principal weapons like swords.

With an enlarged planting of mulberry and hemp, sericulture, silk and flax fabrics weaving industries grew rapidly, and the weaving technology was also improved. Modern Shandong and Sichuan Provinces were the major producing area of silk.

Business was booming, for the growth of agriculture and handicraft industry brought about more products in the Eastern Han Dynasty. In 40, Liu Xiu decreed to recast *5-zhu*-coin with the abolition of the old currency, which got rid of the disordered currency and promoted the economic development. Luoyang became the commercial center of the whole country. Other cities, such as Yangzhou (present Yangzhou City in Jiangsu Province), Jingzhou (present Shashi City in Hubei Province), and Yizhou (present Chengdu City in Sichuan Province) all witnessed prosperities in their handicraft industry and commerce. The urban population increased

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largely.

During the reign of Emperor Zhang and Emperor He, silk from China was becoming familiar to people as far away as the Roman Empire. In return, China received variety of exotic goods.

The increasing transaction sped up the development of traffic. The thousand-mile-long plank road leading to economically important region of Ba Shu (modern Sichuan) was repaired many times, and many official roads were built, along which there were post stations to secure the safety of businessmen and travelers, provide accommodation and facilitate traffic.



东汉经济
Economy of the Eastern Han

东汉时期的农业生产较西汉更有发展，这和铁农具、耕牛更加广泛的使用有密切关系。不仅中原地区在使用牛耕，远至甘肃、广东等边远地区也已使用牛耕。大多数是二牛抬杠，也有少数用一牛的。

东汉初年，官府已注意水利的兴修。明帝时，命民间水利专家王景和将作谒者王吴主持修治黄河和汴渠，并为这项工程而征调数十万人。黄河经过这次整治后，大约有800多年的时间，未再发生决堤改道之事。有些郡守县令也重视本地区的水利兴修。沟渠的修复或开凿，对于农田灌溉和交通运输都起了很大的作用。东汉初年，各地已在利用水力进行生产。除先进的汲水工具外，风车、水磨坊亦投入使用，极大地提高了生产效率。

东汉时期地主庄园逐渐形成。拥有大范围田地的地主可称为庄园地主，庄园就是田庄。庄园中不仅有耕地，其中的山林川泽也为地主所霸占。在地主庄园内，绝大多数农民是地主的佃户。佃农们在地主或其手下的指挥下，从事农业或副业生产。佃户不必向国家交税，但要向地主交租。庄园中不仅有供贵族家庭居住的高大建筑，还有农舍，磨坊和作坊。庄园主筑起围墙将整个庄园围起来，使得庄园有如城堡一般。少数的庄园主还拥有武装，用以保护自己的私产。

东汉时期的重要手工业有煮盐、冶铁、铸铜、漆器、纺织等，以私营为主，生产技术都较西汉进步。

冶铁业自由经营。国家或官府经营的冶铁业以制造国家或官府需要的兵器、车马具及其他生产、生活用具为主。民营的冶铁业以生产商品为主，以供市场上的

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需要。产品以农具、手工工具及生活用具为最多。陶器不再是达官贵族家中的稀罕之物，也开始进入寻常百姓之家。

东汉的冶炼技术有很大的进步，发明了低温炼钢法。这一技术的发明和推广，使钢的使用更加普遍。于是，铁兵器如刀、剑等最后完全代替了铜兵器。

东汉的桑、麻种植的范围比西汉扩大，养蚕和丝织业、麻织业都有很大的发展，纺织技术也有进步。主要丝织品产地在今山东、四川等省。

东汉时期，由于农业和手工业的发展，商品较多，因之商业也在发展。建武十六年（公元40年），刘秀下令重铸五铢钱，废除了一切旧币，消除了货币混乱的局面，促进了商业的发展。洛阳成了全国商业中心，南方的扬州（今江苏扬州一带）、荆州（今湖北沙市一带）、益州（今四川成都一带）的手工业商业也都很兴旺，城市人口大量增加。章帝、和帝统治时期，中国的丝绸已为罗马人所熟知，而大量的异域商品也不断涌入。

陆路与海外贸易的发展，促进了交通事业的发展。自关中通向巴蜀的千里栈道多次得到整治，又修筑多条官道。这些栈道、大道的沿途，多筑有亭障、邮驿，以保卫商旅，安顿食宿，便利交通。



对外关系
Foreign Relations

During the period of the Eastern Han, transmarine transport expanded, which led to a close relation with other countries. The Han court received a Japanese goodwill envoy in 57 to whom Emperor Guangwu gave a seal inscribed with a title of honor. Later, Han iron and bronze wares and silk goods found their way to Japan.

It is said that in 64, Mingdi sent his official Cai Yin to Central Asia to learn more about Buddhism after a vision of a golden figure appeared to him in a dream, who a minister told him was Buddha. In 67, Cai Yin returned and brought back with him not only the images of Buddha and Buddhist scriptures but also two Buddhist monks Kasyapamatanga and Dharmaranya, who came to Luoyang at the invitation of the Han emissary, which marked the beginning of the spread of Buddhism in China. Emperor Ming ordered the White Horse Monastery built in their honor and asked them to translate Buddhist sutras into Chinese. They were followed by the

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Parthian monk An Shigao, who came to China in 148 and stayed for more than 20 years. He became a well-known translator, rendering into Chinese 95 Buddhist works comprising 115 *juan* during his stay.

During the reign of Emperor Zhang and Emperor He, with China's prosperity came another attempt at westward expansion. In 73, for the purpose of building good relationship with western region tribes, a military officer, Ban Chao, younger brother of Ban Gu, went westward on a diplomatic mission with a delegation of thirty-six men. He finally made those desert tribes tributaries of the Eastern Han Empire, which ensured the long peace and smoothness along the Silk Road. Furthermore, Ban Chao once remained in the Western Regions for 31 years, suppressing rebellions and establishing diplomatic relations with over 50 states there.

In 97, the Eastern Han court dispatched an emissary, Gan Ying to Daqin (the Roman Empire). He traveled westward, passing Tiaozhi (modern Iraq) and Anxi (modern Iran), and finally arrived at the west border of Anxi (the Persian Gulf), but returned without crossing the sea. Though failed to reach Daqin, he brought home a wealth of information about west Asia. As the most famous envoy after Zhang Qian, Gan Ying made great contribution to open a route connecting Asia with Europe.



对外关系
Foreign Relations

东汉时期海外交通进一步发展。建武中元二年(57),倭国派使臣来赠送方物,刘秀赐以印绶。此后东汉的铁器、铜器和丝织品便源源不断地输往倭国。

相传,汉明帝在梦里见到一个金人,大臣告诉他那是佛。于是公元64年,明帝遣郎中蔡愔等出使天竺(印度)求其道。蔡愔于公元67年回洛阳,带来佛像和一些佛经,并邀请沙门摄摩腾和竺法兰一起回国。次年,明帝在洛阳建白马寺,供摄摩腾、竺法兰居住,并翻译《四十二章经》,为中土佛教之始。公元148年帕提亚僧人安世高来到中国,居住了20年。在此期间,他翻译了115卷95部佛经,成为著名的译者。

章帝、和帝时,国力强盛,朝廷意图向西拓展疆域。公元73年,为建立与西域

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各国的友好关系，班超（班固的弟弟）带领36名军士，奉命出使西域。他成功说服各国向东汉称臣，确保了丝绸之路的安全畅通。班固在西域长达31年之久，不但多次镇压叛乱，还与50多个国家建立了外交关系。

公元97年，东汉朝廷派甘英出使大秦（罗马帝国）。甘英西经条支（今伊拉克）、安息（今伊朗）诸国，至安息西界（波斯湾），未过海而还，带回了大量有关西亚地区的信息。甘英是继张骞之后到达西亚的使节，为开辟欧亚通道做出了重要贡献。



科学与文化
Science and Culture

In the fields of science and culture, the Eastern Han exceeded the former Western Han due to the enhanced regime and the maintained stability of the society in its early period. Wang Chong was a militant materialist and philosopher, whose main work *Lunheng* (Discourses Weight in the Balance) lashed out at orthodox theology, and showed a rationalist critic of superstition and the thought of cosmic universalism. Regarding *yuan qi* (primordial substance) as the original material basis of all things, heaven and earth included, he took matter as the point of departure in interpreting natural phenomena and life itself. His great book erected a monument in Chinese history of atheism in the method of demonstration and argumentation.

Ban Gu was the editor of *Comprehensive Discussions in the White Tiger Hall*, but what earned his lasting academic fame is his *History of the Han Dynasty*. Following the biographic-thematic style of *Records of the Historian*, Ban Gu spent twenty years finishing this voluminous work. The book comprises 100 volumes, covering the history of 230 years from the peasant uprisings towards the end of the Qin Dynasty to the defeat of Wang Mang.

In 105, Cai Lun improved the old technique of paper making, using tree barks, rags and old fishing nets to make paper, which was called Marquis Cai's paper in honour of the inventor. It put an end to the use of bamboo slips as writing materials and became one of the four great ancient Chinese inventions. Chinese paper making was spread to Japan from Korea in the 7th century, to Arabia in the

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8th and to Europe in the 12th, which contributed greatly to the development of world culture.

In the field of natural science, represented by Zhang Heng, the academe of the Eastern Han made great achievements. Zhang Heng invented seismography and the Armillary Sphere so as to observe the universe and perceive earthquake. The theories of making this equipment are still in a wide application.

The Mathematics in Nine Sections, completed in early Eastern Han after repeated revision over a long period, systematically summarized the important achievements in this field since the Spring and Autumn and the Warring States periods. The book contained 264 applied mathematics problems and was divided into nine sections according to the methods of solution and field of application. Its appearance demonstrated that mathematics in China had developed into a scientific system.

Emperor Shen Nong's Material and Medica (Shengnong Bai Cao) is the earliest existent pharmaceutical work of the Eastern Han and the first systematic conclusion about the medicine application, known as the classic of the traditional Chinese pharmaceutical system. The book is composed of three volumes, recording 365 kinds of medicine—252medicinal herbs, 67 animal drugs and 46 mineral drugs—together with their locations, their properties, their functions, their efficacy and their mixed application.

Zhang Zhongjing was from the modern Nanyang, Henan province, one of the most eminent Chinese physicians during the last years of the Eastern Han. During his time, many people were infected with febrile disease. He learned medicine from his townfellow Zhang Bozu, assimilating from previous medicinal literature, and collecting many prescriptions elsewhere, finally writing the medical masterpiece *Shanghan Zabing Lun* or *Treatise on Febrile Diseases*. Due to Zhang's contribution to Traditional Chinese medicine he is often regarded as the sage of Chinese medicine.

Hua Tuo, a famous physician at the end of the Eastern Han, first employed the method of anesthesia in his surgical operation. He devised a series of exercises based on the movements of five animals (tiger, deer, bear, ape, and crane) known as *wuqinxi*, or "Frolics of The Five Animals", which helps to enhance health.

In the field of agriculture, Fan Shengzhi (his book *Fan Shengzhi Shu*) proposed measurements to ameliorate the harvest results. The peasantry was recognized as the provider of the whole society, and his work had to be estimated.

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While men worked the fields, women had to spin and to wave. Fan Shengzhi also made propositions for gardening, horse breeding, and the breeding of silkworms.

In this period, calligraphy and painting no longer merely served as picture writing, they began to develop into a kind of art.



科学与文化
Science and Culture

在东汉前期，政权进一步加强，国家趋于稳定，文化、科学技术等方面的发展都超过了西汉的水平。王充是唯物主义思想家和哲学家，著《论衡》抨击封建神学，批判神秘主义和世俗迷信。他主张元气论，认为天地万物都是元气分化出来的，人与物禀气而生，气散而亡，天道自然无为，没有意志和神灵。他的著作用实证和说理的方法，在中国无神论史上树起一座丰碑。

东汉班固是《白虎通义》的编撰者，但使他名声大震的却是《汉书》。班固花费20多年的心血，仿《史记》，著成了中国第一部断代史《汉书》。《汉书》共100篇，叙述了秦末农民战争至王莽覆灭的230年的断代历史。

公元105年，蔡伦改造了原有的纸张制造技术，用树皮、麻头、破布、旧渔网等原料造纸，被称为“蔡侯纸”。中国的文字记录方式脱离了使用竹简的时代，同时造纸术也成为中国古代四大发明之一，中国的造纸术在7世纪传入日本、朝鲜，8世纪传入阿拉伯，12世纪传入欧洲，这都极大地促进了世界文化的发展。

在自然科学方面，以张衡为代表的东汉学术界，有着很高的成就。张衡则以高超的工艺制造了“浑天仪”、“地动仪”等科学仪器，观察天象，感应地震。制造这些仪器的原理至今仍被广泛使用。《九章算术》完成于东汉初年。此前先后有多人对其进行了修改、补充。该书系统总结了春秋、战国以来的数学成就。书中收有264个数学应用问题，并依照问题的解法和应用范围分为9个部分。《九章算术》的完成标志着中国的数学已发展成为一个科学体系。

《神农本草经》是现存最早的药物学专著，为我国早期临床用药经验的第一次系统总结，历代被誉为中药学经典著作。全书分三卷，载药365种（植物药252种，动物药67种，矿物药46种）。书中对每一味药的场地、性质、采集和主治病症都有详细记载。对各种药物怎样相互配合应用，以及简单的制剂，都做了概述。

张仲景，今河南南阳人，是东汉末年的名医。汉末疫疾流行，大批人感染死亡。张仲景从师同乡张伯祖学医。他汲取前人医学著作之所长，广泛收集医方，终

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于写出了传世巨著《伤寒杂病论》。后人尊称他为“医宗之圣”。

另外，东汉末年的名医华佗，是有记载以来第一位利用麻醉技术对病人进行手术治疗的外科医生，他创造的“五禽戏”是我国第一套体操性质的健身活动。

范胜之著《范胜之书》，提出了改进农业生产的方法，认为农民要为全社会提供粮食，为此必须对其劳动进行评估。男人在田间劳作，女人应在家中纺纱织布。他还对园艺、养马、养蚕提出了建议。

到东汉时期，书法、绘画已不单纯作为文字图形符号使用，它们的艺术地位逐渐显露出来。

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Chapter 9 三国——魏、蜀、吴 Three Kingdoms: Wei, Shu Han, and Wu

Three Wei kingdoms period was famous in Chinese history for the rival states of Wei, Shu and Wu: the Wei in northern China, the Shu to the west, and the Wu in the east. (Strictly speaking, From 220 when Cao Pi ascend the throne of Han, the three kingdoms began.) The Three Kingdoms existed from 220 ~ 280 when Western Jin ended the disunity of the three states.

三国时期是我国历史上非常著名的一段时期，它从赤壁之战(208)起，至西晋统一中国(280)止。(严格说，从220年曹丕代汉，才是三国的开始。)在此期间，曹氏的魏国，刘氏的蜀国和孙氏的吴国三国鼎立，故而，称为三国时期。

汉末乱世 Chaos at the End of the Han Dynasty

The end of the Han Dynasty was followed by a long period of disunity and constant civil wars between eunuch and relatives of the emperor's wife. The leaders of the kingdoms strove to reunite the empire and therefore massacre of killing greatly weakened the governing of the Eastern Han Dynasty.

In 184, the prevailing peasants uprising, led by Zhang Jiao and his two brothers known as the Yellow Turban uprising, was broken out. To suppress the uprising, the Eastern Han sovereign had to give power to the local lords and admitted and supported nonpublically the local militias to fight against the outlaws. After a year of war, the Yellow Turban uprising was defeated. However, the various local feudal lords ended up with strong political and military strength. In addition, for fearing of that they might lose their local control, these local lords united and elected the capable and celebrated lord their leader, therefore the Eastern Han authori-

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ty was severely shaken and became virtually a puppet one.

In 189 Liu Bian came into the power after the death of Ling Emperor, his father. In order to seize the power, the minister He Jin accepted the advice from Yuan Shao to plot Dong Zhuo, a prominent warlord then intruding into the capital Luoyang under the name of eliminating the control of eunuch. When Dong Zhuo led his army forward to deal with the disorders, the power of the imperial government was ended. On 28 September, Dong Zhuo deposed the young emperor Liu Bian and placed his half-brother Liu Xie, Emperor Xian, upon the throne. Within a few weeks there was open rebellion against Dong Zhuo the whole country was in the chaos situation of civil wars again. In 191 the army of Sun Jian, under the command of Yuan Shu, drove Dong Zhuo from Luoyang west to Chang'an, and in 192 Dong Zhuo was assassinated by his former body-guard Lü Bu. The central government fell into complete disorder and played no further part in the affairs of the rest of the empire, and the alliance in the east broke up into anarchy of warfare across the whole of the plain.

Leaders of the rebels in the east included Yuan Shao and Yuan Shu, ruled the four states of You, Qing, ji, Bing (now the areas of Hebei province) who controlled a network of influence based on the high official status of their family and their land property, and men such as Cao Cao, controlled the middle and lower Huanghe River valley, not so well regarded, but with sufficient resources of family property to raise his own private army. Many of the regular officials of the provinces were reluctant to break the peace, but the local pressure was overwhelming, and those who did not join the rebels were swiftly eliminated. And there were, of course, some fighting men and adventurers, some of them with pretensions to an official position, took advantage of the growing turmoil to seek power and profit on their own initiative.



汉末乱世
Chaos at the End of the Han Dynasty

汉章帝以后，东汉政府一直处于宦官与外戚的权力斗争之中，这两大集团力量的互相斗争，每一次的战争无不伴随大规模的杀戮，严重削弱了东

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汉帝国的势力。

公元184年,中国大地上爆发了以张角三兄弟为首的、规模空前的农民起义。东汉政府为了镇压黄巾起义,一方面放权到洲牧、太守,一方面默认并支持地主阶层组织私人武装,对抗起义军。经过近一年的较量,基本上把黄巾军镇压下来。但是经过黄巾起义,东汉政府已经摇摇欲坠,各洲牧、太守纷纷拥兵自重,地方豪强为了共同利益,形成利益共同体,并推举德高望重或有能力的人当统帅,东汉政权已经名存实亡。

公元189年,灵帝亡,刘辩即位,宦官和外戚展开新一轮权力争夺。为了在权力争夺中取得决定性胜利,何进听取袁绍建议,征调四方猛将、英雄豪杰率兵入京,造成董卓乱政。同年9月28日,董卓以诛宦官为名,进入洛阳,废刘辩,立其堂兄刘协为帝,即汉献帝。几周后,士族豪强袁绍起兵讨董卓,一时间全国又陷入内战混乱之中。公元191年,袁术的部将孙坚起兵将董卓逐出洛阳,董卓逃至西安。公元192年董卓被其护卫吕布所杀。中央政府陷入混乱,东汉政权尽失,乱世正式来临。在中原大地上军阀混战一片。

在起兵伐董卓的军阀中,东有袁绍、袁术以家族的高位和殷实的财产成为实力最大的一方,据有冀、青、幽、并四州(现河北境内),曹操也凭着实力招兵买马,拥有自己的兵力,屯据黄河中下游一带。当地的其他军阀虽无心破坏和平的时局,但迫于地方军阀的压力而加入纷争,以求自保或从乱世中渔利。



曹操统一北方
Cao Cao's Unification of the Northern China

Yuan Shao extended his power to the north of the Yellow River, while in further south, between the Yellow River and the Huai River, there was a tense and vicious conflict between Yuan Shu, Cao Cao, and Tao Qian, the Governor of Xu province, Lü Bu from the northwest and Liu Bei, a man of poor family who yet claimed descent from the rulers of former Han. Yuan Shu was driven south to of the Huai River in 193, Tao Qian was destroyed in 194, and Liu Bei surrendered in 196. Cao Cao's power spread unprecedently, and by 198, when he captured Lü Bu and killed him, Cao Cao had no further rival in the southern part of the Yellow River area.

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In 196, Cao Cao forced Emperior Xian to move his capital to Xuchang (in present-day Henan Province), took advantage of ruling in the emperor's name and continued to project his influence. And he justified his actions as a loyal minister of Han. During this period, the development of agriculture was heavily hampered and there were prevailing famines, therefore food supply was fatal for warlords. The cases were countless that the warlords were self-defeated for lacking sufficient food supply instead of being destroyed in the battle. In the same year, Cao Cao accepted a land reclamation system, an advice proposed by Zao Di, one of his subordinate. According to this system, destitute peasants placed under military officers were organized into civilian colonies to work in the land while soldiers, when not fighting, were encouraged to grow crops in military colonies. This system yielded with great harvest and excellent results. Then the system was spread all over the country which effectively settled the problem of food supply of the army. Meanwhile, Cao Cao implemented other policies such as subsiding small owner-peasant, transferring people to farm on the deserted farmland in war zones, developing the irrigating system and recovering the growing of agriculture. All these practices enhanced the agricultural development and enriched the national reserve. Since the year 198, after taking protection and control of Emperor Xian, Cao Cao started his plan of crushing other warlords and united the northern part of China.



In the summer of 200, armed with 100 000 skillful land armies and about 10 000 cavalries, Yuan Shao marched south to fight with Cao Cao. Cao Cao killed Yuan Shao's two fierce warriors Yan Liang and Wen Chou in succession and stayed in the small city of Guan Du, south of the Yellow River(Zhongmou county, Henan Province) where Yuan Shao and Cao Cao met in a long-drawn campaign. Cao Cao's forces were heavily outnumbered, but they held their defence for more than a month, then a fortunate raid against the enemy's supply lines in Wuchao broke the morale of Yuan Shao's forces and the chief general Zhang He and Gao Lan surrendered. Cao Cao launched a counterattack, killed ten thousands and captured about 70 000 of the enemies and drove them in disorder to the north. Two years later, Yuan Shao died, his two sons fought against each other over the inheritance,

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and Cao Cao took advantage of the confusion. In 207, after a brilliant campaign at Wuwan, Cao Cao cleared off Yuan Shao's remaining forces, established control over all the Yellow plain and became the most powerful military lords in north of China.



曹操统一北方
Cao Cao's Unification of the Northern China

袁绍的势力主要在黄河以北;向南,在淮河和黄河之间,有袁术、曹操、徐州太守陶谦、西北的吕布和刘备。刘备出生寒微但却是汉室后人。袁术于公元193年兵败逃到河北(淮河以北),陶谦于次年被击败,刘备在196年投降曹操。曹操的军队实力盛极一时,到198年曹操俘杀吕布后,在黄河流域已无人能敌。

公元196年,曹操又将洛阳的献帝迎至许昌,挟天子以令诸侯,在政治上得到了优势。这一时期,社会生产遭受严重破坏,出现大饥荒。粮食供应成为各军事军队最大的问题,因军粮不足而无敌自破者不可胜数。建安元年,曹操采纳部下枣祇等人的建议,在许下募民屯田,当年即大见成效,得谷百万斛。于是曹操命令在各州郡设置田官,兴办屯田。屯田有效地解决了曹操军队的粮食问题,在兴置屯田的同时,他采取各种措施,扶植自耕农经济。针对当时人口流失,田地荒芜的情况,曹操先后采取招怀流民、迁徙人口、兴修水利、恢复农业生产等措施。通过以上措施,曹操统治区的农业生产迅速恢复。这是其在经济上的一大成功。从建安二年起,曹操利用他"挟天子以令诸侯"的政治优势,东征西讨,开始了他翦灭群雄,统一北方的战争。

公元200年夏,袁绍挑选10万精锐步兵,骑兵万余,南下与曹操争锋,曹操先后击杀袁绍勇将颜良、文丑后勒兵官渡(今河南中牟县);袁绍兵力远远超过曹操,但交战一月后袁绍无法取胜。后曹操放火烧掉袁绍屯放于乌巢的军粮等军用物资,袁绍大将张郃、高览投降曹操,袁军士气全无,曹操乘机发动大反攻,杀万余,俘虏7万余。袁军仓皇北逃,其后袁绍一蹶不振,两年后,袁绍病死,二子争位,曹操加以利用,公元207年,曹操远征乌丸,出其不意,大胜,平定了北方,一举成为北方最强的军事集团。

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赤壁之战及三国鼎立
The Red Cliffs Campaign and Three Kingdoms

In 208 Cao Cao led his army to march south, seized Prefect Jingzhou (now Hubei province) and posed a direct menace to Sun Quan, who ruled in the middle and lower course of the Yangtze River. Meanwhile, Liu Bei, the descendant from the rulers of the former Han, although in exile, striving to restore the power of Han, led his remaining soldiers to seek support from Sun Quan. In the Yangtze River valley, Sun Quan was uncertain of his best course of action, and Liu Bei sent his brain-trust Zhuge Liang to state the reasoning. At Zhuge Liang's instance, Sun Quan decided after a hot debate at his headquarters, however, to send troops forward under the command of Zhou Yu to join Liu Bei and to test Cao Cao's strength. If their defence should be unsuccessful, he could withdraw most of his men and still have a reserve army with which to negotiate terms.

The allies met Cao Cao's forces at the Red Cliffs (on the Yangtze between present-day Wuhan and Yueyang) and for a few days the two groups faced one the other across the river. The men of Cao Cao from the north had already taken part in a long campaign with several forced marches and they were not used to the southern waterways and marshlands, therefore there was sickness in the camp. Besides some of the Cao Cao's army and all of the fleet had formerly served Liu Biao, they were undecided about their new master. For his own part, Cao Cao probably regarded the operation as a reconnaissance in force: if he was successful in defeating the allies and driving them to separate surrenders, so much the better; if not, he could withdraw and look for another occasion in the future.

Cao Cao's first attack was driven back and then the wind changed against him and Zhou Yu sent in an attack with fire-ships. In the technology of warfare at that time, fire was a common weapon, and when used in the right circumstance it could create large-scale destruction. Whatever preparations Cao Cao may have made against the threat, he was compelled to abandon his position and retreat, and the allies enhanced their victory with tales of slaughter. After Cao Cao pulled back to his northern base, Sun Quan consolidated his position of the south. While

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Liu Bei seized part of the regions under the jurisdiction of Jingzhou Prefecture and later took Yizhou (mostly in present-day Sichuan Province) in the West. And so situation arose in which the country was divided and ruled by the three feudal lords. The battle at the Red Cliffs has become one of the most celebrated battles in Chinese history, and it was the last chance for many years to re-unite the empire, for it was the control of the middle Yangtze which meant survival or surrender of the south. It is also the theme of several plays and poems and the centre-piece of the great historical novel *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*.

In 215 Sun Quan's field marshal Lü Meng was sent to seize the southern commanderies of Jingzhou province. Liu Bei's general Guan Yu brought an army in counter-attack. Taking advantage of their fighting in Jingzhou, Cao Cao attacked from Chang'an across the Qinling Range Divide, seized Hanzhong and opened the way for a direct attack on Liu Bei. Both were concerned by the threat from the northern Cao, Liu Bei and Sun Quan reconciled, defeated Cao Cao and killed one of Cao's general Xiahou Yuan in Hanzhong. Cao Cao brought reinforcements in an attempt to remedy the damage, but he could not regain the territory, and was compelled to retreat across the Qinling Divide. So Liu Bei's borders were secured against the north, and in celebration of the victory he proclaimed himself King of Hanzhong. In the autumn of 219, as Guan Yu was committed to the attack up the Han River and the siege of Fan city, Cao Cao sent envoy to unite with Sun Quan, thus Lü Meng prepared a secret invasion and struck westwards along the Yangtze against Jiangling. The surprise was complete, Guan Yu's position collapsed in ruins, he himself was killed in Maicheng and the greater part of his army surrendered. Sun-Liu ally was totally destroyed, Cao Cao's position in the Han valley was restored, and Sun Quan held all the territory east of the Yangzi gorges.

After Cao Cao's death in 220, his son, Cao Pi, deposed the Eastern Han emperor of Xian and proclaimed him Emperor of Wei. In the following year, Liu Bei declared himself Emperor of Han being descendant of former Han, which historically known as the Kingdom of Shu or Shu Han, and made Chengdu his capital. In 229, following the example of Cao Pi and Liu Bei, Sun Quan called himself Emperor of Wu with the capital at Jianye (now Nanjing City, Jiangsu Province) which marked the real beginning of the era of the three kingdoms in Chinese history.

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赤壁之战及三国鼎立
The Red Cliffs Campaign and Three Kingdoms

建安十三年(208),曹操又率军南下,占荆州,与在长江中下游的孙权对垒。此时正在流亡中的汉皇室后代刘备也起兵欲兴汉室,率荆州的残余势力与江东的孙权结合。孙权犹豫不定,是否与刘共同抗曹。刘备派军师诸葛亮到孙权处说服孙出兵,在军中一番讨论之后,孙权决定派大将周瑜与刘备联合出兵以探曹操兵力虚实。这样即便不能胜曹,自己也还有一定实力与曹操和谈。

孙、曹大军在赤壁(现武汉和岳阳一带)会战。战初几日,两军隔江对峙。曹操的军士多为北方人,又长途跋涉来南方作战,他们不熟水性和南方的地势,因而军中许多人病倒。此外曹军中还有许多步兵和全部的水兵是刘表的降兵,许多人并不真心忠于曹操。对曹操而言,这一次的战争也是检验其实力的时候,如果能打败孙刘联军,将其各个击破是再好不过;如果战败,自己还能撤回日后寻找机会再战。

曹操的首次进攻被击退,此时风向逆刮,周瑜乘势用火攻。在当时,火是一种常见的武器,在适当的条件下能造成很大的杀伤力。尽管曹操是有备而来,此时也不得不弃船后撤 。曹操大败,退回北方,刘备得以占据荆州,后入益州(今四川境内)。从此,曹、孙、刘三大势力成鼎足之势。赤壁之战成为中国历史上有名的战役,它也是最后一次统一中国南北的机会,因为对长江中游地带的控制就意味着南方是继续存在还是归顺北方,同时它也是许多短剧和诗歌的主题,著名的历史题材小说《三国演义》就是据此而成。

公元215年,孙权大将吕蒙夺取了荆州以南的城池,刘备的大将关羽欲夺回失地,曹操趁机出兵攻占了汉中,直接威胁着刘备的蜀地。刘备与孙权和解回兵汉中,击溃曹军,并斩杀曹操大将夏侯渊。曹操集合兵力以求挽回损失,但未能夺回汉中,只得撤回秦岭以北。刘备在北的疆域得到了巩固,并称汉中王。公元219年秋,刘备的大将关羽进攻曹操的樊城,曹操遣使与东吴联盟。孙权的大将吕蒙便借机袭取江陵。计谋得逞,于是孙曹两军夹击,斩关羽于麦城,大多军士投降。孙刘联盟被彻底破坏,北方的局势得以缓和。孙权占据了长江以东的地区。

建安二十五年(220)曹操病逝,其子曹丕逼献帝退位,自立为帝,国号为魏。次年,刘备也在成都称帝,刘备因身为汉室宗亲,故国号仍为汉,史称蜀国或蜀汉。公元229年,仿曹丕和刘备,吴王孙权在建业(今江苏南京一带)称帝,国号吴。三国分立时代正式开始。

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蜀汉
Shu-Han

The founder of Shu-Han, Liu Bei, the descendant of Han Jingdi's son Liu Sheng, came from Zhuo prefecture (near present-day Beijing). Liu Bei was born in a poor family and lived by selling shoes and weaving straw mat . However, he acquired his first reputation in warfare against the Yellow Turban rebellion of 184 and swore to be brothers with Zhang Fei, Guan Yu, who are both in the following years of fighting devoted to him until death. When civil war caused by Dong Zhuo broke out he served Gongsun Zan to fight against Dong Zhuo. Later he allied himself with the warlords: Cao Cao, Yuan Shao, and Liu Biao one after another and held short-lived power over substantial territory in the north of China. In 200, however, at the time of the campaign between Cao Cao and Yuan Shao at Guandu, Liu Bei was thoroughly defeated by Cao Cao's forces and fled to take refuge with Liu Biao.

Liu did, however, maintain the followers who had accompanied him into exile, and it was at this time while stationing in Xinye Xu Shu, one of his assistants, recommended Zhuge Liang, a master of strategies to him. Liu Bei visited and consulted Zhuge Liang three times and the latter agreed to serve him as minister. With the help of Zhuge Liang, Sun-Liu allies defeated Cao Cao from the north at the Red Cliffs and Liu Bei established a position in the southern part of Jing prefecture which laid the fundation for the three kingdoms. In 211 Liu Bei was invited into Yi prefecture by the Governor, Liu Zhang, to assist him in dealing with enemies on his northern borders. In the summer of 214 Liu Bei seized Yi prefecture and established his own regime at Chengdu. In 219 the decisive victory over Xiahou Yuan obtained Liu Bei's control of the Han valley, and gave justification for his claim to the royal and then imperial title of Han with an area covering Jing and Yi prefectures. In the further east line, however, the destruction of Guan Yu, and the failure of Liu Bei's expedition ,aiming at taking revenge for Guan Yu in 222 restricted the territory of Han to Yi province. Despite its imperial pretensions Shu-Han never recovered from those massive defeats. Liu Bei fled to Baidi city and died there in Yong'an Palace in the following year.

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When Liu Bei died in 223, his son Liu Chan was seventeen, but Zhuge Liang acted as regent and held control of the government. He confirmed the alliance with Wu, and in campaigns to the south during 224 and 225 he established reign over the territory and people as far as the Lake Dian in present-day Yunnan. In 227 he turned his attention to the Wei in the north: from Hanzhong he launched a series of attacks across the Qinling Range, however, was quickly destroyed by the Wei general Sima Yi, and Zhuge Liang was not able to achieve a position. In 233 Zhuge Liang embarked on a renewed attempt to break the line of the mountain barrier, however, he was, successfully opposed by Sima Yi, and died in the following year in front.

After a short period of intrigue and confusion, Zhuge Liang's position as commander-in-chief and head of government was taken by Jiang Wei. Like Zhuge Liang, Jiang Wei had his headquarters in Hanzhong on the frontier against Wei, and the central administration at Chengdu was maintained by a secondary office. In 244, Jiang Wei became ill and failed to function effectively, and at his death in 246 Liu Chan, now forty years old, took formal authority at the capital. Despite his maturity Liu Chan was an unimpressive ruler. He was more interested in his harem and his personal pleasures than in the responsibilities of government, therefore he gave excessive power to his favourite Chen Zhi and the eunuch Huang Hao.

Sima Yi was a well-known strategist and stateman in Chinese history, and in fighting against Zhuge Liang and Jiang Wei, he succeeded in preventing Shu-Han from expanding northernwards. In 226, Wei Emperor Cao Pi died and his son Cao Rui succeeded the throne. Sima Yi acted as Chief Minister to serve the emperor, then the control of government was gradually transferred to the hands of Sima family. In 263, after the Sima family had established control of the government of Wei, they planned the attack on Shu-Han. Sima Zhao, son of Sima Yi, and two generals Zhong Hui and Deng Ai launched attack on Shu Han. In the autumn of 263 they captured the passes into Hanzhong, and while one army held Jiang Wei in the northwest, the general Deng Ai went forward to attack Chengdu. In the winter, after victory in one pitched battle, he received the surrender of Liu Chan. And in the summer of 264 Liu Chan was received into honoured exile at Luoyang, thus Shu-Han perished.

Shu-Han took the same measures of land reclamation and developed the irrigating system. As a far reaching area, the development of agriculture was not damaged as that of in the Yellow River Valley and there was no famine heard. At

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that time the silk of Shu was well-known and trade within domestic was prosperous and Chengdu, the capital of Shu was the commercial centre. After Zhuge Liang destroyed the non-Chinese alliance led by Meng Huo, he left the people under continuing control by their native leaders, and confirmed that power with seals and other emblems of authority although in formal terms, they were subjects of Shu-Han. All these practices facilitate the tranquility of Shu-Han.



蜀汉
Shu-Han

再说说蜀汉。刘备，蜀汉的开国皇帝，汉景帝之子中山靖王刘胜的后代。刘备居于河北涿州（今北京附近），少年孤贫，以贩鞋织草席为生。公元184年黄巾起义时，刘备与关羽、张飞桃园结义，成为异姓兄弟，一同剿除黄巾有功。董卓乱政之际，刘备随公孙瓒讨伐董卓，刘备势力弱小，经常寄人篱下，先后投靠过曹操、袁绍、刘表等人，几经波折，却仍无自己的地盘。公元200年，在曹操与袁绍的官渡之战中，刘备被曹操打败，投奔刘表。

但在流亡过程中却一直有人跟随刘备，屯兵新野时，徐庶为其幕僚，向刘推荐诸葛亮。刘备在荆州三顾茅庐，请诸葛亮出山辅助，在诸葛亮的帮助下，赤壁之战中，联合孙权打败曹操，占领荆州，奠定了三分天下的基础。211年受刘璋请求来益州共同防御北方边界。214年夏，刘备攻取益州在成都建立政权。219年，刘备大败曹将夏侯渊，夺取汉中，称汉中王，建立了横跨荆益两州的政权。在东线关羽被杀，刘备为给关羽报仇，公元222年，发兵大举进攻东吴兵败。刘备兵败逃至白帝城，次年病死于白帝城的永安宫。蜀汉一蹶不振，势力一直被局限在益州。

刘备死后，其子刘禅继位，是为蜀后主，刘禅17岁由诸葛亮等人辅助，主张与吴国交好。公元224～225年，诸葛亮平定南中，势力涉及滇池（今云南境内）。向北为了实现刘备的遗愿，诸葛亮自蜀建兴五年至十二年（227～234）六次从汉中出兵向秦岭伐魏，但均告失利。233年，在发起突破秦岭防线时，被司马懿击破，本人也于公元234年卒于两军阵前。

诸葛亮死后，姜维继任军士统帅和丞相。姜维仍以汉中为攻魏前哨，以成都为总部。244年，姜维病重，不能有效行使权力。246年姜维病逝时，刘禅40岁已独立行使皇权。刘禅是一个没有作为的皇帝，他不问政事，贪恋后宫声色，将朝中大事交给宠臣陈志和太监黄浩。

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司马懿是我国著名的军事家、政治家。他多次出兵汉中，与诸葛亮、姜维等蜀将交战，遏制了蜀国的北扩。此间，魏帝曹丕已于魏黄初七薨(226)。其子曹睿继位，以司马懿为辅政大臣。此后，魏国大权逐渐落入司马氏手中。魏景元四年(263)在魏政权归司马氏之后，司马懿之子司马昭派遣钟会、邓艾等数路人马伐蜀，并于当年夏天控制了通往汉中的要塞，将姜维困在西北，由邓艾继续攻打成都。当年冬天攻破成都，后主刘禅降魏，并于264年夏流放至洛阳，蜀汉灭亡。

蜀在耕地方面没有什么改制，也实行屯田，水利做得比较好，由于地处偏远蜀汉没有像中原那样遭到严重破坏，也没有发生粮荒，丝织业发达，蜀锦有名，境内贸易发达，成都商业繁荣，蜀汉农业自始至终未遭破坏。在平定了南方少数民族孟获的叛乱之后，他们成为蜀汉的臣民，但仍由其首领继续管理内部事务，这有利于蜀汉政权的稳定。



大将关羽
General Guan Yu

One person worth mentioning in the history of Shu-Han is Guan Yu, one of Liu Bei's sworn brothers, who was regards as a model of devotion in Chinese culture. He was a man of keeping his words and loyalty to his friends in his life: after promising to fight with Liu Bei and becoming his sworn brother, Guan Yu by no means changed his mind until fought to death in Maicheng city. In 199, while Liu Bei turned against Cao Cao and fled to Xuzhou (now Jiang Su province), Guan Yu was left in Xiapi city to function as the governor. In 200, Cao Cao seized Xuzhou, in confusion, Liu Bei and Zhang Fei escaped, Guan Yu was forced to surrender for protecting the wives and children of Liu Bei. Admiring him greatly, Cao Cao knighted Guan Yu as his intimate followers and sent Zhang Liao, one of his generals, to probe whether Guan Yu meant to fight for him. Guan Yu answered clearly that: "I do appreciate the kindness of Cao Cao. However, I have accepted the honor granted by Liu Bei and sworn to live and die for him. I can never betray what I committed, and therefore I will leave once I obtain the trace of Liu Bei. Nevertheless, I will contribute to Cao Cao as a return for his generosity before leave." Upon hearing these words, Cao Cao was deeply moved by Guan Yu's devotion and not angry with him. Before the battle of Guan Du, Yuan Shao's general Yan

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Liang was sent to attack Liu Yan at Bai Ma and at the crucial moment, Guan Yu and Zhang Liao was ordered to rescue the city. Arriving at the battlefield, seeing Yan Liang's banner in far distance, Guan Yu stroked his horse and dashed ahead, beheaded him at one round and defeated his armies. Cao Cao recommended to Han Xiandi to grant Guan Yu as Shouting Hou, the highest position among the generals in hoping that Guan Yu might work for him. In 200, after getting the message of Liu Bei, Guan Yu wrote a letter to Cao Cao and left with all the rewards in intact. Cao Cao's generals meant to chase and capture Guan Yu, Cao Cao said "let him go, he serve merely his own master".

Guan Yu was the only God worshiped by Buddhism, Daoism and Confucianism in China: Buddhism regards him as the protector of the Buddha dharma; and he was the symbol of devotion and fidelity being honored as Guandi Sheng Jun (the holy person) in Daoism and Confucianism. Till now, there are still many admirers and believers in Guandi Temple all over the country.



大将关羽
General Guan Yu

蜀汉时值得一提的人物是关羽。关羽的一生,最重情义、誓言。自年轻时投奔刘备,便终生不改初衷,至死不渝。他是我国"义"的典型。建安四年(199),刘备反曹,逃至徐州(今江苏境内),由关羽镇守下邳城,代理太守。建安五年(200),曹操攻破徐州,刘备、张飞败逃后不知去向。关羽为保护刘备的妻子,被逼降曹。曹操对关羽甚为亲近,拜为偏将军。又让张辽去了解关羽的真正想法,关羽明确地说:"我确实很清楚曹公对我很好,但我曾受过刘将军的厚恩,曾发誓要同生死,这是不能背叛的。所以我最终还是要去找刘将军,不过在我走之前一定要立功来报效曹公。"曹操知道后,深感关羽很讲义气,也没有追究。官渡之战前,袁绍派大将颜良率军在白马攻打曹操的太守刘延,形势危急。曹操派张辽与关羽为先锋,前往解救。到了阵前,关羽远远望见颜良的麾盖,即策马疾弛上前,斩颜良首级,大破颜良。曹操知道后,为留下关羽,上表汉献帝封关羽为汉寿亭侯。建安五年(200)底,关羽知道了刘备的下落,即封其所受的赏赐,留书信,挂印告辞而去。曹操的部将们都主张追击关羽,但曹操说:"各为其主,不追了。"

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关羽也是唯一被佛、道、儒三家崇拜的神，佛教把他当成是护法。道家、儒家把他当成是“忠义”的象征，尊称为“关圣帝君”。至今，全国各地的“关帝庙”仍香火鼎盛。



南方的吴国
Wu in the South

With the acquisition of the territory in the far south, Sun Quan obtained a source of notable wealth, and secured his frontiers to the west and the north. When Liu Bei died in 223, the government in Shu-Han, now controlled by the regent Zhuge Liang, confirmed the arrangement of peace and alliance with Wu. Cao Cao made several attacks on the line of the Yangtze, but was compelled each time to withdraw. In 226 Cao Pi died, and the chief military attention shifted northwest to the frontier against Shu-Han along the Wei River valley (in present-day Shaanxi). In this period of tranquility and prosperity, on 23 of June 229, Sun Quan assumed the imperial title for himself.

Sun Quan, also called Zhong Mou, was a fonder of Wu in the southeast. His father Sun Jian, a general in the service of Yuan Shu, was killed in campaign against Liu Biao and his forces were largely taken over by Yuan Shu. But a few years later, about 194, his son Sun Ce, then aged nineteen, took service with Yuan Shu. He was given command of some of the soldiers who had followed his father, and was sent to be in charge of the defence in south of the Yangtze River. Sun Ce established his position in the southeast essentially through his own remarkable military skill. In 198, at the age of twenty-three, he had declared independence from Yuan Shu, now a usurping emperor, and held control of Danyang, Wu and Guiji commanderies, (a stretch of territory from present-day Nanjing past Hangzhou Bay), including some outposts on the coast of Fujian. From this base Sun Ce extended his power westwards, and by 200 he had taken Yuzhang commandery (about the present-day Poyang Lake in Jiangxi). In 200, soon after his conquest of Poyang, Sun Ce was assassinated by former retainers of a defeated local family from Wu. Sun Ce was succeeded by his younger brother the eighteen-year-old Sun Quan. Sun Quan swiftly established his authority in the territory his brother had left

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him. By 203 he started to expand further to the west, and early in 208 he destroyed Huang Zhong, the subordinate commander of Liu Biao who controlled the territory about present-day Wuhan on the middle Yangtze River. By the time of the Red Cliffs campaign, however, the state of Sun Quan was strong enough to hold off a direct attack from Cao Cao in the north.

With the help of Zhou Yu, Sun Quan allied with Liu Bei to defeat Cao Cao in Red Cliffs Campaign in 208, which secured his position as a kingdom in south to struggle with Cao Cao in the north and Liu Bei in the west. The consideration of survival gave urgency to the expansion into Jing province, culminating in the destruction of Guan Yu in 219 and the successful defence against Liu Bei's attack in 222. At the same time, the government of Wu extended its influence into the far south. In 210, after the death of Liu Biao and the defeat of Cao Cao at the Red Cliffs, Sun Quan appointed his officer Bu Zhi as governor to Panyu, present-day Guangzhou. Bu Zhi established relations with Shi Xie, and Shi Xie agreed to be subject and send tribute to Sun Quan. Sun Quan did attempt to expand his empire beyond his immediate territory. He received emissaries from Fujian and other countries of the south, re-established a Chinese presence on Hainan island, and sent an expedition to Taiwan island. During this period, the expansion of authority in the southeast was remarkable. By 280, within the territory of Wu, from the south of the Yangtze River to the north of Vietnam, the number of counties had doubled since the time of the Later Han. The frontier had been transformed, and there were newly claimed settlements in present-day southern area of Zhejiang, Jiangxi and Fujian.

After the reign of more than fifty years, Sun Quan died in 262 and there were successive wars on the securing of throne. The reign of Sun Xiu was not particularly effective, and his death in 264 came just at the time the state of Shu-Han surrendered to Wei. In that period of emergency, Sun Hao, son of the former Heir Apparent Sun He aged in his early twenties, was chosen as an adult ruler who might restore the fortunes and energies of the state. He achieved, however, only limited success. In 265 Sima Yan, son of Sima Zhao, deposed Wei Emperor Cao Huan , claimed himself as emperor, settled Luoyang as capital which was referred as Jin Dynasty in Chinese history. In 280 Sun Hao was compelled to surrender to the Jin of the Sima family, hence a short unification of the whole country arrived.

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南方的吴国
Wu in the South

再说孙吴政权。孙权据长江以南，远离战争中心，积累了一定的财富。刘备死后，辅臣诸葛亮遵守盟约与吴友好。曹操虽向长江流域发动进攻，但都被迫撤回。曹丕死后(226)，战争中心转移到蜀汉和渭河流域(今陕西境内)的西北境内。这期间，孙权于公元229年6月23日称帝，南方的吴享受了一段时期的稳定。

孙权字仲谋，三国吴国的创建者，其父孙坚是效忠袁绍的大将，和刘表作战时被杀，其兵力被袁绍接管。几年后，约在194年，孙坚19岁的儿子孙策跟随袁绍作战，袁绍将孙坚的一些旧部分给孙策用来镇守长江以南。孙策以其军事能力很快赢得威望，198年，23岁的孙策脱离已自己称帝的袁绍，占领了丹阳、吴、会稽(今南京、杭州湾一带)和福建沿海等地，并以此为根据地向西扩张。200年，孙策攻占玉章(今江西鄱阳湖)后不久被仇人所杀。其弟孙权，时年18岁，即位。孙权很快就建立起了自己的威望。203年，他开始西征扩张土地，208年，他打败刘表的大将黄忠，取得了现在位于长江中游地段的武汉等地。赤壁之战时，孙权已有能力抵御来自北方曹操的进犯。

孙权在一代名将周瑜的辅佐下，领导东吴在赤壁战胜曹操，使天下成三国鼎立之势，北拒曹操，西抗刘备。为了不坐以待毙，孙权于219年向荆州进攻，打败关羽，又成功地抵御了刘备222年的进攻，同时吴的疆域扩展到了更远的南方。在210年刘表死后和赤壁之战之后，孙权派官员簿直到番禺(今广东)任太守，簿直与南方的石碣建立联系，石碣向吴国称臣赋税。此外，他还向本土以外扩展，他接受来自福建和其他南部地区的遣使，重建了大陆对海南的控制，还加强了与台湾诸岛的联系。在这一时期，吴在东南部的发展还是卓有成效的，到280年，吴的领地已从长江以南扩大到越南以北，是汉末时期的两倍。边疆也有变化，领土包括新归顺的浙江以南、江西和福建。

在位50年之后，孙权于262年驾崩，其后人进行了一系列的王位争夺战。264年吴皇帝孙秀死时，蜀汉已降魏。前太子孙和之子孙皓年已二十有几，即位，但他也无力挽回灭亡的命运。魏灭蜀之后，蜀吴联盟不攻自破，吴国完全处于魏的包围之中。公元265年，司马昭之子司马炎废魏帝曹奂，改国号为晋，定都洛阳，这就是历史上的西晋王朝，司马炎时为晋武帝。公元280年，晋军攻克建业，孙皓面缚请降，至此西晋统一全国。

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司马家族和魏
The Sima Family and Wei

The Sima family were a celebrated, old-established, and wide-ranging family from Henei (now Wen County in Henan) commandery. Sima Yi's elder brother Sima Lang had joined Cao Cao early in the civil war, and Sima Yi, who first held office at the puppet court of Han, followed his brother in 208 and served on the staff of Cao Cao's headquarters. In 217 Sima Yi became a member of the suite of Cao Pi , an Heir Apparent, and he was also evidently a personal friend of Cao Pi. When Cao Pi came to the throne, Sima Yi received steadily higher appointments. A few months after Cao Pi's death in 226, Sima Yi took command in the field for the first time, driving back a secondary attack of Wu against Xiangyang, and in the following year he was given responsibility for military affairs on the Han River. Sima Yi proved to be an energetic and competent general. And during the rules of Cao Pi, Cao Rui and Cao Fang he held command in the south against Wu, against in the west Shu-Han and controlled the power of Wei government.

In 251, Sima Yi left his position to his eldest son Sima Shi, then forty years old. Sima Shi embarked on a series of raids and campaigns against Wu and the non-Chinese people of the north, but he achieved no breakthrough. By 254 the emperor Cao Fang and supporters of the Cao family were threatening Sima Shi. Sima Shi, however, struck first, deposed Cao Fang, and set his cousin Cao Mao on the throneinstead.

In 260, there was one further conspiracy to preserve the dynasty, in which the twenty-four-year-old Emperor took a leading role, but it was defeated in a short skirmish, and Cao Mao was killed in the fighting. He was replaced by the last in the line of puppets, Cao Huan, and Sima Zhao could now concentrate upon the conquest of Shu-Han. By 264 victory in the west was complete, and Sima Zhao took title as King of Jin. In the autumn of the year Sima Zhao died, he was succeeded by his eldest son Sima Yan, then thirty years old. That winter, on 4th of February 266, Sima Yan received the abdication of Cao Huan and took the imperial title for himself and remained Luoyang as capital which was the Western Jin Dynasty in

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Chinese history. So the final triumph of Wei over Shu-Han was also the occasion for the overthrow of the Cao's family and replacement by the Jin Dynasty of Sima Yan.

At an early stage of the civil war, the warlords were concentrated on establishing efficient governing system and recovering the development of agriculture. Among them Wei, in the north, especially gained excellent results. In about 196, Cao Cao established a number of "agricultural garrisons" (tuntian) in the neighbourhood of Xu Chang city, his chief headquarters. There was arable land nearby which had been abandoned by refugees and was available to the government. Therefore it was sensible and appropriate that surplus people should be allocated the empty fields. The distinctive point about the new system, however, was that the farmers maintained a direct relationship with the government, namely, they were granted supplies and material assistance, and that they returned a regular share of produce to the imperial granaries and treasury. This practice progressively recovered the agricultural development. Meanwhile, Cao Cao reformed the bureaucratic practice since the Eastern Han, for example, he promoted people to important position on their merit's rather than on their family background. As the chief minister of Kingdom of Shu, Zhuge Liang adhered to clear and strict laws and be fair and hard in meeting out rewards and punishment. He also worked hard to develop agricultural production in Sichuan. He appointed special officials in charge of the ancient Dujiang Weir and had many more water works built. For years of these practices, the agriculture and handicraft industry were restored and thriving. The kingdom of Shu was strengthened. To secure a peaceful environment for the kingdom, he took care to improve relations with the ethnic minorities inhabiting south west area(present-day Guizhou and Yunnan province) and therefore strengthened the ties between the Han people and these ethnic minorities. The kingdom of Wu faced the most quick development of population after the land reclamation system and the building of irrigating works. The Wu kingdom includes 43 cities and 313 counties which are far larger than that of in Han era and above all, Wu owned a powerful fleet and navy with the cultivating of farmland, the development of agriculture, Wu enjoyed a long period of tranquility.

The wars in Three Kingdoms period were different from the confusion wars at the end of the Han Dynasty in that the purpose of the war lied in the reunification of the imperial China . Among the famous wars there are Jing battle between Shu and Wu, Hanzhong battle in which Shu and Wei counteracted each other, the battle of Wei vanquished Shu and Jin dethroned Wu. Wei held the most formidable

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military strength among the three kingdoms, therefore committed the duty of reunification. In 280, when Sima Yan, the Emperor Wu of Jin, defeated Wu and unified China, three kingdoms eras ended.



司马家族和魏
The Sima Family and Wei

三国时期，司马家族来自河内（今河南温县）封地，也是古老、有名望的大家族。司马懿之兄司马朗早年跟随曹操东征西战，司马懿在汉朝供职，公元208年跟随曹操，作为曹操的军师与吴、蜀交战。公元217年成为太子曹丕的幕僚和私人好友。曹丕就位后，司马懿官就高位。公元226年曹丕死后，由司马懿指挥前线战役，在襄阳打败了东吴军队。次年，独领军权督战汉水流域。因其卓越的军事政治指挥才能，连续辅佐曹丕、曹叡、曹芳三帝，对抗东吴和蜀汉。成为魏国的实权人物。

魏嘉平三年（251）司马懿卒，其子司马师掌权，司马师当时40岁，他率兵开展了一系列的伐吴和北方的少数民族的的战役，但没有很大突破。公元254年，魏帝曹芳及其支持者危及了司马师的地位，司马师先发制人，废曹芳，立其侄曹髦为帝。

公元260年，24岁的魏帝曹髦发起了一场维权的斗争，经过短暂的激斗，曹髦被杀，由曹奂即位。司马昭放心南下征伐蜀汉，公元264年，打败蜀后，自封为晋王，同年秋司马昭死，其子司马炎时年30岁即位。公元266年2月4日，司马炎废魏帝曹奂，改国号为晋，都于洛阳，这就是中国历史上的西晋王朝。蜀汉战争的胜利也是推翻曹氏家族、开始司马家族统治的历史。

三国初期，各国主要致力于整顿吏治，恢复社会秩序和发展经济。其中以曹魏的成就比较突出。公元196年，从曹操统一北方、在许昌（魏都）推广屯田制，当时有大量的土地因战乱而荒废，同时又有许多没有土地的流民，用这些人来开垦闲散的土地是明智之举。这一制度的好处在于农民和政府有了直接的联系，政府补贴和支持农民种地，农民向国家交粮、纳税，生产逐渐恢复。同时曹操又改革了东汉以来的许多弊政，推举有能力的人来朝中做官而不是依靠家庭背景。蜀国丞相诸葛亮法治严格，纪律严明，赏罚分明，此外还派人负责都江堰和许多灌溉设施的修建。使蜀国农业和手工业逐步得到恢复和发展，国力增强。特别是诸葛亮招抚西南夷（今贵州、云南等地），使少数民族地区得到开发，加强了民族团结。吴国由于实行屯田和兴修水利，人口有很大增长。吴东南地区很快得到开发，共得43郡313

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县，比东汉时大大增强。吴国土地开辟，农业发展，政治稳定，航海业发达。

三国时期虽然仍有不断的战争，但已和东汉末期军阀混战的性质不同，是顺应民心所向的统一战争。其中比较著名的有蜀、吴争夺荆州的战争，蜀、魏争夺汉中的战争，和魏灭蜀、晋灭吴的战争。三国的军事实力以魏国最强，因此统一战争的主要任务最后落在魏晋方面。晋武帝太康元年(280)，晋灭吴。至此，三国时代宣告终结。

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Chapter 10 晋朝——西晋和东晋 Jin Dynasty: Western Jin and Eastern Jin



中国的统一 Unification of China

While serving at Cao Cao's headquarters to fight with Wu in the east and Shu-Han in the south, Sima Yi justified himself as a competent general and regent for emperors Cao Pi, Cao Rui and Cao Fang in succession, thus gradually gained the power of controlling the government. In 251, Sima Yi died and his post was inherited by his sons Sima Shi and Sima Zhao successively. After vanquishing the Shu, Sima Zhao's power dramatically increased, he took the title as Emperor of Jin. In 265, Sima Yan dethroned the Wei Emperor and established the Western Jin Dynasty with capital remaining at Luoyang during Wei Dynasty. Sima Yan was Emperor Wu in the Western Jin, and the task for him was to destroy Wu in the south. In 280, the Western Jin defeated the Wu, seized the capital Jianye (now Nanjing, Jiangsu Province) and Sun Hao, the last emperor of Wu surrendered, Jin hence united the long-divided country. The succeeding years were relatively peaceful and stable ones.

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中国的统一
Unification of China

三国时期，司马懿作为曹操的军师与吴、蜀交战，因其卓越的军事政治指挥才能，连续辅佐曹丕、曹叡、曹芳三帝，成为魏国的实权人物。魏嘉平三年(251)司马懿卒，其子司马师、司马昭先后掌权。在灭蜀之后，司马昭权势极大，自封为晋王，公元265年，司马昭卒，其子司马炎废魏帝曹奂，改国号为晋，定都于洛阳，这就是中国历史上的西晋王朝。司马炎时为晋武帝。司马炎即位之时，三国之中的吴国还未被平定，故而武帝登基后的第一件大事便是平定东吴统一全国。公元280年，晋军南下进攻建业(今江苏南京)，吴主孙皓出城请降，中国出现了暂时的统一。



西晋的统治
The Control of the Western Jin

The Western Jin Dynasty was a state mainly composed of privileged landlords. Most political and economic measures instituted by the Emperor Wu(Sima Yan) meant to protect the benefits of these few for the landlords and gentry dorminated the government. The Western Jin government allowed officials of different ranks to possess different amounts of fields, tenants and dependent families. In this way, the privilege of the bureaucratic landlords was acknowledged. The system of "classifying talented people into nine grades for government appointment" established in the Wei had undergone great changes, with most government positions being held by officials from powerful or privileged families. This system ultimately became a tool for those families to expand their own power.

The increasing strength of the powerful families during this period intensified the conflict between the officials and the commoners, which weakened the power of the rulers and buried the seeds of great social upheaval. The extravagant, cor-

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rupt and wasteful life of the court rendered the righteous no cause. In those turbulent days many gentry-officials and scholars felt despaired and escaped from reality and politics by indulging themselves in wine and mere talks. Hence metaphysical discourse and learning flourished amongst the literati.



西晋的统治
The Control of the Western Jin

西晋王朝是一个门阀贵族的政权。晋武帝司马炎在完成统一之后对晋朝的官制、兵制、法制等一系列政治制度进行了调整，但由于晋臣多为前朝的名门望族，故而他们提出的政治改革措施多以保障其自身利益为主。允许官吏按官品高低占有不同数量的土地和佃客、荫户，承认官僚地主的特权。曹魏时制定的“九品中正制”，到了西晋，已发生相当大的变化，中正官职多为世族门阀出身的官僚所把持，这一制度变成他们培植门阀私家势力的重要工具。

西晋统治时期，豪强大族的势力得到发展，士庶之间的矛盾不断扩大，削弱了西晋的统治力量。门阀士族的空前发展，构成了与皇权的矛盾，也直接成为魏晋南北朝时期动乱的根源。这一时期，统治集团奢侈腐化，聚敛了大量财产，互相争豪比富。许多士人身处乱世，遂悲观消极、逃避现实、不问政事，终日饮酒清谈，玩世不恭。于是清谈、玄学之风一时大盛。



贾皇后与八王之乱
Queen Jia and the Embroilment of the Eight Kings

The fierce striving for power within the court divided the rule of the Western Jin Court. To gain the full control over the imperial country, Emperor Wu believed strong family connections and appointed his male relatives kings. Usually these kings had their own armies and served as governors of various states where they wielded far-reaching administrative power. The practice of Emperor Wu

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did change the situation prevailing in the kingdom of Wei, in which the various princesses were mere figurehead. However, Emperor Wu did not foresee that he also left the foreshadows for the future power struggle after his death.

In 290, Emperor Wu of Jin died and his second son Sima Zhong became the emperor later called Emperor Hui. Sima Zhong had been appointed Heir Apparent in 267, and in 272 he married the Lady Jia Nanfeng, daughter of the minister Jia Chong, an old supporter of the Sima family and had played a leading role in the fighting against Cao Mao in 260. Hui Emperor was a retarded man. It is recorded that upon hearing that his subjects had even no thin porridge to eat and people died of starvation, Hui Di responded"So why not eat their meat!" Sima Yan maintained him as his heir in order to accept the alliance with the Jia family therefore although there was a general anxiety from increasing evidence, Sima Zhong was mentally disabled and unfit to rule and the power was handed over to Empress Jia. Jia thus was the another femme fatale in Chinese history after Empress Lü in the Han Dynasty. According to the records, "Jia Nanfeng was a short, dark-skinned and ugly woman with hot temper and her husband was afraid of her." Then the Emperor Hui's mother's family Yang and her father, Yang Jun took over state power by a joint scheme. In 291, Empress Jia ganged up with the Prince of Chu, who was in charge of the army in the capital, killed Yang Jun, dethroned Empress Dowager Yang and appointed the Prince Runan as regent. Shortly afterwards, on Empress Jia'a order, Prince Runan was murdered by Prince Chu whom, in his turn, was put to death by the Empress. Finally Empress Jia's family took the reign alone. All the twenty-seven royal kings and families in the localities, built up by Emperor Wu of Jin, who were supposed to be a reliable force to shore up the court, could not serve the court effectively with each coveting the throne.

During the reign of Emperor Hui, various kings unhappy with Empress Jia's rule over the court alone andbecame embroiled in court intrigue, which instigated a large-scale internecine. From 291 onwards, the eight kings, namely, Liang (King of Runan), Wei (King of Chu), Lun (King of Zhao), Jiong (King of Qi), Ying (King of Chengdu), Yi (King of Changsha), Yong (King of Hejian), and Yue (King of the Eastern Sea), fought against each other for the throne in the area around Luoyang. In 299, the Princess Zhao, Sima Lun killed Empress Jia and her supporters and took the control of the imperial court. Sima Lun's deposing Emperor Hui in 301 and claiming himself the emperor marked the beginning of the later called "Disturbances of the Eight Princes", which ended up with Emperor Hui's

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death in 306. After poisoned Emperor Hui to death, Sima Yue, Prince Donghai put Sima Zhi, the twenty-fifty son of Emperor Wu, whom to throne later known as Emperor Huai of Jin. The victory of Sima Yue finished the civil war, but it had ended in exhaustion and despair. Sixteen years of turmoil had produced a ferocious, meaningless record of treachery, murder and war, which further aggraviated the underdeveloped economic situation in the early years of the Western Jin. The credit of the government and the imperial family were ruined, the greater part of the imperial armies had been destroyed in the internecine fighting, and there was no authority that might restore the state or re-establish a position against the forces threatening from the northern minorities.



贾皇后与八王之乱

Queen Jia and the Embroilment of the Eight Kings

西晋时期朝廷内的权力争夺激烈复杂。晋武帝为了巩固皇权，大封宗室为王，以诸王统率兵马出镇一方，并拥有地方的军政权。武帝的这些措施的确改变了魏时皇子没有实权的局面，但他却没有意识到这同时也给日后诸王争权埋下了祸根。

太熙元年(290)，晋武帝司马炎病故，由次子惠帝司马衷继位。惠帝于公元267年被封为太子，272年与贾充之女贾南风成婚。贾充曾帮助司马家族在争夺王位时打败曹髦。惠帝本是愚痴之人，被立为太子只是为保持和贾家的联盟。史载他闻报天下慌乱，百姓饿死，竟说："何不食肉糜？"尽管当时形势危急，他却不能掌管朝政，于是大权逐渐落在皇后贾氏的手里。据载，"惠帝后贾氏，名南风……其人丑且短黑，荒淫放恣，惠帝畏之"。因此，贾后继吕后等人之后，成了历史上另一有名的"祸水"女人。当时因杨太后及其父杨骏专揽朝政，贾后乃於元康元年(291)密召都督荆州军事的楚王玮入京，利用禁军的力量杀掉杨骏，废杨太后，改由汝南王亮辅政。同年，贾后利用楚王玮杀汝南王亮，后又因玮矫杀亮并不能治理国家，最终贾后专政。晋武帝立国后，分封了27个同姓王，以屏藩皇室，孰料竟造成外重内轻、难以调动之局势。

司马氏诸王不满于朝中贾氏专权，纷纷想杀贾氏而独掌大权，因而相互残杀，于是便爆发了历时16年之久的"八王之乱"，其中八王全部是晋皇室宗亲，分别是：

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汝南王亮、楚王玮、齐王冏、赵王伦、成都王颖、长沙王义、河间王颙、东海王越。自公元291年开始在今洛阳一带杀戮不断。公元299年，赵王伦杀贾后及其党羽，独揽大权。其后，又于永宁元年(301)废惠帝自立为帝，是为“八王之乱”之始。直至公元306年，东海王越毒死惠帝，拥立武帝司马炎第二十五子怀帝司马炽继位，至此“八王之乱”结束。“八王之乱”虽告结束，这一场祸乱长达16年之久，其间无数的杀伐和内战带来的只是灾难，使西晋初年并不十分发达的经济，受到更为严重的破坏，耗尽了西晋的国力和兵力，削弱了皇室家族的势力和晋朝的统治，以致后来无法抵御来自北方少数民族的进犯。



北方的少数民族
Ethnic Minorities in the North

Ever since the Eastern Han Dynasty, ethnic minorities in northwestern and northern areas kept migrating inland, which complicated the relations among different nationalities in the north of China. These minorities were encouraged or forced to immigrate into the inner land for sake of effective management and the needs for working hands since the labors were scare then. With years of staying and under the influence of Han nationality, these nomadic people led a more settled life, which bound them on the farm lands. At that time, the population of the various minorities accounted for about half that of the total one millions, taking for example, the Guanzhong area in the Jin Dynasty. Among them are the most prominent five: Xiongnu, Jie, Di, Qiang and Xianbei, which referred as “Wu Hu” (the five major minorities) in history.

The land system of the Western Jin stipulated the taxes paid, in addition, the minorities were often forced to be slaves and tenants of Han landlords and royal clans. Consequently, they were not only brought under control but also were oppressed and exploited by the Chinese government and its citizens, which triggered the heart-felt hatred towards the governing class and forged consistent uprising of these minorities. In the later Western Jin Dynasty, there broken out the rebels led by Qi Wannian, Li Te, Zhang Chang, etc, among which the most threatening one was in 301, Li Xiong, son of Li Te ,captured Chengdu, declared himself King of Chengdu and formed the “Cheng Han” regime in Sichuan.)

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北方的少数民族
Ethnic Minorities in the North

东汉以来，分布在西北、北边疆的少数民族已陆续向内地迁徙，形成了复杂的民族关系。魏晋时期，汉族统治者为了加强对各少数民族的控制和补充内地劳动人手的不足，经常招引和强制他们入居内地。各少数民族人民内迁后，在汉族的长期影响下，逐步由游牧生活向定居的农业生活过渡。当时，在内地不少地方，少数民族人数相当多，关中户口百万，其中少数民族占了一半左右，而且种族很多，主要有匈奴、羯、氐、羌以及鲜卑五族，史称为“五胡”。

西晋占田制明确规定了他们的负税。汉族的官僚、地主多以少数民族人为奴婢、佃客。残酷的民族压迫，使各少数民族对西晋统治者“怨恨之气，毒于骨髓”，因而反抗不断发生。西晋后期，先后爆发了齐万年、李特、张昌等领导的大规模起义，其中李特之子李雄于公元301年占领成都，自封成都王，还在四川建立了“成汉”政权。



西晋的灭亡
The Collapse of the Western Jin

In the late Western Jin, these northern minorities were at odds with each other. Some upper-class people of these minorities took advantage of this conflict to realize their own political ambitions. They successively established their own governments in which the noble marshals would take the supreme position. In the last years of the "Disturbances of the Eight Kings", many kings were defeated and killed. The strength of royal families was weakened. Besides the uprisings of the refugees and immigrants, the noble class people of minorities also poured the oil on the fire and made themselves into the rebels, among them Liu Yuan and Shi Le were the most eager ones.

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Liu Yuan, also named Yuan Hai, son of a Xiongnu noble Liu Bao, was a well educated person and had profound empathy in Chinese culture. When Li Te and Zhang Chang held rebel against the Western Jin and the royal Kings were busy in killing each other, he was elected the Da Chanyu (King of Xiongnu tribes). In 304, he launched a campaign to overthrow the Jin government and soon his armies expanded as much as 50 000. Establishing capital at Lishi (now Lishi in Shanxi province). Liu Yuan assumed himself King of Han and the Han and other minorities were all his subjects. Shi Le, sold as family servant, was Jie minority and attended the uprising while Liu Yuan called as King of Han. In 308, Liu Yuan declared himself emperor and move the capital to Pingyang (southwest of now Linfen city, Shanxi) and waged his army to attack Luoyang. In 310, Liu Yuan died, his son Liu Cong killed his brother and secured the throne. In the following year, Shi Le destroyed as much as 100,000 Jin army men in Ku county, in April (now luyi county, Henan) which turned out to be a heavy strike to Jin.

In June of 311, Liu Cong sent troops to conquer the Western Jin capital Luoyang and captured Emperor Huai. Now the Western Jin existed in name only. Because this incident took place in the 5th year of Yongjia (311) of Emperor Huai, it was known as "the Yongjia Disturbance". During the disturbance, the northern people flocked to the south to escape the war, so this incident is also called "the Southward Movement of Yongjia". In 316, the Xiongnu army entered Chang'an, captured Emperor Min of Jin and ended the Western Jin Dynasty.

The Western Jin Dynasty lasted 51 years, accommodated four emperors encompassing three generations. It was the only unified government and also the first dynasty collapsed by minorities force in Chinese history during the period between the Wei, the Jin and the Southern and Northern Dynasties. Afterwards, the imperial of China was left in chaos of wars in more than two hundred years.



西晋的灭亡
The Collapse of the Western Jin

西晋末年,北方民族关系日趋紧张,一些少数民族的上层分子利用各族人民反抗西晋的斗争,以实现自己的政治欲望,纷纷建立由少数民族统帅

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占最高统治地位的割据政权。“八王之乱”后期，参战诸王相继败死，西晋皇室衰弱，在各地流民不断起义时，内迁的少数民族上层分子也相继起兵反晋，其中刘渊、石勒起兵最早。

刘渊，字元海，匈奴贵族刘豹之子，汉化程度很深。当李特、张昌先后举兵反晋，宗室诸王混战于北方之际，匈奴贵族共推刘渊为大单于。304 年（永兴元年），刘渊开始起兵。很快发展到五万人，定都于离石（山西离石），建国号“汉”，自称汉王，胡、汉各族很多人归附他。石勒出身羯族，曾被卖为家奴，刘渊称汉王时，他参加起义。308 年（永嘉二年），刘渊称帝，迁都平阳（今山西临汾县），接着派大军进攻洛阳。310 年，刘渊死，其子刘聪杀兄自立为帝。次年四月，石勒在苦县（河南鹿邑）消灭十余万晋军，晋军元气大伤。

六月，刘聪大军攻下洛阳，俘获晋怀帝。西晋名存实亡。因为此事发生在怀帝永嘉五年（311），史称“永嘉之乱”。北方百姓为躲避战乱，大量南迁，又称“永嘉南渡”。公元 316 年，匈奴兵攻入长安，俘了晋愍帝，西晋至此灭亡。

西晋享国 51 年，历三代四帝，是魏晋南北朝历史上唯一统一的政权，也是中国历史上第一个被外族消灭的王朝。此后，中国进入了一个长达 200 余年的战乱时期。



东晋的建立
The Founding of the Eastern Jin

After the Western Jin was vanquished, the Han government withdrew to the east of the Yangtze River. In 317, Sima Rui, a member of the Western Jin imperial family stationed in Jiankang (now Nanjing in Jiangsu), re-established the Jin government, which became known as the Eastern Jin. Content to retain sovereignty over just a part of the Western Jin territories, the Eastern Jin lasted 103 years and was overthrown in 420 by the Song Dynasty founded by Liu Yü. Altogether the Eastern Jin lasted four generations and had eleven emperors.

In 316, after Liu Cong occupied Chang'an and captured the last Emperor of the Western Jin, Sima Ye, the Western Jin Dynasty ended. However, those former ministers of Western Jin were unwilling to yield and they endeavored hard to restore the Jin. Sima Rui, the great grandson of Sima Yi, granted as the King of Langya from his father, was in charge of the defense in south of Yangzhou (now Jiangsu

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province) and moved his headquarters from Xiapi to Jianye(later called Jiankang, now Nanjing City). After the downfall of the Western Jin, he was elected by his supporters and followers as new emperor in March,317 with Jiankang as capital. His regime was named Jianwu and his ruling periods were called the Eastern Jin in history given the facts that the remaining Sima families restricted their power in the eastern parts of the Yangtze River.

In the Eastern Jin period, the development of powerful family reached its peak as royal power was on the wane. Without the support of the southern bureaucrats and gentry-officials, Sima Rui could not have become emperor. The early years of the Eastern Jin saw a stable period after the suppression of Wang Dun and Su Jun. Four powerful families—the Wang, the Xie, the Yü and the Huan—successively dominated the politics of the Eastern Jin court.



东晋的建立
The Founding of the Eastern Jin

西晋王朝灭亡后,汉族政权退守江东。公元317年,镇守建康(今江苏南京)的晋宗室司马睿在江南重建晋室,史称东晋。东晋政权维持了长期的偏安统治,到公元420年被南朝刘裕所建立的宋所取代,共享国103年,历四代十一帝。

公元316年,刘聪攻占长安,西晋的末代皇帝司马邺被俘,宣告了西晋的灭亡,但一些晋朝的旧臣并不甘心亡国的命运,仍在全国各地积极活动,准备恢复晋朝的统治。晋元帝司马睿,司马懿曾孙,袭父封为琅琊王,都督扬州江南诸军事,由下邳移镇建邺(后又改名建康,今江苏省南京市)。西晋灭亡后,部下于公元317年3月拥奉他为晋王,改年号为"建武",定都建康。因其继西晋之后偏安于江南,故史家称之为东晋。

东晋是门阀政治发展的鼎盛时期,皇权衰落。司马睿称帝有赖于南方官僚士族的拥戴,东晋政权建立之初,先后平息了王敦和苏峻之乱,统治趋于稳定。四大门阀大族王、谢、庾、桓先后支配着东晋王朝政局。

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东晋的统治
The Control of the Eastern Jin

Failed to earn himself credits as a member of royal family before coming to power, together with his ordinary capability , Sima Rui was not supported by the big northern immigrant landlords and the southern gentry. As he had little to start out with as an emperor now, Sima Rui enlisted the support of statesman Wang Dao, who wisely brought together the two powerful groups in a joint effort to prop up the newly established dynasty in southern China. Thus the Eastern Jin's governing in the south was sustained. Out of gratitude, Wang Dao was assumed the position of the chief Minister in control of the court and Wang Dun, the half brother of Wang Dao, grasped the power of army forces and defense. Besides, other main posts in court were in the hands of Wang's families as well. Virtually, it was a joint ruling of Sima Rui and Wang Dao in the Eastern Jin government. Upon the ceremony of ascending the throne, Sima Rui repeatedly invited Wang Dao to sit together with him, which meant the sharing of authority, and was declined by the latter. No wander there was word that "Wang and Ma (Sima Rui), under the sun".

Being well accepted by his people, Sima Rui became unsatisfied with the situation of sharing power with Wang Dao, and he kept close terms with Liu Kui and Diao Xie, meaning to dent the influence of Wang Dao in the court. He made an unsuccessful conspiracy to remove thoroughly Wang Dao's weight resulting from the fact that Wang Dun, hearing the words, took an initial strike, defeated Liu Kui in Wuchang(now Hubei), breezed through Jiankang, the capital, and killed Diao Xie. It was under Wang Dao's persuasion that Wang Dun withdrew to Wuchang leaving the power still in the hands of Wang Dao.

Realizing that there was no way to restrict the weight of Wang Dao and his order was like to that of the deaf ears despite he was the emperor, Sima Rui was upset and fell ill as the time being. As the last resort, he appointed Situ Xunzu, the only minister could be trusted, Tai Wei (officials in charge of the army force in court) and the Guard of the Apparent Emperor with purpose to suppress Wang Dao. However, Situ Xunzu was ill and died shortly afterwards. Sima Rui was even

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mourned, and was his illness aggravated. On a night in November 322, Sima Rui died in his adytum leaving last order that his son, Sima Shao would succeed him.



东晋的统治
The Control of the Eastern Jin

司马睿即位后，因为他在皇族中声望不够，本人才能平平，所以得不到南北士族的支持，皇位不稳。但是，他重用了政治家王导。王导运用策略，使南方士族支持司马睿，北方南迁的士族也决意拥护司马睿，稳定了东晋政权，维持了偏安局面。司马睿十分感激王导，任他为宰相，执掌朝政，让王导的堂兄王敦都督军事，握有重兵，控制军权，其他重要的官职，大多数也由王导家族担任。东晋王朝，实际上是王导和司马睿共同掌握的。司马睿在登基大典上，几次请王导和他一起坐上宝座，接受群臣拜贺，王导谢绝。时人曾流传说："王与马，共天下。"

司马睿在稳定了皇位后，开始不满"王马共天下"的局面，就起用刘隗、刁协为心腹，以削弱王导势力，并暗中进行军事部署，试图最终全面排除王导势力。王敦先发制人，从武昌（今属湖北）起兵击败刘隗，进入建康，杀死刁协。在王导的劝说下，王敦才退兵武昌，政权仍然由王导控制。

司马睿见无法动摇王导势力，自己名为天子，号令却不出宫门，渐渐忧愤成病，卧床不起。他想到大臣中只有司徒荀组对自己比较忠顺，就任命他为太尉兼领太子太保，打算让他参与朝政，钳制王导。不料司徒荀组受任不久就病死，司马睿更加忧伤，病势加重，公元322年11月的一个晚上，司马睿病死于建康宫中的内殿。遗诏宣布由太子司马绍继位。



淝水之战
The Battle of Feishui River

Although resting content with retaining sovereign in the south, rulers of the Eastern Jin did plan to recover the Central Plains in the north. Led by the four ranking families of Wang, Xie, Huan and Yu in succession, these southern

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nobles carried out several expenditures towards the north. In 311 Zu Ti, a southern gentry-official, once led an expeditionary force to the north and regained the Yellow River valley for a short time. However, Zu Ti died from too much upsetting for being not trusted by the court and left the cause of recovering the north unfinished. Afterwards, most of the gentry-officials in power advocated northern expeditions so as to gain their family prestige. Among them, three northern expeditions led by Huan Wen are the best known. His armies took Luoyang, entered Guanzhong and reached Hebei. But he did not consolidate these victories. In 386, the Former Qin forces marched southward and threatened the Eastern Jin impressively.

In January 382, The King of Former Qin called together his ministers to discuss the expenditure plan to reunify the imperial China. In discussion, Fu Jian insisted the march despite most of his ministers opposed the risking operation. In July of the following year, Fu Jian ordered a decisive campaign and started to draft recruits the nationwide. In August, Fu Jian set out from Chang'an with his infantry force of 600 000 and cavalry force of 270 000, in such an impressive strength that it was depicted as "the initial banners and beats can nearly link to that of the end, and the troops in marching occupy thousands of roads". All the troops headed for the south. In sheer swell, Fu Jian even boasted his men to carry with him the stuffs such as the titles and ranks for the will-be captured Emperor and ministers of the Eastern Jin. Scared by this threatening pose, the Eastern Jin fell into the state of turmoil. Nevertheless, Chancellor Xie An devised strategies in great composure by ordered his one brother Xie Shi to assume the position of chief general to marshal in headquarters and his nephew, Xie Xuan as the vanguard in the battle field. The 80 000 opposing army and 5 000 navies were meeting their enemy in the south.

In October, the vanguard Fu Rong took over Shouchun and entered Luojian (west of Dingyuan, Anhui) and closed off Huai River to block Jin army and the latter had to station in the place 25 miles away from Luojian. Informed the facts that the Jin army had merely insufficient supplies , Fu Jian hurried to Shouchun with 8 000 strong crack horsemen and sent the surrendered general of Jin, Zhu Xu to intimidate Xie Shi to give in.

Devoted to Jin, Zhu Xu told Xie Shi all the confidentials and actual strength of the Former Qin, furthermore, he suggested deboosting the morale of Qin before the main force approaching. Following Zhu Xu's advice, a subordinate general Liu Laozhi, led 5 000 crack forces to attack the Qin vanguard unit at Luojian at night. The Qin unit suffered 15 000 casualties. Meanwhile the main force of Xie Shi pro-

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ceeded along the Huai River, reached at the east bank of Feishui (now Feihe River south of Shouxian county, Aihui), facing Qin army.

Seeing from the wall of Shouchun City, Fu Jian and Fu Rong observed that Jin army was well-organized, mistaking the trees on the Bagong Mountain as the armed soldiers, Fu Jian was by all means lost the hold. When asked to move back a little for a decisive battle so that Jin troops could cross the river, Fu Jian agreed, hoping to strike his blow home while the Jin troops were half-way across. Unexpectedly, when the order of withdrawal was given, the Qin troop panicked and ran in confuse with Zhu Xu spreading the news that Fu Jian was beaten up. Jumping at the opportunity, the Jin soldiers launched a full-scale offensive attack, and scattered their enemy. Fu Jian fled, by the time reached Luoyang, his army was down to only a little more than 100 000 men.

The battle of Feishui was Former Qin's attempt to reunify the imperial China. Due to the preparation and situation then, the endeavor was premature. Xie Shi and Xie Xuan leading the Beifu troops utterly defeated the Former Qin forces and won a decisive victory at the Battle of Feishui. The southern China was shunned from the chaos and wreck so its development continued. But this relief from external threat was followed by a series of internal disturbances. First, Sun En and Lu Xun launched rebellions. Then Huan Xuan won the civil war and usurped the throne. Later, General Liu Yu of the Beifu troops suppressed the peasant uprisings and gained prestige through a number of northern expeditions. At last, he established his own state to replace the Eastern Jin.



淝水之战
The Battle of Feishui River

东晋虽然偏安于江南，但历代帝王在位的时候都希望收复北方的国土。其中以王、谢、桓、庾四大家族为主的北伐，在东晋时曾进行过多次。公元311年，大将祖逖出兵收复河北，但后因受到朝廷的排斥忧郁而死，最终未能完成统一大业。在此之后，当权的士族多标榜北伐以增加门户威望，其中以桓温的三次北伐最为著名。他曾经收复洛阳，进入关中，进兵河北，但都未能够巩固北伐成果。公元386年，前秦南下，东晋面临空前威胁。

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382年(太元七年)一月,前秦苻坚召集群臣商议南伐,准备统一中国。当时,绝大多数人认为不可轻举妄动,但苻坚却坚持己见。次年七月,苻坚下诏大举伐晋,在全国征兵。八月,苻坚从长安启程,秦军步兵60万,骑兵27万,"旗鼓相望,前后千里",从各地一齐向南进发。这时苻坚非常骄傲,出发前连东晋皇帝、宰相俘虏后的官号、公馆都准备好了。东晋闻苻坚率大军南下,惶恐不安。宰相谢安沉着冷静,派弟谢石为大都督,侄子谢玄为前锋,率八万北府兵、水军五千迎战。

十月,前秦先锋苻融攻占寿春,进驻洛涧(安徽定远西),封锁淮水,阻挡晋军前进。晋军被阻,在距洛涧25里的地方驻扎。当苻坚得知晋军先锋缺乏粮草的情况后,便亲率精骑八千,兼程赶往寿春,并派俘虏的晋将朱序到晋营威胁谢石投降。

朱序不忘故国,见到谢石告诉了秦军的虚实,并劝谢石乘前秦大军未到,挫其锐气,争取全胜。谢石采纳朱序的建议,派名将刘牢之率精兵五千渡河夜袭洛涧,歼灭前秦军一万五千。谢石等又率大军沿淮水前进,到淝水(安徽寿县淝河南)东岸与秦军隔河对峙。

苻坚听说晋军攻到,便与苻融登上寿春城观看形势,见晋军部伍严整,又望见八公山(安徽寿春北)上的草木,以为皆是晋兵,不免有些惊恐。谢玄派人要求苻融把阵地后移,以便晋军渡河决战,苻坚企图在晋军半渡时发动突然袭击,便挥军后撤。不料队伍因此大乱,朱序又在阵后连呼苻坚败了,晋军乘胜追击,驱散敌军。苻坚逃走,到洛阳,检点余众,不过十余万人。

淝水之战是前秦企图统一全国的一次战争。当时,综合各个方面的情况看,时机和条件显然还不成熟,谢石、谢玄领导的北府军击败了前秦,取得了决定性的胜利。淝水之战后,南方由于战争的胜利,避免了一场大的混乱和破坏,经济文化得以继续发展,同时确定了南北长期对峙的局面。此后,南方由于外乱威胁解除而爆发内战,孙恩、卢循起兵。桓玄在内战中获胜,一度篡晋。北府兵将领刘裕起兵镇压了农民军,并通过北伐树立威望,最终取代东晋。



五胡十六国
The Eastern Jin Dynasty and the Sixteen States in the North

While the Eastern Jin existed in the south, northern China fell into disunification of warfare. The Yellow River valley became the battlefield for warlords from the five Hu nationalities—the Xiongnu, the Xianbei, the Jie, the Di

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and the Qiang. Each Hu (minority) state established its own government to confront the Eastern Jin and there were a bunch of countries came into existence and vanished. These governments are known as "the Sixteen States". In 304, the Xiongnu noble Liu Yuan set up the Han state which, in 316, vanquished the Western Jin. In 439, the Tuoba tribe of the Xianbei nationality united the north. For over a hundred years, frequent wars took place among different nationalities, resulting in the establishment of 15 states. They were the Former Zhao (Xiongnu), the Later Zhao (Jie), the Former Yan (Xianbei), the Former Liang (Han), the Former Qin (Di), the Later Qin (Qiang), the Later Yan (Xianbei), the Western Qin (Xianbei), the Later Liang (Di), the Southern Liang (Xianbei), the Western Liang (Han), the Northern Liang (Lushuihu), the Southern Yan (Xianbei), the Northern Yan (Han), and the Xia (Xiongnu). These fifteen states together with the Han state of Cheng established by the Di nationality in the southwest are historically called the Sixteen States.

Besides, there were five regimes: the Wei founded by Ran Min of the Han nationality; the Wei founded by the Zhai family in Dingling; the Chouchi founded by the Yang family in Wudu, a leader of the Di nationality; the Western Yan founded by the Murong family of the Xianbei nationality, and the Dai by the Tuoba family of the Xianbei nationality. There were altogether 21 states in this period. Among them, the Later Zhao, the Former Yan and the Former Qin successively occupied most of the northern territories; especially, the Former Qin almost united the whole northern part of China. After the Feishui Compaign, the Former Qin was shattered, thus over a century, warfare never stopped in the north.

The wholescale migration to the hinterland brought many minorities into full contacts with the Huaxia (Chinese) culture. They acquired the same tastes and conventions with Han nationality and were assimilated and accommodated in Han culture. Since then, China was a nation embracing various ethnic groups that imbued with similar customs due to the fact that the minorities live along with the majority Han side by side in the northern part of central plain.

The rulers of Eastern Jin were contented with their sovereign in the south and did not take serious of recovering of the Central Plain. Those landlord gentries and noble families concentrated their minds on economic developments in the south. Therefore It was possible for the nobles in the south to know the prestigious families and refugees migrated from the north in the war which enhanced the social development in the south. Since Wei there was a prosperous development of literature,

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especially in the Eastern Jin Dynasty. For example, Xie Lingyun, a landscape poem writer and Tao Yuanming , a pastoral poet grew out of the old style of poem writing and wrote the poems full of imagination and the flavor of rustic life. These new ideas and reforms laid foundation for later flourishing of poems and prose in Sui-Tang dynasties. In social development, the handicraft industry was advanced in a wide margin compared to that of the Western Jin owing to the melting and communications of the north and the south. With the industrious working of the immigrated farmers from the north and the native farmers in the south, enormous wilds were cultivated and empoldered, which made the Yangtze River valley the center of economy following the Yellow River valley in Chinese history.



五胡十六国
The Eastern Jin Dynasty and the Sixteen States in the North

当东晋在江南建国的同时，中国的北方则陷入分裂混战，黄河流域成为匈奴、鲜卑、羯、氐、羌等五个主要游牧民族争杀的战场，并分别建立了自己的国家，相互争霸，不断有国家成立和灭亡，这些国家被称为北方的十六国。从公元304年匈奴贵族刘渊建立汉国，316年灭掉西晋，到439年鲜卑拓拔部统一北方，这130多年里，北方各民族相互争战，先后建立了前赵（匈奴）、后赵（羯）、前燕（鲜卑）、前凉（汉）、前秦（氐）、后秦（羌）、后燕（鲜卑）、西秦（鲜卑）、后凉（氐）、南凉（鲜卑）、西凉（汉）、北凉（卢水胡）、南燕（鲜卑）、北燕（汉）、夏（匈奴）等15个政权，连同西南氐族建立的成汉，共十六国，和东晋汉族政权长期对峙，史称五胡十六国。

除十六国之外，还有汉人冉闵建立的魏、丁灵翟氏建立的魏、武都氐帅杨氏建立的仇池国、鲜卑慕容氏建立的西燕、鲜卑拓跋氏建立的代五个政权，总计先后建立了21个政权。上述政权中，后赵、前燕、前秦都曾占据过北方的大部分疆域。4世纪下半期，氐族贵族建立的前秦，基本上统一了北方。淝水之战后，前秦统治瓦解，北方再度陷入四分五裂和军阀混战状态。

由于少数民族入主中原，更多地接触到华夏文化，使之与汉民族逐渐发展为同一生活习惯的民族，进而被汉族融合。自魏、晋、南北朝之后，中原北方大体已形成以汉族为主，其他少数民族混居的人口构成形式，使中国正式成为具有相似生活习

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惯的多民族国家。

由于东晋统治者安于江南，不以恢复中原为意，门阀大族致力于南方的庄园经营。北方大族及大量汉族人口迁徙江南，使得江南的名士与渡江的中原人士有了更多的交流机会，促进了社会文化的发展。自曹魏以来，中国的文学发展一直处于大步前进的时期，其中以东晋年间的文人最为著名。东晋出现了山水诗人谢灵运、田园诗人陶渊明等人，他们对旧体诗作出改革，为将来隋、唐的诗文盛世创造了前提条件。在社会生产上，北方的手工业技术与南方的技术相互融合，使东晋的手工业水平比西晋有了大幅度的提高。南下的北方农民和土著农民辛勤劳动，开辟南方广大的山泽荒野，促进了江南的开发，使中国经济重心开始由黄河流域向长江流域转移。

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Chapter 11 南北朝 The Northern and Southern Dynasties

Northern and Southern Dynasties (420 ~ 589): Southern Dynasties are Song (420 ~ 479), Qi (479 ~ 502), Liang (502 ~ 557), and Chen (557 ~ 589); Northern Dynasties are NorthernWei (386 ~ 534), Eastern Wei (534 ~ 550), and Northern Qi (550 ~ 577), Western Wei (535 ~ 556), and Northern Zhou (557 ~ 581).

The Southern and Northern Dynasties, a period of disunity in Chinese history after the two Jin dynasties, spanned 169 years from 420 to 589. In 420, the general Liu Yu deposed the last Emperor of Eastern Jin and established Song. Since then in the following 160 years there existed successive dynasties of Qi, Liang and Chen which are known as the Southern Dynasties. In 386, the leader Tuoba Gui of Tuoba clan of Xianbei tribe set up the state of Northern Wei and unified the Yellow River valley in 439. At the dawn of six century, the northern Wei split into the Eastern and Western Wei's which were replaced by the Northern Qi and the Northern Zhou respectively. These five states in the north were called the Northern Dynasties in Chinese history.

南北朝(420 ~ 589):南朝:宋(420 ~ 479),齐(479 ~ 502),梁(502 ~ 557),陈(557 ~ 589);北朝:北魏(386 ~ 534),东魏(534 ~ 550),北齐(550 ~ 577),西魏(535 ~ 556),北周(557 ~ 581)。

南北朝时期是两晋以后中国历史上一个分裂时期,从公元420年开始,到589年结束,共169年。公元420年,东晋大将刘裕废掉东晋皇帝,自立国号宋。此后160多年间,南方先后经历了宋、齐、梁、陈四个朝代,历史上总称为南朝。公元386年拓跋部首领拓跋圭建立北魏。公元439年,统一黄河流域。6世纪前期,北魏分裂为东魏和西魏。此后,东魏为北齐所代替;西魏为北周所代替。历史上把这北方的五个朝代总称为北朝。

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南朝
The Southern Dynasty

The Liu Song, the Southern Qi, the Xiao Liang and the Chen existed in the south successively. All emperors made Jiankang (now Nanjing in Jiangsu) their capital, except Emperor Yuan of Liang who made Jiangling his capital for three years. Of these regimes, the Liu Song (420 ~ 479) was the largest, strongest, and the most long-lived one, ruled by eight emperors of four generations. Lasting for only 23 years from 479 to 502, the Southern Qi had seven emperors of three generations because of frequent wars. The Xiao Liang extended from 502 to 557, ruled by four emperors of three generations, among whom Emperor Wu (Xiao Yan) enjoyed the longest reign for nearly fifty years. The Chen lasted 33 years from 557 to 589, with five emperors of three generations. It, after the Liang, was a small and weak regime with a scare population. Besides, the rulers of Chen were quite corrupted. Finally, the Chen was conquered by the Sui Dynasty.



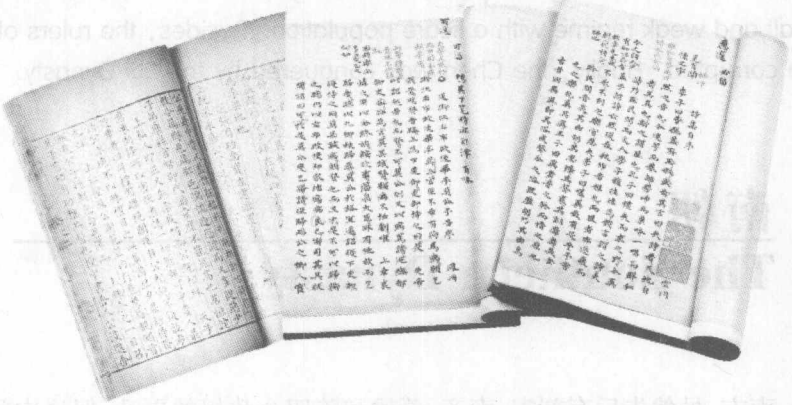
南朝
The Southern Dynasty

在南方,虽然先后有刘宋、南齐、萧梁和陈四个政权的更迭,但这中间除梁元帝以江陵作都3年外,其余的时间,南方各朝的京城始终建在建康(今江苏南京)。刘宋(420~479)是其中疆域最大、最强、统治年代最长的一个政权,历4代8帝,共59年。南齐(479~502)国最短暂,只有23年,但由于争杀频繁,经历3代7帝,平均3年一帝,是中国历史上帝王更换极快的一朝。梁代(502~557)历3代4帝,其中武帝萧衍个人享国时间最久,将近半个世纪。陈(557~589)共33年,历三代五帝。陈承衰梁之弊,是版图狭窄、人口孤弱、力量单薄的王朝,加之统治者又极度腐败,最终丧亡于隋朝之手。

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刘宋
Liu Song

In 420, Liu Yu dethroned the Emperor of Jin and declared himself as the Emperor of Song, which was known as Liu Song to distinguish from the Song set up by Zhao Kuangying after the Tang Dynasty. Born in a humble family, Liu Yu realized that it was the uprisings of the great noble clans that caused the downfall of the Eastern Jin therefore he would by no means put the members of the prestigious on the important positions. Instead, the military power was in the hands of his sons and other important posts were filled with persons from the poor origin.



By these measures he did successfully avoid the separate regimens set up by the noble clans, however, he failed to foresee the conflicts between his princes after his death. In 422, Liu Yu died, his two sons Shao and Wen took the throne in succession. Worthy to mention is during Wen's reign, there appeared a prosperous comfortable society characterized by social stability, economic growth and cultural flourishing. There were wars broken out between the Liu Song and Wei in the north; however, both suffered great loss and dared not to launch a large-scale campaign towards each other. Since then, there was a relative tranquil period till in the year of 454, Emperor Wen died and was succeeded by two tyrannies of Xiao

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Wu and Ming of Liu Song. These two cruel emperors even plotted to kill their own family members besides suspecting their own followers, which caused a constant chaos situation in their kingdom. Xiao Daocheng, Commander of Liu, aslo the Imperial Guards, gained his own weight in this confusion, usurped the power of Liu Song and changed its name to Qi in 479, which brought an end to the end of the Liu Song.



刘宋
Liu Song

公元420年刘裕废晋帝自立,国号宋。为区别于后世赵匡胤建立的宋朝,史学家常称之为"刘宋"。刘裕出身贫寒,又看到了东晋因大族屡屡兴兵反抗而使其灭亡的教训,故而在他登基后,不再重用名门大族。其用人也多为贫寒出身,兵权则主要交予自己的皇子,所以没有重蹈东晋发生大族割据的覆辙。然而,由于皇子相互间的争权夺利,最后以至于相互残杀,这是刘裕始料未及的。公元422年,刘裕卒,宋少帝、文帝相继即位。其中,文帝刘义隆在位的30年间,是宋朝最繁荣的一段时期,这时南方的经济、文化真正有所发展,出现了一个所谓"小康"的局面。此间,宋与北朝的魏国交战虽各有胜负,但却都损失惨重,使南北方均无能力再发生大战。从此,南北方相对稳定下来。公元454年,文帝薨。文帝死后,宋孝武帝、宋明帝先后为帝,但他们俩都是有名的暴君,不仅对诸将疑忌,而且兄弟间相互残杀,政治一度混乱。在此期间,刺史萧道成趁政治混乱之机而形成了较强的势力。公元479年,萧道成灭宋,建立齐。至此,刘宋宣告灭亡。



南齐
The Southern Qi

Spanned only 23 years, Qi was the shortest kingdom among the four others existed in the Southern Dynasties and the first king, Xiao Daocheng was later known as Emperor of Gao. Not taking the same track of Liu

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Song, Xiao Daocheng cautiously ruled with mercy and advocated thrift in his four-year reign. Upon his death bed, Gao Di urged his son, Wu Di to follow his suit and avoid fighting and killing each other within the royal family. Taking his father warning, Wu Di ruled consistently, thus gained a relatively stable period in the south. Although there was no war with Wei in the northern front, the government of Southern Qi was repleted with corrupted officials, cruel bureaucracy and the situation in the remote areas was even graver. For example, the governor Cui Qingxu in Liang city gathered 10 million silver; Xiao Yi 30 million in Jing Zhou and Cao Hu 50 million in Yong Zhou. The rules were: subjects were exploited by their governor who in his turn was grabbed by Emperor. Cao Hu was the example in case in which he was put to death and his money was taken by Emperor Xiao Baojuan. After the death of Wu Di, Qi was on the same route of Liu Song in that the royal families murdered each other. When it came to Dong Hunhou, he almost put the entire ministers in court to death out of his suspicion, hence brought turmoil to Qi. In 501, Xiao Yan, half-brother of Xiao Daocheng took the advantages of this disturbance, led an uprising in Xiangyang (now Xiangfan City, Hubei), seized the capital Jiankang and named his dynasty Liang.



南齐
The Southern Qi

齐是四个朝代中存在时间最短的，仅有23年。其第一代君王萧道成被称为齐高帝，齐高帝萧道成借鉴了宋灭亡的教训，以宽厚为本，提倡节俭。他在位共四年，临死前，要求其子武帝继续其统治方针，不要手足相残。武帝遵其遗嘱，继续统治国家，使南朝又出现了一段相对稳定发展的阶段。齐武帝时，与北魏通好，边境比较安定，江南经济有一定的发展。但南齐内政腐败，官吏贪婪残暴，边远各州尤甚。崔庆绪在梁州搜刮1 000万，萧嶷在荆州搜刮3 000万，曹虎便在雍州搜刮5 000万。官吏掠夺百姓，皇帝勒索官吏。皇帝萧宝卷见曹虎钱多，就把他杀掉，财产归为己有。武帝死后，齐国的皇帝又走上了宋灭亡的老路，他们纷纷杀戮自己的兄亲、叔侄，至东昏侯时，因其疑心过重，几乎将朝内大臣全部处死，这样一来齐国的江山又被动摇了。公元501年，萧道成的族弟萧衍在襄阳起兵，攻进建康，结束了齐的统治，并称帝，建立梁朝。

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萧梁
Xiaoliang

Xiao Yan, the founder of Liang, was a master of poems and was appointed the Garrison Commander of Yongzhou in 499. Taking advantages of confusion in Southern Qi, he secured the throne and established Liang. He was called Emperor Wu of Liang and his court existed 48 years. At that time the Wei in the south was split and weak enough to be defeated, however, the rulers of Liang let the opportunity slip through their fingers except focus their minds on exploiting their people. With no rules from the Emperor to regulate, Liang underwent a dark situation in which the children of prestigious family acted at their wills or even killed persons and seized his goods to the view; the officials of the court were mad in gathering money. One governor, Yu Hong once said that he would snatch all the wealth to the extent that there was no fish in water, no games in woods, no grains in fields and no people in towns.

Besides , the rulers of Liang were merciless to their people. For example there were as much as 5000 civilians was sentenced to prisonment above two years given the fact that the total registered permanent residents was 500 000 then. The prison was always crowded.

In 547, Hou Jing, the general of the Eastern Wei, had a quarrel with Gao Cheng, who held an important position in the government. To betray his country and to contribute to Liang, Hou Jing promised to surrender with 13 cities south of the Yellow River under his administration. Tempted by this, Emperor Wu sent general Xiao Yuanming to march north to receive the surrender. However, Xiao Yuanming was defeated and captured by the armies of the Eastern Wei.

Shortly afterwards, the Eastern Wei disintegrated 40 000 of Hou Jing's solders in Guoyang(now Meng city, Anhui) and the latter retreated to Shouyang. To further destroy Hou Jing, Gao Cheng plotted to build friendly terms with Liang. Without approvals from his ministers Emperor Wu of Liang agreed and promised to hand out Hou Jing in return of Xiao Yuanming. Trapped in the corner in 548, Hou Jing fought back to Shouyang, crossed the Yangtze River, seized the Shitou Cheng

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(Stone district) and Dong Cheng(Eastern City District) of Jiankang City and isolated Tai Cheng, the district where Xiao Yan resided. Being isolated and surrounded, most the soldiers starved to death. In March the following year, Tai Cheng was occupied, Xiao Yan was put under house arrest and starved to death soon.

Xiao Gang became a figurehead emperor after Xiao Yan died. However, while projecting his influence, Hou Jing was confronted by severe opposes from the remaining army of Liang and local militia. The army led by Wang Sengbian, subordinate of King of Xiang Dong, Xiao Yi, the seventh son of Xiao Yan, beat Hou Jing and headed for the east. Even worse, governor Chen Baxian of Liang also set out with his army from Guang Dong. Being eager to ascend to throne, Hou Jing dethroned Xiao Gang, then Xiao Dong and proclaimed to be Emperor of Han accompanied with the mass killing of Xiao's families. Up to now, Liang was at the end of the rope. In 552, Wang Sengbian and Chen Baxian captured Jiankang and Hou Jing was killed by his followers in an attempted escape. In 557, Chen Baxian replaced Liang with Chen.



萧梁
Xiaoliang

梁朝的建立者萧衍,擅长文学,499 年被任命为雍州刺史,他乘齐国内乱,发兵夺取了皇位,建立了梁朝。萧衍是为梁武帝,共在位 48 年。在武帝时期,北方的魏国已经衰落,再无能力对南方形成威胁。这本应是南方发展的大好时机,但武帝却昏庸无能,纵容大臣剥削人民,在萧衍的纵容下,梁朝政治腐败。贵族子弟在京城胡作非为,甚至公开杀人越货。梁朝官吏可以公开贪污,三任郡守鱼弘说他做官要做到四尽:"水中鱼鳖尽,山中獐鹿尽,田中米谷尽,村里民庶尽。"

萧衍对百姓用刑极其残酷,南朝注籍的户口只有 500 多万人,梁每年判处二年以上徒刑的就达 5 000 人之多,国家监狱里总是塞得满满的。

公元 547 年(太清元年),东魏大将侯景因与掌权的高澄发生矛盾,表示愿献所据河南十三州之地降梁。梁武帝贪图利益,派萧渊明率大军北上接应侯景,结果被东魏在彭城打败,萧渊明被俘。

不久,东魏又在涡阳(安徽蒙城)瓦解了侯景 40 000 之众,侯景率 800 人退据寿阳。高澄为挑起侯景与梁朝的矛盾,表示愿与梁重新通好。梁武帝不顾大臣和

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侯景的一再反对，同意通好，并答应以侯景交换萧渊明。

侯景走投无路，于548年8月反于寿阳。侯景渡江，很快攻下建康石头城和东府城，但萧衍所住的台城却一时攻打不下。随后，台城在久围之下，粮食断绝，饿死者十之八九。次年3月，侯景攻入台城，萧衍被软禁，不久饿死在台城。

萧衍死后，侯景立太子萧纲为傀儡皇帝。侯景虽然攻下了建康，但当他的势力向四周扩展时，却遇到梁军和地主武装的强烈抵抗。萧衍第七子、湘东王萧绎派大将王僧辩东讨，连败侯景，并乘胜东下，梁太守陈霸先也从广州率兵北上。侯景见形势不利，急于称帝，于是废萧纲，萧栋自立，改国号汉，大杀萧衍子孙，此时梁已完全处于崩溃的边缘。公元552年，王僧辩、陈霸先攻下建康，侯景企图逃跑，被部下所杀。公元557年，陈霸先灭梁，建立陈。



陈
Chen

Chen Baxian, the founder of the Chen Dynasty, was born in a humble family of Changcheng WuXing (now Changxing, Zhejiang province). He gained his prestige and power when suppressing Hou Jing, the traitor. Rising from the ruin of Liang, with Xiao Cha held Jiangling, Xiao Bo in Ling Nan and some newly-borned landlords claimed sovereign over localities, Chen government directed all his efforts in eliminating the separated regimes and rehabilitation of the social groups in the early period either by means of fighting or ingratiating.

During the periods of emperors Wen and Xuan, Chen witnessed a more organized social orders and enhanced progress of economy. In 573, Wu Mingche, commander of Chen, taking the advantage of chaos in the Northern Qi, waged war against the Northern Qi and occupied Shouyang. After the Northern Qi was destroyed by the Northern Zhou, Wu Mingche launched a second expenditure to the North and was captured in the battle in Pengcheng. Since then, the main force of Chen Dynasty was collapsed and the strength of the Southern Dynasties fell into a decline.

In 583, the later emperor Chen Shubao came into the power, he paid no heed to the governments except hurling money on extravagant life and spectacular palace. The accumulation of the wealth was drained in the south. Meanwhile, the Sui

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in the north grew strong. In 589, Sui directed their army southwards, entered Jiankang and captured the last emperor. With the vanish of the Chen Dynasty, the separation which lasted for nearly three hundred years was over.

The Southern Dynasties saw the decline of power and influence of powerful families and gentry-lords. Due to the strengthened royal power, the powerful families and gentry-lords, despite their high social status, could no longer dominate the court. Meanwhile, further development of the area in the south of the Yangtze River gave the local people opportunities to rise in power, to take positions in the government and even to serve the emperor. Beginning at the time of the Xiao Liang and the Chen, the southern landlords also became overwhelming local powers.

The Southern Dynasties was the second government established and ruled by Han nationality in the south following the Eastern Jin Dynasty, and its existence contributed to saving and developing Han culture. Without it, it was very likely that Han nationality would have been eliminated by other minorities and the brilliant cultures of Huaxia would have been taken to an end. Judging from this respect, the Southern Dynasties justified its position in Chinese history and its contribution to Huaxia culture was indelible.



陈
Chen

陈朝的建立者陈霸先，吴兴郡长城（浙江长兴）人，出身寒微。侯景之乱爆发后，陈霸先起兵讨伐侯景，逐步取得了权位。陈建国时，萧詧据有江陵，萧勃占据岭南，一些新兴起的土豪还各据一方。以后，陈用笼络和征伐兼用的办法，相继消灭许多割据势力。

陈朝在文帝和宣帝时期，政治情况较梁末有所改善，江南经济逐渐得到了恢复。公元573年（太建五年），陈将吴明彻乘北齐大乱之机北伐，攻占了寿阳等地。北周灭北齐后，吴明彻再次北伐，在进攻彭城的战斗中失败被俘，陈军主力覆灭，南朝的力量更加衰弱了。

公元583年，后主陈叔宝继位，荒淫无道，不理政务，并且大修宫室，耗费了大量钱财，使经济又遭破坏。这时北方的隋朝已经强大起来。公元589年，隋军大举南下，攻入建康，俘后主，陈朝灭亡，结束了中国长达近300年的分裂局面。

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南朝的历史是门阀士族由盛而衰的历史，南朝的皇权比较强大，门阀士族社会地位虽然高贵，却不能完全左右政局。随着江南开发的不断深入，土著寒人在政治上逐渐上升，步入官僚行列，为皇帝所倚重。从梁陈之际开始，南方内地的土豪，也成为割据的一方势力。

南朝是继东晋之后由汉族在南方建立起来的朝廷，虽然他们的存在都不过几十年，但其作为汉族的统治，使汉文化得以保存和发展。如果没有它的存在，汉族则可能被其它的少数民族所消灭，华夏文明就此结束。所以，南朝在中国历史上有着极其重要的地位，为华夏文明的发展作出了不可磨灭的贡献。



北魏
The Northern Wei

In the late Sixteen States period, an underdeveloped ethnic minority—the Tuoba of Xianbei—gradually rose to power. The Tuoba clan of Xianbei tribe mainly lived in the northern part of Daxi'anling (now northeast of China) and led a nomadic life. At the end of the Western Jin Dynasty, it was split into three sectors. In 386, Tuoba Gui set up the state of Dai at Cheng Yue when the Former Qin collapsed and changed Dai into Wei in the same year, which was known as the Northern Wei in history.

The Northern Wei captured the Later Yan, entered the Central Plains and established the Northern Wei (386 ~ 534). Then the Northern Wei wiped out all rival states and brought a long period of warfare to an end. Historians often regard the 5th year of Taiyan (439), when the Northern Wei unified the northern area of China, as the beginning of the Northern Dynasty. In its early years, Pingcheng (now Datong in Shanxi) served as the capital. After Emperor Xiaowen ascended to the throne, he removed the capital to Luoyang and vigorously promoted the learning of the Han culture. Therefore, the political center was brought to the central plain as well. The Northern Wei lasted over a century, with 12 emperors of nine generations. It had relatively greater impact on the history of the Southern and Northern Dynasties.

The Reform of the Emperor Xiaowen: At the beginning, the Northern Wei practised the "Suzerain check and protection" system. From the late fifth century, it

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quickened its pace of Sinicisation and came into the golden period in history of the Northern Wei thanks to the reform carried out by the sixth descendent, Emperor Xiaowen. In 493, Xiaowen moved his capital to Luoyang and took measures to reform traditional Xianbei customs, for example, the surname Tuoba of Xianbei clan was changed into Yuan, Dugu into Liu, Buliu Gu into Lu and Qiumu Ling into Mu. To achieve the goal of acculturation, he promulgated a decree to implement his people to merge into the Han culture by restricting their own development, for instance, Xianbei language and clothes were banned. As for the old political practice, Emperor Xiaowen introduced the "three chiefs" system and the land equalisation system. After a package of reforms, the advanced Han culture and well-developed political institution were fully functioned in the Northern Wei and the northern China stepped into a stage of culture assimilation, which promoted social and economic development in the north but invited strong opposition from certain conservative aristocrats and Xianbei military men on the other hand.

The reforms of the Emperor Xiaowen was outcome of struggles and culture accommodation of the various ethnics from the north and the west of China. It consolidated the fruits of acculturation in a legal form which on one hand enhanced the feudalization of Xianbei and other minorities in the north and encouraged the melting of various nationalities with Han as the mainframe on the other hand. Adapting to the historical trend, gearing with determination of his political and social pratice to Han people, Emperor Xiaowen's reformation was by no means negligible and he earned himself fame of brilliant statesman in Chinese history.

The Downfall of the Northern Wei: After the death of Emperor Xiaowen's, the rulers of the Northern Wei gradually abandoned the peaceful ethnic polices and restored the privileges of Xianbei nobles. Therefore the new contradictions were there and the administration of the Northern Wei was dwindled. At the late of the Northern Wei, the Xianbei nobles were gone rotten in their extravagant life. For example, Yuanyong, King of Gaoyang, was served by 6 000 myrmidons and 500 housemaids and it was said that he spent ten thousands of silver on each meal. Yuan Chen was more wasteful: his ten horses were fed with silver stables and his guests were treated with crystal pots and jade bowels which were all rarities exported from abroad. Meanwhile, corruptions were in such rampage in government that the positions in court could be sold and bought. Still the Buddhists temples were booming. The mother of the Emperor Hu, ordered to establish Yongning Temple in Luoyang, which cost numerous money with more than one thousands

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rooms, decorated with jades and splendid silks and a pagoda of nine layers.

In the 4th year of Zhengguang(523) during the Emperor Xiaoming's reign, six towns rose to rebel. The Northern Wei was disunified and plunged into civil war. In the final years of the Emperor Xiaowu's reign, two powerful ministers, Gao Huan and Yuwen Tai, split the Northern Wei into the eastern and western parts. The Eastern Wei(534 ~ 550) had one emperor ruling for 16 years, with Yecheng as its capital. The Western Wei(535 ~ 556) had a history of 22 years, ruled by three emperors with Chang'an as its capital. These two states were later replaced by the Northern Qi(550 ~ 577) and the Northern Zhou (557 ~ 581) respectively. Established by the Gao family of the Xianbeised Han, the Northern Qi had a history of 28 years, with six emperors of three generations. In 577, the Northern Zhou ended the Northern Qi, then the north got reunified. The Northern Zhou was ruled by the Yuwen family of the Xianbei, with five emperors of three generations for 24 years. In 581, Yang Jian, a family member of Northern Zhou's empress usurped the throne and changed the name to the Sui. In history, the five dynasties in the north-the Northern Wei, the Eastern Wei, the Western Wei, the Northern Qi, and the Northern Zhou were called the Northern Dynasties. And historians referred to this period when the Southern Dynasties and the Northern Dynasties co-existed as the Southern and Northern Dynasties.

北魏
The Northern Wei

十六国后期,一个极为落后的少数民族——鲜卑族拓跋部落逐渐强盛起来。建立北魏的鲜卑族拓跋部,最初活动于大兴安岭北端一带,过着游牧生活。西晋末年,拓跋部分为三部分。公元386年(魏登国元年),拓跋珪乘前秦瓦解之际,在盛乐称代王,重建代国。同年,改国号为魏,史称北魏。

北魏打败后燕入主中原,在建立北魏政权(386 ~ 534)之后,又消灭各割据政权,统一北方,结束了北部中国长期混战的局面,中国北方开始进入北朝时期。按照史家的习惯,北魏统一北方的太延五年(439)往往被视为北朝的起始之年。北魏前期以平城(今山西大同)为都,孝文帝大举实行汉化,政治中心也迁徙到中原腹地洛阳。北魏立国100多年,历九代十二帝,是对南北朝历史影响较大的一个王朝。

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孝文帝的改制：北魏初期，实行宗主督护制，从5世纪后期开始，其汉化趋势加快，开创了北魏黄金时代的正是北魏第六代皇帝，孝文帝元宏。公元493年孝文帝迁都洛阳，同时，孝文帝将鲜卑族拓跋姓氏改为元，独孤氏改姓刘氏，步六孤氏改姓陆氏，丘穆陵氏改姓穆氏等。此外他还禁止使用鲜卑语，禁止穿戴鲜卑服饰，并颁诏宣布吸收汉族文化。孝文帝企图通过限制自身文化，来达到与汉族融合的目的。孝文帝还实行三长制，颁布均田制，改革了鲜卑旧俗。通过孝文帝的一系列改革，使得汉族的先进文化及先进的政治制度完全融入了北魏的统治中，中国北方已经开始进入了民族融合的阶段，促进了北方社会政治、经济的发展，但也引起了鲜卑贵族和武将的反对。

北魏的改革实际上是西、北各族陆续进入中原后，民族斗争、融合的一次总结，它以法律的形式肯定了各族融合的成果，反过来又促进了以鲜卑族为中心的北方各族的封建化和以汉族为主体的民族大融合的发展。孝文帝顺应历史发展的趋势，放弃自己民族的旧俗，毅然地进行改革，对中国历史的发展作出了重要的贡献，不愧是中国历史上一位杰出的政治家。

北魏的灭亡：孝文帝死后，由于部分守旧贵族和鲜卑武人的反对，北魏统治者逐渐废弃了以前的民族和解政策，又恢复了鲜卑族的特权，于是新的矛盾产生了，北魏开始逐步走向衰落。北魏后期，鲜卑门阀在优裕的生活中已经完全腐化。如高阳王元雍有家仆六千，使女五百，吃一顿饭要花费数万钱；河间王元琛更为奢侈，他有十几匹骏马都用银槽来喂养，请客用的器皿如水晶钵、玛瑙碗等，都是由外国买来的稀罕之物。同时，政治日益腐败，卖官鬻爵，贿赂盛行，佛教寺庙如云。胡太后在洛阳造永宁寺，内有僧房一千间，都用珠玉锦绣装饰。寺内有九层浮图（塔）。

孝明帝正光四年（523），六镇起兵，北魏陷入分裂和内战。北魏孝武帝末年，权臣高欢、宇文泰将北魏辖区切割成东、西两块。东魏（534～550）以邺城为都，历一主16年；西魏（535～556）都长安，经3帝，共享国22年。东、西魏先后被北齐（550～577）和北周（557～581）取代。北齐是鲜卑化汉人高氏所建的政权，立国28年，有三代六帝。公元577年，周灭齐，北方重新统一。北周是宇文氏鲜卑人统治的王朝，历三代五帝，计24年。公元581年，北周外戚杨坚废静帝自立，改国号为隋，是为文帝，北朝结束。最终由隋文帝杨坚灭南朝陈，重新统一了中国。历史上把北方的几个朝代——北魏、东魏、西魏、北齐、北周叫做北朝，与南方同时存在的几个朝代一起称南北朝。

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小结
Summary

The economic center was in the south during the Southern and Northern Dynasties due to the migration of people from the north in the war, which not only increased the labor force but brought with them the advanced agricultural technologies. The economy of the south developed and Yangzhou became the most prosperous city then. There were great achievements in literature, in particular, poems. Besides, the diplomatic interaction with outside worlds was enhanced: the Northern Wei kept touch with Japan and Korea in the east, the middle Asia and Da Qin (the Rome Empire) in the West and others countries in the southeast.

Socially, Buddhism, a newly rising religious sector, spread very quickly throughout China. Buddhism, which had its start in India, was introduced into China around the Han Dynasty (probably about the same time that the early Christians were pervailing in Europe). The whole Xianbei tribe was embraced in Buddhism and it was at this time that Buddhism was caught on, which laid an important foundation in religion in China. At that time, all the believers held that by praying to Buddha, they would expect a happy afterlife. And with the prevailing of Buddhism, there appeared many statures, frescos and grottos related to Buddha among them the most remarkable ones are Thousands Buddha Cave in Dunhuang, Yungang Grotto in Shanxi and Longmen Buddhists Cave in Luoyang. They are all cherish treasures in Chinese Arts. Shortly afterwards, the new sectors of Buddhism, Mizong and Chanzong were introduced. As the native-born beliefs of Daoism and Confucianism, Buddhism was deeply rooted in China.

The Southern Dynasties laid greater claim to fame in literature and paintings. There were some artists noted for the paintings of huaman figures. With the flourishing of landscape poems, the theme of the painting turning from the portraits of human figures to the landscapes. There was splendid scenery depicted on the surface of the fold-out fan. In his book *the Critiques on Ancient Paintings*, Xie He of the Southern Dynasty summarized the theories of painting. Not limited in human fig-

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ures, the six approaches of drawing figures he summrized also imposed great influence on future paintings. Also, the well-known calligraphers, for example, the Thousand-Word Prose written by monk Zhiyong, descendant of Wang Xizhi, the Sage Calligrapher, was the classic remains referred in the Southern Dynasties. *Shuijing Zhu* (on Rivers) written by Li Daoyuan and *Qi Min Yao Shu* (on medicines for the people) by Jia Sixie, enjoy high literature quality.

The natural science developed in the Southern Dynasties, too. Zu Chongzhi, a scientist from Song and Qi Dynasties, was the first one in the world to calculate accurately the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter in 3.1415926 to 3.1415927. Progresses were also made in calendricsystem and refining of iron.

After the Eastern Jin, the Southern and Northern Dynasties were the only one with disunity and separation of the north and the south. Although its economy was hampered by the disunities, its ethnic assimilation was unprecedented due to the minorities ruling at the central plain of the Yellow River. It was at this time that the minorities in the north was assimilated into Han ethnic and gave birth to the Chinese nationhence fostered the idea of one emperor ruling as one sun in the sky. Given this fact, the separation in the Southern and Northern dynasties accelerated the integration of various ethnic groups and it was necessary and important in the long history of Chinese development.



小结 Summary

南北朝时期的经济偏重于南方，因为中原的人口避乱不断南迁，不仅增加了江南的劳动力，而且先进生产技术的传入大大促进了当地的经济发展，扬州便是当时南朝的经济发达地区。这一时期文学成就也很高，尤其是诗歌。对外交流很多，东到日本和朝鲜，西到中亚和大秦（即罗马），还有东南亚地区。

南北朝时期，新兴的佛教，迅速传播和发展起来。佛教从汉代时由印度开始传入中国（大致类似于基督教广泛传播的时间）。鲜卑族举国上下都信奉佛教，在中华文明史上，占重要地位的佛教，正是在北魏前后奠定了基础。这一时期，对菩萨的信仰十分流行，人们相信，只要通过向菩萨祈祷求助，便可以达到超度的目的。北魏时，随着佛教的传播，佛像、壁画、石窟、寺院等也得到了空前的发展，故而有许

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多庙宇及石窟造像流传于世，其中敦煌千佛洞、云岗石窟、龙门石窟，成为我国造像艺术宝库之中的瑰宝。此后佛教中又加入了密宗、禅宗等新的教派。今日与道教、儒教一样，佛教在中国已有了深深的根基。

此外，南北朝的文学艺术发展更大，随着山水诗的出现，长期以来以表现人物为主的绘画传统开始转变，山水景色也成为绘画的内容。南朝还有不少以人物画著称的画家，也有人在团扇上画出“咫尺之内而瞻万里之遥”的山水。南齐谢赫撰著了研究绘画理论的《古画品录》，而他所总结的“六法”，不仅仅限于人物画，对后世也有很大影响。南朝书法名家辈出。王羲之后裔、由陈入隋的僧人智永所写的千字文，是今天能看到的南朝名迹。而郦道元的《水经注》、贾思勰的《齐民要术》都成为流传后世的经典之作。南朝的科学颇有成就，宋齐时人祖冲之，是世界上第一个把圆周率的准确数值算到小数点后七位数字的数学家，即 3.1415926 和 3.1415927之间。历法及炼钢技术也有所改进。

自东晋灭亡以来，南北朝成为我国历史上为数不多的南北分裂时期之一，虽然它的形成使经济发展有所停滞，但由于外族对中原地区的统治而形成的黄河流域民族大融合却是中国历史上史无前例的。正是在这种条件下，中国北方的诸族逐渐被汉族同化，最终成为同一民族。也正是这种作用，为将来中国成为统一的国家打下了良好的基础，所以我们说，南北朝的分裂，对加速民族统一起到了极其重要的作用，是中华民族发展过程中不可缺少的一个重要环节。

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Chapter 12 The Sui Dynasty 隋朝

The Sui Dynasty once again united China after it had been divided for 270 years since the Western Jin. Sui altogether passes on the five emperors in name, actually it is only two perishes within 38 years. In history, Sui is one of shorter dynasties; but its historical status can not be neglected. Because many systems in Tang came from the Sui Dynasty. And Sui Emperor Yang Guang and Tang Emperor Li Yuan were relatives. Therefore, to some extent, Tang was extension of Sui. On this point, history books called them together "Sui Tang."

隋朝结束了自西晋以来270年的分裂，重新统一了中国。隋名义上共传五帝，实际却是两世而亡，历国38年，是我国历史上存在较短的朝代之一，但是隋朝的历史地位却是不容忽视的，因为盛唐的许多制度都是在隋朝时确立的。唐高祖和隋炀帝杨广还有亲属关系，所以，从某种程度上可以说唐是隋的延伸，正因如此，历史书籍常将隋、唐并称为"隋唐"。

隋的建立和发展
The Making of Sui and its Development

By the end of the Southern and Northern Dynasties, Chinese had experienced north -south separation for a long time. People looked forward to a unified country but no emperor either in the Northern Zhou or the Southern Chen was able to accomplish this. It was not until Yang Jian usurped the throne and founded the Sui Dynasty that the reunification occurred. Yang Jian, a born aristocrat of the Northern Zhou, was Emperor Xuan's Chancellor of Military Affairs. Later when the infant Emperor Jing ascended the throne, Yang was made the chief Minister and took charge of both military and civil affairs. After his suppression of the

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separatist forces in Henan, Hubei and Sichuan, he cleared away the Yuwen's royal families, overthrew the Northern Zhou, declared himself the emperor in the first year of Dading (581) and named his empire the Sui. As Emperor Wen of the Sui, he immediately carried out his military plans for unification. He first made peace with the Western Turks through marriage and resettled the Eastern Turks; hence trouble was free in the north. Then he attacked the Chen in the south by appointing Yang Guang as marshal. Yang Guang collected the vanguards forces in Anhui to make preparations for crossing the Yangtze River. In the 9th year of Kaihuang (589), the vanguards Han Qinhu and He Ruobi's forces advanced crossing the Yangtze River from Caishi and Guangling respectively; then they quickly attacked and captured Jiankang. The Chen forces collapsed and its emperor surrendered. All forces in the south successively pledged allegiance to the Sui. It took Emperor Wen less than four months to unify the North and the South.

Emperor Wen undertook a series of measures to develop the economy, recover production and consolidate the unification. He strengthened the power of the central government by dividing it into six departments under three ministries. Local administrative divisions were also changed from the three-level system (prefectures, sub-prefectures, and counties) to a two-level system (prefectures and counties). He also reformed the military enlistment system, issued new orders to implement the land equalization system and to mint the five-*zhu* coins, and standardized weights and measures. He entrusted able men like Gao Ying, Yang Su, Niu Hong and Su Wei alike with important positions、Emperor Wen also engaged in developing agriculture and constructing water conservancy as well as irrigation systems, which helped reviving handicraft industry and commerce. The completion of the Guangtong Channel made it more convenient for water transportation. The imperial examination system was improved, allowing candidates to enter government offices through examination. During the Renshou years, the number of families in the country reached seven million, the granaries were full and the society was tranquil and economy prosperous.

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隋的建立和发展
The Making of Sui and its Development

南北朝末年，中国经历了长期的南北分裂后，人民普遍渴望统一。但北周和南陈的皇帝都没有统一南北的能力；到了杨坚夺取了北周政权、建立隋朝以后，这一任务才由隋文帝杨坚完成。杨坚出身北周贵族，周宣帝时拜上柱国、大司马。后来周静帝年幼即位，坚为大丞相，总揽军政大权，在平定了河南、湖北、四川的割据势力后，又剪除了宇文氏诸王室，于大定元年(581)代周称帝，建国号隋，是为隋文帝。接着，他开始了统一的军事部署，先与突厥和亲，使东突厥归顺，解除了后顾之忧，然后便安排南下伐陈。文帝以晋王杨广为行军元帅，在安徽前线集结兵力，准备渡江。开皇九年(589)正月，先锋韩擒虎、贺若弼分别从采石、广陵渡江，直取建康，陈军崩溃，陈后主投降。南方各地纷纷归附，文帝出兵后不到四个月，便实现了南北统一。

隋文帝实行了一系列发展经济、恢复生产、巩固统一成果的措施。他加强中央行政机构的领导，设立三省六部；又改地方州郡县三级制为郡县二级制；改革府兵制；重颁均田令；制定新刑律；新铸五铢钱；统一度量衡等。他使用得力的大臣高颎、杨素、牛弘、苏威等，坚持以农为本，兴修水利，使手工业和商业得到恢复发展。文帝又开通广通渠，以便漕运交通，并完善科举制，通过考试选拔人材。仁寿年间，全国户口增到700万户，仓廪充实，社会安定，出现欣欣向荣的景象。



隋的灭亡
The Downfall of the Sui Dynasty

In the 20th year of Kaihuang(600), Emperor Wen deposed Heir-Prince Yang Yong and conferred that title upon his second son Yang Guang who plotted with Yuwen Shu and Yang Su and their clique to usurp the throne. In the 4th year of Renshou(604), Emperor Wen died unexpectedly and Yang Guang

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became Emperor Yang. The new Emperor was rather cruel. He was famous for his ferocity. He killed his four brothers while he only had five and finally killed his father to become the Emperor.

Being an emperor, Emperor Yang abused his power, maltreated his officials and lavished the court's resources. He conscripted large numbers of labourers to work on the Grand Canal and the Great Wall. He built an extremely luxurious "Eastern Capital" with two million labourers working on it for a year. He sent massive force to attack Korea three times, resulting in countless casualties but yielding no success. He traveled about the country and made three inspection tours to Jiangdu. All these made his people extremely miserable and exhausted the state. In the countryside, many people escaped from military service and forced labor. Refugees were found everywhere. The people could not bear his tyranny, Emperor Yang finally was murdered in JingDu and the Sui Dynasty perished.

In the 7th year of Daye(611), a peasant uprising led by Wang Bo broke out in Shandong, which was followed by many others all over the country. Yang Xuangan, an aristocrat, also rose in revolt, which was a sign of split within the ruling class. During the battle with the Sui army, the rebellious peasants gradually fell into three main forces: the Wagang Army in the central of the country led by Li Mi, the Xia Army in the north led by Dou Jiande and the Wu Army in the south led by Du Fuwei. In the 13th year of Daye(617), the Wagang Army attacked the Eastern Capital. At that time, Emperor Yang was journeying south to Jiangdu, with Tong the Prince of Yue staying to defend the Eastern Capital. Li Yuan the governor of Taiyuan, Shanxi, took the opportunity to lead an army into Chang'an and installed You the Prince of Dai as emperor while making himself the Chief Minister. In the 14th year of Daye (618), Yuwen Huaji in Jiangdu staged a mutiny and hanged Emperor Yang. Upon hearing the news, Li Yuan immediately proclaimed himself emperor in Chang'an and established the Tang Dynasty. Almost immediately, the powerful lords rose one after another. In the next few years, the Tang army wiped out the peasant as well as local separatist forces. The whole country was once again unified.

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隋的灭亡
The Downfall of the Sui Dynasty

开皇二十年，文帝废太子杨勇，另立次子杨广。杨广素与宇文述、杨素勾结，建立党羽，阴谋夺位。仁寿四年(604)，文帝暴死，杨广继位，是为隋炀帝。隋炀帝的残暴在历史上也很有名，兄弟五人被他先后杀死了四个，最后杀掉父亲登上了血腥的皇帝之位。

炀帝得志后骄恣无忌，滥用人力财力，挥霍无度。他大规模征发民工，修建南北大运河及长城；大规模兴建东都，穷极华丽，一年间每月役使民工达200万人；又大规模征调军队，三次出征高丽，但均告失利；巡游全国，三下江都。连年征战加上炀帝暴政致使隋朝的国力大大削弱，人民苦不堪言。农村中逃避军役和劳役的人越来越多，流民遍地。由于其横征暴敛，激起民怨沸腾，终于自食恶果被绞死于江都，隋朝宣告灭亡。

大业七年(611)，在山东首先爆发了王薄领导的农民起义，接着各地农民起义风起云涌，贵族出身的杨玄感也起兵反隋，统治阶级内部出现大分裂。起义军在与隋军不断的战斗中，分并离合，形成了三支较强大的力量，即中部李密领导的瓦岗军，北部窦建德领导的夏军和南部杜伏威领导的吴军。大业十三年(617)，瓦岗军进逼东都，这时炀帝已南下江都，以越王侗留守东都。山西太原留守李渊乘机举兵进入长安，立代王侑为帝，自为大丞相。大业十四年(618)三月，宇文化及在江都发动兵变，缢杀炀帝。李渊闻讯，当即在长安自立为帝，建立唐朝。这时各地豪强也纷纷独立，形成群雄并起的局面。此后三四年间，农民起义军和地方割据武装都纷纷被唐朝消灭，唐朝继承隋朝，统一了中国。



隋朝的成就
The Achievements Made in Sui

Sui Dynasty was a transitional dynasty. During the Emperor Wen and the Emperor Yang's earlier governing period, China's politics, economy, military, culture and so on had consolidated and developed. First, in the political

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aspect, Sui readjusted the relation between the central and local government, restored old systems such as three minister, three vice minister and the system of nine-rank. And the Sui Dynasty established three provinces and departments, strengthened the centralization of central authorities. The social system had stabilized by making "The Sui law". Moreover, the government began to use imperial examination which offered a way to Chinese feudalistic society selecting talented persons. In the economy, Emperor Wen ordered to restructure household register, check population, promote land equalization system and adjust to endow services. In addition, because of many years of battle before the Sui Dynasty, there were no standardized monetary system, weights and measures, these greatly influenced market merchandise of trade and circulation. Therefore, after the establishment of Sui Dynasty it forbid to use old money, and unified the "five-*zhu*" coins that conforms to specifications and strictly punished those who privately produced mint coins. In the meantime, it also regulated the standard of the copper and iron ruler nationally. In this way, it created a good condition for the sustainable and steady development of economy.

The excavating of "the Grand Canal" is worth mentioning for it played an important role in the South and the North economy. On the fourth years of KaiHuang (584), the government built "Guang Tong Dike" to lead Wei water to Tongguan for the sake of the instauration agricultural production and expanding canal transport capacity. On the first year of DaYe(605), Emperor Yang ordered to construct "The Grand Canal" which goes through south to north. It is about 4 000 ~ 5 000 *Li*, which is divided into 4 parts, namely the Yongji Channel, Tongji Channel, Han Channel and Jiangnan Channel, with LuoYang as the center. It became the main watercourse between the south and the north with reaching ZhuoJun county in the northeast and Yuhang in the southeast as its ends.

Along with the development of social production, natural science and liberal art the Sui Dynasty also made a substantial progress, such as astronomer Liu Zhuo published his "The Greatest Almanac". He computed the year age only had a minor deviation from that of modern compute. The greatest achievement on the construct engineering was Anji Bridge in Zhao county of Hebei province. The bridge designed by Li Chun was regarded as the earliest bridge in the world. The painting, music, dancing in the Sui Dynasty sprang out and a number of outstanding artists emerged, such as painter, Zhan Ziqian and his picture "*You Chun Tu*" (The picture of outing in Spring)

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In less than thirty years, the Sui Dynasty recovered the relationships with outside world, which were broken by the separation and disunity of the warlords and army commands in the Five Dynasties. The trading through "Silk Road " promoted China and the West communication mutually. In East Asia ambassadors from Xinluo, Baiji and Japan visited the Sui Dynasty frequently. In particular, a number of Japanese monks and students came to study. Emperor Yang Sent Pei Ju to the west to invite merchants from different places to visit and trade in China. Emissaries were also sent to countries such as Zhenla and Chitu in Southeast Asia. China's status and influence in Asia improved a lot during the Sui Dynasty . These made a great foundation to the Tang Dynasty. Along with the improvement of the foreign relations and the development of the exchanges, the geography also had a great development. Emperor Yang ordered to write a book called "Qu Yu Tu Zhi" Atlas of the Sui Dynasty embracing 1200 volumes. This graphic book compliedboth in pictures and articles and occupied high status in graphic development.

There are some similarities between the Sui Dynasty and the Qin in Chinese history. Firstly, they all united China by their strong force and then accomplished a series of reforms, which facilitaed the development of economy. At the same time, they taxed their people so much so that rendered them to resist. As a result, the authority finally collapsed and their regimes died out. On the other hand, owing to the accumulation of country's great resources and wealth, it made a great contribution to the following dynasty, therefore led the followers to their prime time of.



隋朝的成就
The Achievements Made in Sui

隋朝是承前启后的一个朝代，在文帝统治时期和炀帝统治初期，中国的政治、经济、军事、文化等各方面均有所巩固和发展。首先在政治方面，隋朝调整了中央与地方的统治机构，恢复了被废除多年的三师、三公、九卿的旧制，确立了三省六部新制，增强了中央集权统治。通过制定《隋律》稳定了社会秩序。另外，开设了科举制度，为以后中国封建社会人才选拔方式提供了一个蓝本。在经济方面，文帝下令整顿户籍，清查人口，继而推行均田制，调整赋役。另外，由于隋朝以前连年的战乱，各朝没有统一的币制和度量衡，这极大的影响了市场商品的交易

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与流通。因而，隋朝建立以后首先宣布禁用旧钱，统一发行合乎规格的“五铢钱”，严惩私铸钱币。同时，还规定了标准的铜斗铁尺，颁行全国。这样以来，为经济持续稳定地增长创造了良好条件。

值得一提的是大运河的开凿，对南北经济的交流起了很大作用。为了恢复农业生产和加强漕运力量，于开皇四年(584)开“广通渠”引渭水直达潼关。大业元年(605)，隋炀帝下令开通一条贯通南北的大运河。大运河分永济渠、通济渠、邗沟和江南河四段，全长四五千里，以东都洛阳为中心，东北通到涿郡，东南到余杭，成为南北交通的大动脉。

随着社会生产的发展，隋朝的自然科学与人文艺术也有了长足的进步。如著名的天文学家刘焯制订了“皇极历”，他计算的岁差与现代计算出的准确值相差无几。而在工程建筑方面，最突出的成就莫过于河北赵县安济桥的兴建。这座由李春设计的石桥被公认为世界上最早的一座“空撞券桥”。隋代的绘画、音乐、舞蹈等各方面也涌现出一大批杰出的代表人物，如画家展子虔和他的《游春图》等。

在短短三十几年中，隋王朝恢复了几个世纪以来因割据纷乱几乎中断的对外关系。通过“丝绸之路”的商业往来，促进了中国与西亚的相互交流；在东亚，隋与新罗、百济、日本的使者来往频繁，特别是日本有不少的僧人、学生到中国来学习；隋炀帝派裴矩到西域，招引各地商人来参观贸易，还派使者远至东南亚真腊、赤土等国，使隋代中国在亚洲的地位和影响力都得到增强，为后世盛唐打下了一定的基础。随着对外关系的改善和交流的发展，当时的地理学也有了较大的发展。炀帝下令撰写的《区宇图志》共1200卷，是一部图文并茂的全国地理专著，在中国地理学发展史上占有相当重要的地位。

在中国历史上，隋朝与秦朝相比，有许多相似之处。首先，隋与秦都是凭借强大的武力统一分裂多年的中国，而紧接着完成一系列改革，使经济得以发展。与此同时，又对人民大施徭役，致使民不聊生，终于使政权毁于一旦，短命而亡。然而，也正是凭借此时国家对物资财富丰盈的积累，为后世的发展创造了良好的物质条件。从而带来了隋之后，中华民族引以为骄傲的盛唐文化。

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Chapter 13 唐朝 Tang Dynasty



唐的创建和发展 The Founding of Tang and its Development

In 618, Li Yuan established the Tang Dynasty after the fall of the Sui Dynasty, and the Tang Dynasty lasted for 289 years till 907, when Zhu Wen destroyed it. Usually, the Tang Dynasty is divided into two periods by historians, namely the early stage or prosperous stage, and the later stage or declining stage, with the "An-and-Shi Rebellion" as their dividing line. It was Li Yuan, Emperor Tang Gaozu who established the Tang Dynasty, but it was his son, Li Shimin, Emperor Tang Taizong who spent 10 years unifying the whole country by fighting wars. Li Shimin ascended the throne upon the "Xuanwu Gate Coup D'Amato". During his reign, he devoted all his efforts to make the country prosperous, that the famous period "Zhenguan Times of Peace", when politics, economy and culture, etc. achieved great success ranked the leading status in the world. Afterwards, during the period of Emperor Tang Xuanzong, the country was strong and the common people were wealthy, the peaceful period went forth again, that's "Kaiyuan Flourishing Age". However, it was also during the reign of Emperor Tang Xuanzong, the "An-and-Shi Rebellion" broke out, thus drove the Tang Dynasty towards decline and fall. In the late period of the Tang Dynasty, the state was in anarchy, from "Party Struggles between Niu and Li " to "Eunuch Grabbing All the Powers", while farmers' revolts emerging from time to time. At last, Huang Chao Revolt burst out. Zhu Wen, one of its leaders replaced the Tang Dynasty with the Post-Liang,

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the first dynasty of the Five Dynasties Period.

The Tang Dynasty is one of the most splendid dynasties in the Chinese history. With its puissant national power, prosperous economy and glorious culture, it reached the height of Chinese feudal society. As the strongest and most advanced country, its high civilization influenced Japan, Korea and many other countries and areas.

The Tang Dynasty experienced 289 years and 20 emperors (including 16 years when Wu Zetian replaced the Tang with the Zhou), Together with the Han Dynasty, it was considered as the strongest and most prosperous dynasty in Chinese history. At its prime time, the Tang territory extended to Andong Prefecture (now Pyongyang in Korea) in the east, the Anxi Prefecture (now kuche in Xinjiang) in the west, the Rinan Prefecture(now Qinghua in Vietnam) in the south and the Anbei Prefecture(now Halahelin in Inner Mongolia) in the north. After the Revolts of An Lushan and Shi Siming, Hexi and Longyou were conquered by the Turfan and not recovered until the reign of Dazhong (847 ~ 860) and the reign of Xiantong (860 ~ 874). During the early stage of the Tang Dynasty, from Emperor Tang Taizong to Kaiyuan reign of Emperor Tang Xuanzong, the country kept developing rapidly, its economy, politics, military, foreign affairs and culture, etc. reached all-time prosperity. The "Zhenguan Times of Peace" and "Kaiyuan Flourishing Age" structured the "Tang Flourishing Atmosphere" which gave all Chinese people matchless pride and made China distinct in the world. The "An and Shi Rebellion" appeared during the late period of Emperor Tang Xuanzong's reign, made the Tang Dynasty begin to decline. In the middle and late stage of Tang Dynasty, the emperors lost their power in economy, politics and military affairs. Eventually, vassal states broke away from the rule of the Tang Dynasty to set up separatist regimes one after another.

In 617, the late stage of the Sui Dynasty, when the peasants' revolts were flourished, Li Yuan raised troops in Taiyuan. At that time, the Wagang Troop and Hebei peasants Troop were fighting bravely in central plains; their fighting held down a great deal army corps of the Sui Dynasty, thus the defending forces in Chang'an, the capital and the nearby areas were very weak. In the autumn, Li Yuan led 30 000 soldiers to leave Taiyuan for Guanzhong. In the end of the year, Li Yuan captured Chang'an, and kinged the Sui prince Yang You as the puppet emperor. In 618, Emperor Yang of Sui was killed; Li Yuan dethroned Yang You and made himself the emperor, namely, emperor Tang Gaozu. Li Yuan and his son Li

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Shimin wiped out separate forces everywhere, suppressed peasants revolting armies and eventually unified the whole country.

During the process of establishing the Tang Dynasty, Li Yuan's second son, Li Shimin's contribution was greatest, but the eldest son, Li Jiancheng was selected as the crown prince. In order to consolidate his position as the heir of emperor, Li Jiancheng hooked in his forth younger brother. Li Yuanji to cope with Li Shimin. Thus the conflict between them grew in intensity. In 626(the ninth year of Wude), Li Shimin anticipated Li Jiancheng and Li Yuanji by laying an ambush at the Xuanwu Gate and shooting them, thus his rivals were perished. The event was called the "Xuanwu Gate Coup D'Amato" in history. Shortly afterwards, Li Yuan gave up the throne to Li Shimin, who is the historically famous Emperor Tang Taizong, and the title of his reign is Zhenguan. In Zhenguan period, the Tang Dynasty came to be strong. The fact that the Sui Dynasty was overthrown by farmers' revolts impressed Li Shimin deeply. After being an emperor, he often summed up the historic lessons from the perish of the Sui with his officials. He always said, "The emperor is just like a boat, while the common people like water; water can carry the boat, and it also can overturn the boat." In order to avoid the disaster of "overturning the boat", he aroused all his efforts to make the country prosperous. He took much account of selecting officials, thus the important officials around him, such as Fang Xuanling, Wei Zheng, Li Jing, Wen Yanbo, Dai Zhou, etc. all were elites of the time with their own strong points. At the beginning of his reign, the society and economy suffered serious destroy, the masses had no means to live. However, only a few years later, The situation changed, according to the history record, "There appeared bumper harvest throughout the country, outcasts all returned their hometown. The price of 10 litres rice was only 0.3 ~ 0.4 *liang*. The number of criminals sentenced to death was only 29 in one year. From as far as the sea in the east to the Five Ridges in the south, all the common families needed not bolt their doors at night.".

In the second year of his reign, Emperor Tang Taizong appointed General Li Jing, the minister of Department of War to crusade against the Turkis and won completely, hence eliminated the threat from the Western Regions. Meanwhile, Taizong adopted many political measures to maintain the unification and to strengthen centralized emperor rule. Under his rule, with a series of political, economic, cultural and educational reforms, the great Tang Empire flourished unparalleled. The period was called "Zhenguan Times of Peace(namely, the golden age

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of the Tang)" in history and became the time which was yearned towards by later ages.



唐的创建和发展
The Founding of Tang and its Development

从公元618年唐朝建立到907年被朱温灭掉，大唐王朝共存在了289年。唐朝一般分为两个时期，即前期和后期，中间以安史之乱为界限，前期是昌盛期，后期则是衰亡期。建立唐朝的是唐高祖，唐太宗李世民领兵用十年时间完成统一大业。玄武门之变，李世民登位。他经过励精图治，使唐朝在中国封建社会空前繁荣，出现了"贞观之治"，在政治、经济、文化等各方面都居于当时世界领先地位。此后的唐玄宗时期又出现了"开元盛世"，国强民富，升平之世再次出现，但唐玄宗时期，发生了安史之乱，从此唐朝走向了衰亡。唐朝后期政治混乱，从牛、李党争到宦官专权，其间农民起义不断发生，终于爆发了大规模的黄巢起义，起义领袖之一朱温开始叛降唐朝，后又取代唐朝自立为帝，建立了五代的第一个王朝——后梁。

唐朝是中国历史上最为辉煌的一个王朝，其国力强盛，经济繁荣，文化灿烂，达到了中国封建社会发展史上的最高峰。它的高度文明影响了日本、朝鲜等许多国家和地区，是当时世界上最强大、最先进的国家。

唐共传二十二帝，历国289年(其间有武则天改唐为周16年)，其与汉朝并称为中国历史上两大强盛王朝。其盛时疆域东至安东府(今朝鲜平壤)，西至安西府(今新疆库车)，南至日南郡(今越南清化)，北至安北府(今蒙古哈拉和林)。安史之乱后，河西、陇右陷于吐蕃，至大中(847～860)、咸通(860～874)始复。唐王朝的前期，由唐太宗李世民至玄宗开元年间国家一直处于大发展阶段，经济、政治、军事、外交、文化等方面都空前繁荣。在此期间出现的"贞观之治"、"开元盛世"构成了中华民族引以骄傲的盛唐气象。从而，使中国的世界地位显赫一时。唐玄宗后期出现的安史之乱，使唐王朝逐渐没落。在中晚唐时期，皇帝在经济、政治、军事上已无实权，致使藩镇割据局面形成。最后，各方纷纷脱离唐王朝的统治而成立各自独立的政权。

公元617年，隋末农民起义蓬勃发展时，李渊在太原起兵。这时瓦岗军和河北农民军正在中原地区奋战，牵制了大量隋军，隋京都长安地区的防守力量很薄弱。

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这年秋天，李渊率三万人由太原出发，向关中进军。年底，李渊攻克长安，立隋朝代王杨侑为傀儡皇帝。公元618年，隋炀帝被杀，李渊废杨侑，在长安称帝，是为唐高祖。李渊和他的儿子李世民消灭了各地割据势力，镇压了各股农民起义军，统一了全国。

唐高祖李渊建立唐朝，次子李世民功不可没，但长子李建成被立为太子。李建成为了巩固自己的地位，遂拉拢四弟李元吉共同对付李世民，双方矛盾愈演愈烈。公元626年（武德九年），李世民先发制人，在皇宫的玄武门设下埋伏，射杀李建成和李元吉，消灭了对手，史称“玄武门之变”。此后不久，李渊就把帝位让给了李世民，史称唐太宗，年号贞观（627～649）。贞观年间，唐朝强大起来。隋末农民战争推翻隋王朝的事实，给李世民留下深刻的印象。称帝后，经常和臣下总结前朝灭亡的历史教训。他常说：人君好比舟，人民好比水；水能载舟，也能覆舟。为了避免“覆舟”之祸，他勤于政事，励精图治。唐太宗很重视选官用人，他左右掌权的大臣，如房玄龄、魏征、李靖、温彦博及戴胄等人各有所长，都是一时之俊。唐太宗即位之初，社会经济遭到严重破坏，民不聊生。几年之后，据史书载：天下大稔，流散者咸归乡里，斗米不过三四钱，终岁断死刑才29人。东至于海，南极五岭，皆外户不闭。

贞观二年，太宗命兵部尚书大将李靖讨伐突厥，大获全胜，从此消除了西域各族对中原的威胁。与此同时，太宗采取了许多有利于维护统一和加强君主专治中央集权的政治措施。在其统治下，通过一系列的政治、经济、文教等方面的改革，大唐帝国空前繁荣，史称“贞观之治”，也成为后世向往的理想时代。



武周革命
Empress Wu Zetian

In April, 649, Taizong passed away, his son Li Zhi ascended the throne that is Emperor Tang Gaozong, and the title of his reign is Yonghui. Gaozong kept on carrying out Taizong's "methods of managing state affairs", so in Yonghui period, there still retained the reliquary of Zhenguan period. In 655, Gaozong made Wu Zetian his queen, whose father was ever a timber businessman and an important official in the early Tang Dynasty. Wu Zetian was shrewd and tactful, and also an expert in literature and history. Because of eye disease, Li Zhi could not read well, he often made Wu his assistant in verdict the government affairs. In 683, Emperor Tang Gaozong died in bed; the throne prince Li Xian

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(Wu's third son) became the new emperor, that's Tang Zhongzong. The next year, Wu Zetian dethroned him as King of Luling, made Li Dan (her fourth son) the emperor, that's Tang Ruizong, but uncrowned him soon.

In 690, Wu Zetian declared to change the Tang into the Zhou Dynasty, made Luoyang the deity capital, Tang Ruizong the royal heir, herself the Empress. The historical event was referred as "Wu Zhou Revolution" in history. Wu Zetian is the only empress in Chinese history.

During her reign, the politics, economy kept developing progressively. But in the late period of her reign, she specially trusted crafty and fawning officials which caused the dissatisfaction of her ministers. In 705, she was seriously ill, Prime Minister Zhang Jianzhi and other ministers came into contact with General Li Duozuo of right armed escorts to launch a place coup, forcing Wu passed the imperial throne to Tang Zhongzong Li Xian, thus the Tang Dynasty was recovered. Thereby, the history that empress ruled came to an end after 15 years.

Because Li Xian was mediocre and incompetent, his queen Empress Wei and his daughter Princess Anle forcibly occupied the power and played politics. Li Longji, Li Dan's son born down Empress Wei's gang and ascended the throne, that's Emperor Tang Xuanzong, the title of his reign was Kaiyuan. Xuanzong was another enlightened emperor after Li Shimin in the Tang Dynasty. During the Kaiyuan period, he made great effort to develop the country, attached great importance to the selection of officials, examined the reposting county magistrates in person. He appointed talented Yao Chong and Song Jing as his chief ministers, reformed the government system and military system. Meantime, he effectively developed economy, reformed tax system, started irrigation construction. With these efforts, the feudal Chinese society presented unprecedented flourishing atmosphere, reaching the peak of feudal Chinese society. So far, China reached the height of power and splendour among her contemporary empires. This period was "Kaiyuan Flourishing Age" in history.

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武周革命
Empress Wu Zetian

贞观二十三年(649)四月,太宗驾崩。唐高宗李治即位,年号永徽。他依然执行唐太宗的"治国之道",故唐永徽年间仍有贞观遗风。高宗于永徽六年(655 年)立武则天为皇后,其父曾为木材商人、唐初大臣。武则天精明机智,通文史。唐高宗因患风眩,目不能视,使武则天协助裁决政事。公元 683 年(弘道元年),唐高宗病死,太子李显(武则天第三子)即位,是为唐中宗。次年,武则天废中宗为庐陵王,另立李旦(武则天第四子)为皇帝,是为唐睿宗,旋即废黜。

公元 690 年(天授元年),武则天宣布改唐为周,以洛阳为神都,降唐睿宗为皇嗣,自称皇帝,史称"武周革命"。武则天是中国历史上仅有的一个女皇帝。

武则天在位期间,将唐朝的政治、经济的发展又向前推进了一步。但执政末期,她宠信佞臣,深为大臣不满,到公元 705 年(神龙元年)她 82 岁时得了重病,宰相张柬之等人联络右羽林卫大将军李多祚发动政变,强迫武则天传帝位给唐中宗李显,复唐国号,武则天共做了 16 年皇帝。

中宗李显庸懦无能,致使皇后韦氏与安乐公主弄权,李旦之子李隆基击败了韦后而即位,改国号开元,是为唐玄宗。玄宗是唐代继李世民之后又一位开明国君。开元年间,玄宗励精图治,重视官员的人选,亲自考核新任命的县令。他任用了有才干的姚崇、宋景做宰相,改革官制和兵制,与此同时大力发展经济,改革税制,兴修水利,中国封建社会呈现前所未有的盛世景象,达到了中国封建社会的最高峰。至此,中国在世界同时代的国家中已成为鼎盛帝国,史称"开元盛世"。



安史之乱和唐的衰败
An-and-Shi Rebellion and the Downturn of the Tang

In the late stage of his reign, Tang Xuanzong paid no attention to state affairs, so the government decayed, treacherous court officials were in

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power, and thus instigated the "An-and-Shi Rebellion" in 755. An Lushan was born of mixed Hu people in Yingzhou, because that he cruelly suppressed the Xi and Khitan people, he got Tang Xuanzong appreciation and was appointed the governor of Pinglu, Fanyang and Hedong. An Lushan, engaged in national plunder wars for long, had been to Chang'an, the capital for many times. And by attending royal and official activities, he knew the corrupted and weak government like the palm of his hand, so he stored up the disloyalty of rising in revolt to overthrow the Tang Dynasty. Shi Siming, An's cohort, was also born of mixed Hu people. He went to Chang'an to report to the throne, thus gained the favor of Xuanzong who gave the name "Siming" to him. Before An's rebellion, Shi was official of Pinglu military forces.

In 755, by the name of "sending armed forces to suppress Yang Guozhong on imperial's secret order", they rose in revolt in Fanyang. Leading 150 000 soldiers of Pinglu, Fanyang and Hedong, they started from Fan yang and moved towards south to attack the Tang Dynasty. Tang Xuanzong who never called to mind that An Lushan would betray him made nothing in preparation. The newly recruited soldiers were unable to keep out An's powerful force, so An bridged Huanghe, defeated the Tang armies in succession, captured Chenliu(present Chenliu in Kaifeng Prefecture, Henan), Xingyang(present Xingyang, Henan), and Luoyang, till closed in on Tongguan Pass. In 756, An Lushan kinged himself the Emperor of Great Yan. Emperor Tang Daizong assembled military forces from all directions, and borrowed some armies from Huihu nationality. These military forces led by Li Shi (Daizong's son) and Pugu Huai'en reoccupied Luoyang, Heyang, Zhengzhou, Bianzhou and other places. In 763, the 7-year "An and Shi Rebellion" came to an end.

Henceforward, the Tang Dynasty began to decline. Agriculture was seriously destroyed, then vassal states set up separatist regimes by force, eunuchs grabbed all the powers, parties contended for power and profits, the political situation of Tang was in great turmoil. The economy also suffered heavy losses, most tillable fields were annexed, and the farmers were compelled to escape all around. All of these advent situation invited farmers' revolts. In 876, the farmers' uprising led by Wang Xianzhi and Huang Chao broke out. It was defeated in 884, however, the Tang Dynasty also collapsed out. In 904, Zhu Wen moved the capital to Luoyang, and three years later, he disthroned Emperor Tang Aidi, established Post-Liang Dynasty, thus the Tang Dynasty came to an end.

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安史之乱和唐的衰败
An-and-Shi Rebellion and the Downturn of the Tang

唐玄宗后期，不理朝政，政治腐败，奸臣当道，酿成了公元755年开始的安史之乱。安禄山出身于营州杂胡。他因为残酷地镇压奚、契丹人，得到了唐玄宗的赏识，先后出任平卢、范阳、河东三镇节度使。长期从事民族掠夺战争的安禄山野心极大，他多次到长安，在宫廷和官场活动中，对唐政府腐败、虚弱的情况了解得很清楚，蓄下了起兵灭唐的异志。安禄山的同伙史思明，也是杂胡出身。他到长安奏事，博得了玄宗的喜欢，赐名为思明。在安禄山叛乱以前，史思明官至平卢兵马使。

史思明、安禄山于公元755年（天宝十四年）冬以奉密旨讨杨国忠为名，在范阳起兵，率平卢、范阳、河东三镇兵15万人，南下攻唐。唐玄宗没有想到安禄山会叛乱，所以在军事上毫无准备。唐朝新招来的士兵抵挡不住安禄山的劲旅，安禄山渡过黄河后，连败唐军，一路攻陷陈留（现河南开封地区陈留）、荥阳（河南荥阳）、洛阳，直抵潼关。公元756年（至德元年），安禄山在洛阳称大燕皇帝。代宗调集各路兵马，又向回纥借到一部分军队，以其子李适为天下兵马元帅，仆固怀恩为副元帅，率军收复了洛阳、河阳、郑州、汴州等失地。公元763年（广德元年）初，历时七年多的安史之乱至此结束。

自此，唐朝衰落下去。安史之乱使农业生产受到极大破坏，接着又有藩镇割据、宦官专权和朋党之争，使唐朝政局更为混乱。经济也遭到了极大的破坏，土地兼并十分严重，农民四处逃亡。公元876年，导致了王仙芝、黄巢领导的唐末农民大起义。起义在884年失败，但唐王朝亦由此瓦解。天佑元年（904），朱温迁唐都于洛阳。至四年，朱温废哀帝，建立后梁，大唐灭亡。



唐的成就
Grand Achievement of the Tang Dynasty

The Tang was the most brilliant dynasty in Chinese history, it's also China's second golden age after Han. Tang accomplished splendid a-

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chievements in the areas of politics, economy, military affairs, culture, and foreign relations. Its especially important position in Chinese history may be summarized as follows:

First, it was a second peak of development in Chinese history. In Chinese history, the development of economy, politics and culture peaked three times after the Warring States Period. The first peak appeared in the Western Han Dynasty, the second in the Tang, and the third in the Ming and Qing dynasties. The second period of development, especially the early years of the Tang Dynasty, saw ever rising agricultural production, increasingly fined handicrafts, a prosperous commodity economy, and vigorous urban life. In the late Tang, areas in the south of the Yangtze River developed further, which laid a foundation for the economy of the south to overtake the north. The peaceful and stable periods of Zhenguan and Kaiyuan administrations exceeded even that of Emperors Wen and Jing of the Western Han. The reign of Emperor Xuan Zong was the pinnacle of Tang culture and the thriving scene permeated all aspects of the arts-literature, in particular, reached new heights.

The early stage of Tang witnessed the booming of liberal arts and a large scale of prominent artists were sprouted in such as fields of poem, writing and painting. The renowed are "the four elites of the early Tang" (Wang Bo, Luo Binway, Yang Jiong and Lu Zhaoling), the pastoral poet Wang Wei (699 ~ 759) and the "immortal poet" Li Bai((707 ~ 762) etc. In addition, the well-known representative artists are the "Sage painter" Wu Daozi, Li Sixun; the celebrated musician Li Guinian etc.

Without disturbance from both inside and outside, the economy in early Tang grew unprecedently. From the period of Zhenguan to Kaiyuan, the population, lands and food production exceeded to its previous dynasties. People enjoyed their contented and comfortable life. All these achievements laid a solid base for future growth of handicraft industry.

From an international point of view, China under the Tang was one of the strongest and most important empires in the world. At that time, the Franks and the Byzantine empires were the two most powerful regimes in Europe. But they were far surpassed by the Tang in social and economic development. In the east, there was India and Japan. India had just established its feudal system when King Jieri reunified the subcontinent. But after his death the country fell again into disunity, which lasted until the end of the 12th century. The Japanese "Grand Reform", though trying hard to imitate the Tang policies and systems, was nothing but a

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transition from slavery to feudalism. Therefore, in the world-wide range, the Tang Dynasty stands by itself not only as an powerful nation but also the most developed one.

Secondly, the Tang Dynasty played an important role in unifying the many ethnic groups within its borders. Although the Sui Dynasty achieved reunification it only lasted a short time. As a result, it was up to the Tang rulers to consolidate and bring into its culture new influences from its many peoples. The Tang lasted nearly three hundred years. In its early years, it enjoyed harmonious unification, powerful national strength, and vast territories. Its advanced civilization attracted neighboring peoples who quickly adopted many of its practices. These people frequently intermingled, allowing a closer understanding of each other's cultures. Therefore, the Tang is regarded, along with the Han Dynasty an important period in the development of a unified and multi-racial country.

Thirdly, it facilitated the interaction between China and the world. its advanced civilization made the Tang Empire the envy of Asia, Europe and Africa, who frequently sent envoys and merchants. The Tang Empire thus became a centre of economic and cultural communication in Asian countries and played a pivotal role in communication between the East and the West. Of the three main cultural centres in the world at that time, India, Arabia, and China, the latter was the most important one. Therefore, the Tang Dynasty was another significant stage after Han in that the economic and cultural communication was brought to another pear in the world.

Fourth, Tang is an important period in history because it was a transitional stage from the early feudal to the late feudal system. During this period, various systems underwent frequent and all-round reforms. Therefore, many things that appeared in the Tang Dynasty had long-lasting influence on history for more than a thousand years. For example, the "two taxes" system of the Song Dynasty, the "single whip method of taxation" of the Ming Dynasty were originated from the Tang's taxation system. The philosophical thoughts of Han Yu and Liu Zongyuan in the mid-Tang laid a foundation for Neo-Confucianism in the Song and Ming dynasties. The influence of the classicist prose writing advocated by Han Yu and Liu Zongyuan continued through the Song Dynasty until the eve of the Vernacular (baihua) Movement during the May Fourth Movement.) Clearly, the two hundred years from the mid-Tang to the establishment of the Northern Song saw drastic changes in Chinese society.

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To sum up, the Tang was the greatest dynasty after the Han for its prosperous economy, vigorous culture, powerful strength, and high international status. It was remembered as "the strong Han and flourish Tang" in Chinese history. Developments in the late Tang served as a forerunner for future events that profoundly influenced China. The Tang Dynasty fully deserved the "the greatest time" in the history of Chinese people.



唐的成就
Grand Achievement of the Tang Dynasty

唐朝是中国历史上最为辉煌的朝代，是中国继汉代之后的第二个黄金时期。唐代时，中国在政治、经济、军事、文化、中外关系等各个方面都取得了辉煌的成就。唐朝在中国历史上的特殊重要地位可以从以下几个方面来认识：

首先，中国历史自战国以来，社会经济、政治、文化等在发展过程中出现过三次高潮，即三次鼎盛局面：第一次在西汉，第二次在唐代，第三次在明清。在第二次高潮中，尤其是唐朝前期，农业生产蒸蒸日上，手工艺品日益精巧，商品经济空前繁荣，城市生活繁华似锦。唐朝后期，江南经济进一步发展，为以后南方经济水平超越北方奠定了基础。当时在政治上，先后出现了"贞观之治"和"开元之治"，国家统一，社会安定，呈现一派升平景象，其成就超越西汉的"文景之治"。唐玄宗统治时期，鼎盛局面达到了高峰，甚至在文坛上也出现了"盛唐气象"。

唐朝前期的人文艺术发展迅速。诗、书、画各方面大批名家涌现。其中包括"初唐四杰"、"田园山水派"的代表王维(699～759)；"边塞派"诗人岑参(715～770)以及素有"诗仙"之称的唐代大诗人李白(707～762)等等。此外，还有令人熟知的"画圣"吴道子，李思训，大音乐家李龟年，都是盛唐气象的代表。

唐朝前期由于没有内忧外患，其经济得到了空前的发展。自贞观至开元年间，唐朝的人口、土地和粮食产量都大大超过了前朝。人民安居乐业，丰衣足食。这也为之后大力发展手工业提供了有力的保障。

总体比较，就当时的世界范围来看，唐帝国也是最重要、最强盛的国家之一。欧洲的封建强国主要有法兰克王国和拜占庭帝国，但就社会发展阶段而言，他们都远远落后于唐朝。东方重要的国家有印度和日本。印度戒日王重新统一次大陆刚

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刚确立了封建制，可他死后次大陆随即分崩离析，割据局面一直持续到12世纪末。日本的“大化革新”虽然尽量模仿唐朝的制度，但改革本身却具有由奴隶制向封建制过渡的性质。所以，在世界范围内，唐朝不但能够自立于世界民族之林，而且属于最先进的行列。

其次，唐代在中国多民族国家的发展壮大中也具有重要的历史地位。中国社会经过魏晋南北朝的民族融合和文化整合，到隋朝重新实现了政治统一。但隋朝毕竟太短，中华民族新的统一体的巩固和发展，中国新文化的形成和繁盛，就成了李唐王朝的历史任务。唐历时近300年，前期统一，国力强盛，疆域辽阔。高度的物质文明和高水平的文化使周边各族增强了向心力，于是国内各民族间的接触和交往空前发展，民族关系进一步密切。因此，唐代是继汉代之后，中国统一的多民族国家壮大、发展的又一重要历史阶段。

第三，唐帝国崇高的国际地位和辉煌的经济文化成就，使亚洲各国乃至欧洲、非洲国家对其产生了由衷的欣羡之情，他们争相与唐朝交往，遂使中国成为亚洲诸国经济文化交流的桥梁和中心，在东西方交往中发挥了显著重要的作用。在当时的世界中，文化交流中心主要有印度、阿拉伯和唐朝中国，其中又以唐朝地位最为突出。唐代是继汉代之后，中国历史上中外经济文化交流的又一高峰期，具有特别重要的地位。

第四，唐朝正处于中国古代社会由前期向后期发生转折的关键时期，从这个意义上说，唐朝也具有重要的历史地位。与此相应是各项制度不断的、全面的变革更新。唐朝后期出现的很多萌芽状态的新事物，对此后千余年的历史发展产生了深远的影响。例如：宋时的“两税法”和明朝时的单税法都来自于唐朝的赋税制度。中唐时期韩愈和柳宗元的思想为宋和明朝时的“新儒家”思想奠定了基础。由韩愈和柳宗元提倡的散文写作方法，传至宋直到五四运动前的白话文运动。从唐中叶开始到北宋建立，200年间酝酿了中国古代社会的重大变化，许多新事物都萌发产生于唐代。

总之，唐朝经济发达、文化繁荣、国力强盛，国际地位超越往古，是中国历史上继汉代之后出现的又一鼎盛局面，史称“强汉盛唐”；唐朝后期的发展又为中国古代社会的巨大变革开了先河。唐代当之无愧是中华民族历史上最光辉灿烂的伟大时代！

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Chapter 14 五代十国 Five Dynasties and Ten States

Five Dynasties and Ten States: Five Dynasties (907 ~ 960) are Later Liang (907 ~ 923), Later Tang (923 ~ 936), Later Jin (936 ~ 946), Later Han (947 ~ 950), and Later Zhou (951 ~ 960); Ten States (902 ~ 979) are Northern Han (951 ~ 979), Wu (902 ~ 937), Southern Tang (937 ~ 975), Wu Yue (907 ~ 978), Min (909 ~ 945), Southern Han (917 ~ 971), Chu (927 ~ 951), Jingnan (also Nanping) (924 ~ 963), Former Shu (907 ~ 925), and Later Shu (934 ~ 965)

In the 54 years, from 907 when Emperor Ai of the Tang Dynasty lost his throne to the year of 960 when the Northern Song was established, there were five successive dynasties in the Central Plains. They were the Liang, the Tang, the Jin, the Han, and the Zhou, which are known as the Later Liang, the Later Tang, the Later Jin, the Later Han, and the Later Zhou. Accompanying with these regimes, ten states also appeared in the south in the same period: the Former Shu, the Later Shu, the Wu, the Southern Tang, the Wuyue, the Min, the Chu, the Southern Han, the Nanping (i. e. Jingnan) and the Northern Han. This period became known as the Five Dynasties and Ten States in Chinese history. The Five Dynasties are the officially recognized dynasties of the north; the north was continually ravaged by warfare during this time as they were attacked time and again by the Khitans and the Turks. Conversely, the south enjoyed a time of peace, economic prosperity, and cultural growth. The leaders of the southern kingdoms were often the military governors of the Tang Dynasty.

The Five Dynasties and Ten States experienced great chaos and havoc in that there were tyrannies and cruel officials to torture their people, besides the constant wars and taxes. Such famous cities as Chang'an and Luoyang were repeatedly wrecked, thus people also referred this period as "Wu Ji" (five declining seasons), namely, the worst and last stage among all the feudal dynasties in history. No wonder Ouyang Xiu always began his writing of *The New History of Five Dynasties* with grave exclamation and he was not blamed to be affected given that the most

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bloody punishment to the prisoner, *Ling chi* (to kill a person by dismembering his body) was invented and put to use in that time. However, this was a transforming period in which the separated states would gear to unity because Cai Rong of Later Zhou endeavored to unite the north with almost ten years which laid the foundation for the coming unification of Song. There were other achievements like the gunpowder, printing and *Ci*, a genre of poem.

This was also an important period in the history of Chinese culture. In publishing history, the *Nine Classics* produced between the 3rd year of Changxing(932) in the Later Tang to the 3rd year of Guangshun (953) in the Later Zhou was China's first Nine Classics published by the Imperial Academy. It became the prototype of all such editions published thereafter in China. It took 20 years to complete despite political changes, revealing the high respect for traditional culture existed at this time. Noted scholars published many other classics with annotation and commentary. Liu Xu and others in the Later Jin completed the History of the Tang(200 *juan* or volumes), which became the history of the Later Tang in *the Twenty-Four Histories*. Well-known poets of this period include Luo Ying of the Wuyue, Wei Zhuang and Ouyang Jiong of the Western Shu, and Feng Yanji, Emperors Li Jing and Li Yü of the Southern Tang. Their poetic works not only were themselves refined pieces of literature, but also started a lyrical tradition which anticipated the Song *Ci* (lyrics). In the area of painting, Gu Hongzhong's the *Evening Feasting Held by Han Xizai*, created during the Southern Tang, is a much treasured piece of art in this period.

五代十国，五代（907～960）：后梁（907～923），后唐（923～936），后晋（936～946），后汉（947～950），后周（951～960）；十国（902～979）：北汉（951～979），吴（902～937），南唐（937～975），吴越（907～978），闽（909～945），南汉（917～971），楚（927～951），荆南（又称“南平”）（924～963），前蜀（907～925），后蜀（934～965）。

从907年唐朝最后一个皇帝唐哀帝被杀，大唐帝国灭亡之后，到公元960年北宋建立，短短的54年间，中原相继出现了梁、唐、晋、汉、周五个朝代，史称后梁、后唐、后晋、后汉、后周。同时，在这五朝之外，还相继出现了前蜀、后蜀、吴、南唐、吴越、闽、楚、南汉、南平（即荆南）和北汉十个割据政权，这就是中国历史上的“五代十国”。五代存在于北方，一直经受着战乱和契丹及塔塔儿等外族的侵扰。相反，南方的十国处于一个和平安静的时期，经济和文化都有了一定的发展。南方的统治者大多是唐朝时的军事统领。

五代十国是个严重混乱破坏时期，上有暴君，下有酷吏，再加上常年战争征赋

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不断，名都长安和洛阳都曾被毁，所以前人把五代称为“五季”，也就是末代，最差的意思。欧阳修在他写的《新五代史》里常用呜呼开头，这并不是他装腔作势，不说其它，单后来的残酷刑罚“凌迟”（即千刀万剐）就是在五代乱世出现的。但这时期又是走向统一安定的时期，后周柴荣十年统一战争为北宋统一北方奠定了基础，其它方面，如火药、印刷术的发展，词的出现，也是有所成就的。

这一时期也是中华文明的重要时期。在出版方面，晚唐长兴三年（932）到后周广顺三年（953）出版的《九经》是第一部由御书房出版的书籍，后来的出版物都以此为摹本。尽管多年时局动荡，这本书却花了20年，反映了对当时传统文化的尊重。许多著名的学者著书立说，后晋的刘昫完成了长达200卷的《旧唐史》，这部书后来成为《二十四史》中后唐史的一部分。著名的诗人有吴越的罗隐、西蜀的韦庄和欧阳炯、冯彦几还有南唐的李景和李煜，他们的诗不仅具有文学价值，其抒情题材对后来的宋词有很大影响。在绘画方面，顾闳中创作于南唐时期的《韩熙载夜宴图》就是当时的极品。



北方的五代
Five Dynasties in the North

The founders of these entities were all frontier commanders of their former states. Because they gained their power through military separatism, frequent warfare and changes of administration marked the period. Of the five dynasties, the Later Liang, the longest one, lasted only 17 years. Then came the Later Tang which lasted 14 years and the Later Jin which lasted 11 years; while the Later Han existed for only 4 years and the Later Zhou 9 years. There were struggles for power all throughout the period. For example, Zhu Wen (Taizu), the first emperor of the Later Liang, was murdered by his second son Zhu Yougui after only five years on the throne. Zhu Yougui, shortly after having taken power, was murdered by his younger brother Zhu Youzhen. In the Later Tang, Li Congrong, Emperor Mingzong's son, rose to seize power, but ended up losing his own life. After the death of Emperor Mingzong, his cousin, Li Conghou succeeded to the throne, but was deposed only one year later by Li Congke, the adopted son of Emperor Mingzong. These series of murder brought nothing but suffering and disaster to the

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people.

The Later Liang: Liang was founded by Zhu Wen, a traitor of uprising peasants and a garrison commander of the preceding dynasty. After having succeeded in removing the separate military regimes and unified the Yellow River Valley, Zhu deposed Emperor Ai of the Tang, took Kaifeng as capital and established Liang, which was called the Later Liang. After became an emperor, Liang Taizu, Zhu Wen continued his war with Li Keyong, a warlord and a noble clan of Shatuo nationality for the last say in the north. The wars did not yield with harvest and the separation remained. In 912, Emperor Zhu Wen was killed by his son and the situation grew more shaking, which invited the downfall from the Later Tang. In all, the Later Liang lasted 17 years.

The Later Tang: In April 923, Li Cunxu, son of Li Keyong ascended the throne. He was called Emperor Zhuang, his regime named Tang. In October, Emperor Zhuang defeated the Later Liang and named Luoyang as capital. His administration was referred as the Later Tang. In 926, the military coup was broken out in Weizhou (now southeast of Da Ming, Hebei) and Emperor Zhuang was killed by a flying arrow. Li Siyuan, known as Emperor of Ming, the adopted son of Li Keyong came to Luoyang and succeeded the throne. He carried out reforms and discarded some unreasonable practice which created a peaceful time in his seven-year-reign. During this period, there was harvest of the grain and people were blessed to enjoy their life temporarily. However, the rulers of the Later Tang waged war to murder each other after the death of Emperor of Ming. Short after, the Later Tang was destroyed by Later Jin after 14 years of ruling.

The Later Jin: In 936, the garrison command of the later Tang, Shi Jingtang (Shatuo origin) bought assists from Liao at the expense of ceding the sixteen cities of Yanyun (now the northern parts of Hebei and Shanxi and some area of inner Mongolia), of paying 30 000 *pi* of silk annually and admitting the subordinate position of his kingdom by accepting Yelü Deguang ,the ruler of Laio as the father emperor. He set up his regime of Jin and moved the capital to Kaifeng. His kingdom was known as the Later Jin. After the Later Jin, the sixteen cities of Youyun was a base for Liao to attack and grab from the Central Plain, which brought havoc in north China. At the dawn of 947, Liao marched his army southernwards and took Kaifeng. The Late Jin ended after 12 years of existence.

The Later Han: After Liao seized Kaifeng, the garrison commander of the Later Jin, Liu Zhiyuan (Shatuo origin) proclaimed to be Emperor of Gao Zu in Jinyang

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(now Taiyuan). He still named his regime the Later Jin in order to win the supports from the former Jin ministers. He entered Luoyang and Kaifeng, made Kaifeng as capital and called his administration Han, which known as the Later Han shortly after Liao drew back to the north. Eleven months later, Emperor Gaozu of the Later Han passed away and his nephew Liu Chengyou (Emperor of Ying) carried out the line. The new emperor was always suspicious of and put his ministers to death which caused the garrison commander Guo Wei to lead an uprising. Four years later, the Emperor was killed and the shortly existed Later Han came to an end.

The Later Zhou: In January 951, Guo Wei declared himself the emperor in Kaifeng and named his kingdom Zhou, in history the Later Zhou was the name often referred to. Guo Wei was Emperor Taizu. Born in the poor family, Emperor Taizu experienced the hardships of life and hence introduced political and economical reforms after became emperor. He led a thrifty life and encouraged his followers to speak out their opinions on the state affairs. To avoid the overweight of the army leaders, he tried to find the capable persons and put them in positions. In addition, rents and taxes were reduced, sentences for committing crimes lighted, and corrupted officials punished. Favorable conditions for agricultural production were created. Thousands of people flocked from other places to the Later Zhou for settlement. In 954, the Emperor Taizu passed away, the next person coming to power was his adopted son Guo Rong (the original surname was Cai, the nephew of the former emperor). The new emperor was Shi Zong, who was an impressive statesman in Chinese history. He followed the path of the former emperor, developed the economy and strengthened his armies to the unification of the imperial China.

Shortly after Guo Wei died, Liu Chong of the Northern Han, who formed an alliance with the Khitan to attack to the Late Zhou. Cai Rong took the personal command of the Later Zhou's army and defeated Liu Chong at Gaoping (now Gaoping County, Shaanxi). Liu Chong fled with hundreds of his cavalrymen. After this battle, Cai Rong began to think seriously of unifying the country. With his territory extending as far as the northern bank of the Yangtze River, he succeeded in recovering a number of strategic points from Qidan, such as Ningzhou (now Ning county, Hebei) and Yijinguan Pass (Baxian County, Hebei). All these achievements pave the way for the north to bring to an end the prolonged division of the country and to establish a central authority over all of China.

Worth noticing in this period of history was that the founders of three dynasties (the Later Tang, the Later Jin and the Later Han) all came from the Shatuo. Mean-

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while, the Khitan and Tartars in the north became increasingly strong. The frontier commanders and the Khitan Tartars joined forces and formed a big military group, burying the seeds for a later confrontation between the Song, the Liao and the Jin.



北方的五代
Five Dynasties in the North

五代的创始人都是镇守边关的将领，他们依靠军权割据一方，所以他们的统治也经常战乱不休。在五个朝代中，后梁维持的时间最长，也只有17年，其次后唐14年，后晋11年，而后汉仅仅4年，后周9年，都不足十年。其实，即便在一朝之内，其权位之争亦超乎寻常。如后梁太祖朱温登上皇位才5年，就被其次子朱友硅所杀。而朱友硅上台不久，又被其弟朱友贞所杀。再如后唐明宗李嗣源的儿子秦王李从荣，亦曾以兵夺权，未能成功，反丢了性命。明宗去世之后，其弟五子李从厚继位，仅一年，其位即被明宗的养子李从珂所夺。频频兵戎相见，给百姓带来了极大痛苦和灾难。

后梁：唐末农民起义军叛徒、唐宣武节度使朱全忠（原名朱温），消灭了许多割据势力，初步统一了黄河流域以后，于907年废唐哀帝自立，国号梁，定都开封，史称“后梁”。后梁建立后，梁太祖朱全忠与河东军阀、沙陀贵族李克用继续争夺霸权，交战不已，各地藩镇的骄横局面也没有多大改变。公元912年，朱全忠被其子杀死后，政局更为混乱，结果为后唐所灭。后梁统治共17年。

后唐：公元923年4月，李克用之子李存勖称帝（庄宗），国号唐，10月攻灭后梁，建都洛阳，史称“后唐”。公元926年发生魏州（河北大名东南）兵变，庄宗毙于流矢。李克用养子，李嗣源入洛阳称帝（明宗）。唐明宗改革了庄宗时的一些弊政，在位七年，战事减少，农业屡有丰收，人民获得了短期的喘息。明宗死后，由于最高统治集团内部互相残杀，不久被后晋所灭。后唐统治14年。

后晋：公元936年，后唐河东节度使，石敬瑭（沙陀人）以割让燕云十六州（今河北、山西的北部和内蒙古的一部分）、岁贡绢帛30万匹和认辽朝君主耶律德光为父皇等条件，取得辽兵的援助，推翻了后唐，建立了政权，国号晋，迁都开封，史称“后晋”。后晋以后，幽云十六州成为辽军南下攻掠中原的基地，致使北方地区的社会经济遭受严重破坏。公元947年初，辽兵攻入开封，后晋亡。后晋共存在12年。

后汉：辽兵攻入开封后，后晋河东节度使，刘知远（沙陀人）在晋阳（太原）称帝（高祖），仍用后晋天福年号以争取后晋旧臣归附。当辽兵北退后，他很快进入洛阳

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和开封，并在开封建都，国号汉，史称“后汉”。后汉高祖做了11个月皇帝就死了，其侄刘承祐（隐帝）继位后，忌杀大臣，天雄节度使郭威被迫起兵反汉，隐帝被杀。后汉仅统治四年就灭亡了。

后周：公元951年正月，郭威在开封称帝（太祖），国号周，史称“后周”。周太祖出身贫寒，知道民间疾苦，称帝后虚心纳谏，生活节俭。他吸取前四代过分信任武夫的教训，留心人才，并力图革除弊政，采取了严惩贪官污吏、奖励生产、兴修水利、废除苛捐杂税以及免除牛租等措施，提高了农民的生产积极性，百姓从四面八方来周定居，社会生产得到发展。公元954年，周太祖死，养子郭荣（原姓柴，太祖内侄）继位（世宗）。周世宗在周太祖改革的基础上，继续革新政治，训练军队，开始进行统一战争。他是中国历史上一位很有作为的政治家。

周太祖死后，北汉刘崇勾结契丹一同出兵进攻后周。周世宗柴荣亲自率领军队在高平（今陕西高平县）打败刘崇。刘崇只带了几百骑兵逃走。此后，周世宗开始仔细思考统一大业。后周的疆域南至长江北岸，向北收复了宁州（今河北宁县）和一些重要关隘，如益今关（今河北坝县）。这一切都为后来北宋结束长期分裂割据局面，统一中国，准备了重要条件。

这一段历史，有一点值得特别注意，即在五朝之中，有三朝，即后唐、后晋、后汉的开国之君都是沙陀人。同时，北方的契丹人亦不断强大，他们互相勾结利用，逐步形成了一股强大的政治力量和军事集团，为以后宋、辽、金对峙形成中国历史上第二个南北朝，埋下了深深的祸根。



十国
The Ten States in the Five Dynasties Period

The Ten States are Wu, the Southern Tang, the Former Shu, the Later Shu, Wuyue, Chu, Min, the Southern Han, the Later Liang and the Northern Han. With the Nortern Han in the North and the other states were all in the Southern part of China. The development of the states in the South contributed a lot to the progress of South China.

These states were established about the time when the Later Liang was founded. The founders of these states formerly had all been garrison commanders during the later period of the Tang Dynasty.

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The State of Wu and the Later Tang: The State of Wu was founded by Yang Xingmi, who was a garrison commander in Huainan. He won his fame and power when suppressing the uprising of the peasants and fighting with other warlords. In 902, he was granted as King of Wu by the Emperor Zhaozhong of the Tang with Yangzhou as capital. After that Yangpu was made to be Emperor of Wu by Xu Wen, his chancellor, with the State title Wu. However, at this moment, Yang's family owned no real power in the court and Xu Wen's son , Xu Zhigao dethrone Yangpu , became the emperor and set up the Tang with Jinling as capital. Then he changed his name to Li Bian later, known as the Southern Tang, which was destroyed by the Northern Song when the last emperor Li Yu was in the reign.

The State of Former and Later Shu: The State of Former Shu was founded by Wang Jian who was a garrison commander in Bizhou (now Daojiang, Sichuan) of Tang. From 894, he occupied Xichuan, Dongchuan and Hanzhong in succession and announced to be the emperor in Chengdu with the name of Shu. This was the Former Shu in history. When Wang Yan, son of Wang Jian came to the throne, people suffered from his exorbitant taxes and severe punishment. In 925, Zhuangzong of the Later Tang sent troops to destroy Shu and transferred Meng Zhixiang to be the associated garrison in commander. In 926, Meng Zhixiang entered Chengdu, reformed the political system and lighted the taxes. He also seized Dongchuan from the Former Shu. In 934, Meng Zhixiang proclaimed to be emperor of Shu, with Chengdu as capital, which was recorded as the Later Shu in history. After Meng Zhixiang died, his son, Mengchang, the new emperor took Fengzhou and extended his territory as wide as that of the Former Shu. However, he committed the same ill-ruling as Wang Yan exploited and suppressed his officials and citizens ferociously. And in 965, the Later Shu was ended by the Northern Song.

The State of Wuyue: The State of Wuyue was established by Qian Liu who was the garrison commander of Zhenhai in 893. He won his position in charge of Zhenhai and Zhendong while fighting with warlord Dong Chang in Yuezhou. In 907, Qian Liu was granted as the King of Wuyue with Hangzhou as capital. His kingdom embraced Zhejiang, and there were scarcely wars agitated in this period which retained the time for economic and agricultural development. Their regime lasted five generations to Qian Chu and was finally ruined by the Northern Song Dynasty.

The State of Chu: The State of Chu was founded by Ma Yin. In 907, he was acknowledged as King of Chu by the Later Liang and Tanzhou (Changsha, Hunan now) was the capital. There was a chaos among his sons in the court for the posi-

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tion of king after Ma Yin died and in 963, the Chu was ended by the Northern Song Dynasty.

The State of Min: The State of Min was set up by Wang Shenzhi who followed his elder brother Wang Chao to Fuzhou (Fujian province now). In 897, Wang Shenzhi succeeded his brother's position as the garrison commander and was later granted as King of Min taking charging of Quanzhou and Tingzhou. Other successors of the Min were all tyrannies therefore caused constant confusion within the state and received downfall from the Southern Tang.

The State of Southern Han: In 905, Liu Yin was a garrison commander of Jinghai in the Tang Dynasty. In 907, he was granted as King of Dapeng and his brother, Liu Ying after succeed him, extended his territory and proclaimed to be emperor of Yue in 917 with Guangzhou as capital. In the following year, he renamed his regime Han, which was the Southern Han in Chinese history. The rulers of the Southern Han were extravagant and cruel therefore caused an intense class contradictory. In 971, the Southern Han was also taken over by the Northern Song.

The State of Later Liang: In 907, Gao Jixing, was a garrison commander in Jingnan during the period of the Later Liang. In 924, he was granted King Nanping with Jiangling as cspital, owning only Jingzhou, which was the smallest state. In 963, it was taken over by the Northern Song.

The State of Northern Han: The State of Northern Han by Liu Chong appeared somewhat later than the others, it was established towards the end of the Later Tang, during the period of the Later Jin, and the Later Zhou. In 951, located in the east of the Yellow River, Liu Chong declared to be emperor with Taiyuan as capital and still took Han as its name. It was the Northern Han in Chinese history. The Northern Han was based on weak economy on which its people suffered from the heavy taxes for military expenditure and payment to Qidan in the north. To earn a living was terribly hard in the Northern Han and there were acute social struggles within. In 979 the Northern Song took over it.

Along with the improvement of handicrafts, the economy of the south was booming. Hangzhou, the capital of Wuyue, grew into a prosperous metropolis in the southeaster of China enjoying the faming of the richest and thriftiest city that could be compared to the heaven. Chengdu was also well-developed and famous for its silks, herb medicine and jewels concerning the amount of goods exchange. Besides, there were many trades by sea.

The economic centre was moved from the Yellow River Valley to Yangtze River

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valley after the periods of growth in the five Dynasties. According to the demographic toll at the dawn of the Northern Song that there were 2.3 million people was added to the Song's original 1 milliom after removing all the small states in the south. This indicated that the population of the south was double that of the north which meant the progressive surplus of the north in economy and a gradually prominent position in imperial China.



十国
The Ten States in the Five Dynasties Period

十国指吴国、南唐、前蜀、后蜀、吴越、楚、闽、南汉、后梁和北汉。除北汉在北方外，其余各国在中国南部。各国在中国南方的发展对南方的开发起到了重大作用。

南方的十国建立于后梁晚期，创建者都是晚唐时期的节度使。

吴国和南唐：吴的开创者杨行密，在镇压农民起义和军阀混战中被唐朝提升为淮南节度使。公元902年，唐昭宗封他为吴王，建都扬州。到杨溥在位时，丞相徐温等立杨溥为天子，国号吴。但此时，杨氏大权早已旁落。公元937年，徐温的养子徐知诰废杨溥自立，国号唐，建都金陵，改姓名为李，史称"南唐"。到后主李煜时，南唐为北宋所灭。

前、后蜀：唐壁州（四川导江）刺史王建，从公元894年开始，先后兼并西川、东川和汉中之地。后梁建立，他在成都称帝，国号蜀，史称"前蜀"。其子王衍继位，以奢侈荒淫、刻剥百姓著称。925年，后唐庄宗派兵灭前蜀，用孟知祥（李克用侄女婿）为剑南西川节度副大使。公元926年，孟知祥入成都，整顿吏治，减少苛税，攻占东川。公元934年，他在成都称帝，国号蜀，史称"后蜀"。当年孟知祥死，子孟昶继位，又攻取凤州，疆域与前蜀相同。但孟昶和王衍一样，残酷剥削压榨高官、百姓，奢侈成性。965年为北宋所灭。

吴越：吴越的创建者钱镠，在公元893年被唐昭宗任命为镇海节度使。不久，因讨越州军阀董昌有功，升任镇海、镇东两军节度使。公元907年，后梁封他为吴越王，建都于杭州，拥有两浙之地。这一地区战争很少，生产发达，经济繁荣。钱氏政权五传至钱镠，于978年降于北宋。

楚：唐末，马殷割据湖南。公元907年，后梁封他为楚王，都于潭州（长沙）。公

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元927年，马殷死，诸子争立，政局混乱，公元963年为北宋所灭。

闽：公元893年，王审知随其兄王潮据福州（今福建），公元897年，继王潮为威武军节度使。公元909年，后梁封他为闽王，据有泉、汀等地。王审知死后，继位的都是暴君，内乱不休，公元945年被南唐攻灭。

南汉：公元905年，刘隐为唐静海军节度使。公元907年，后梁封他为大彭郡王。隐弟刘龚继位后，扩大了势力范围，于公元917年称帝，国号越，建都广州，次年改国号为汉，史称“南汉”。南汉君主都极其奢侈，统治十分残暴，境内阶级矛盾非常尖锐，公元971年为北宋所灭。

后梁：公元907年，后梁任命高季兴为荆南节度使。924年，后唐庄宗封他为南平王，都于江陵，仅有荆州一地，是十国中最弱小的一国。公元963年亡于北宋。

北汉：北汉为后汉高祖之弟刘崇所建，是建国最晚的一个，成立后唐末期、后晋和后周之间。公元951年，刘崇据河东之地，在太原称帝，仍以汉为国号，史称“北汉”。北汉“土瘠民贫，内供军国，外奉契丹，赋繁役重，民不聊生”，社会矛盾十分尖锐。公元979年被北宋所灭。

随着手工业的发展，南方的商业也相当活跃。吴越都城杭州，已成为东南繁荣的大都市，“富兼华夷”，“百事繁庶”，有“地上天宫”之称。成都市场也相当繁荣，有蚕市、药市、珠宝市，市场交易量很大。此外，当时的海上贸易也相当活跃。

经过五代时期的发展，全国的经济重心已从黄河流域逐渐转移到长江流域。据北宋初年统计，北方人口只有100多万户，后来陆续平定南方诸国，又得230多万户。可见南方人口已经超过北方二倍。这说明南方经济的发展日益超过北方，越来越在全国占据重要的地位。



辽和西夏
Liao and Xixia

Five dynasties were the five kingdoms established on the Central Plain and the ten states were all in the south of the Qinling Rang and Huihe River except the Northern Han. Meanwhile, there were other parallel administrations established by minorities tribes like Liao and the West Xia. Liao was a regime dominated by the Khitan. Its capital was Linhuangfu in Shangjing(south of present-day Bairin Left Banner in Inner Mongolia), and its founder was a man called Yelü Abaoji(the Han name was Yi). The Liao Dynasty had nine emperors and ruled for

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210 years. Its territory reached the coast of the Northern Sea, the Eastern Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Bohai Sea in the east, the Jinshan (now the A'ertai Mountain) and Liusha (now the Bailongdui Desert in Xinjiang) in the west, the Kelulun, the E'erkun and the Selun'ge Rivers in the north, the southern side of the Outer Xing'anling Mountains in the northeast, the northern part bordered the Northern Shanxi, Baigou in Hebei Province and the northern part of Gansu in the south.

The Rising and Development of Liao: The Khitan Tartars were an old normadic nationality from the northern China. They were first mentioned in historical records dating from the 4th year of Dengguo(389) in the Northern Wei period. They were located in Huang River(the Xar Moron River) valley and lived a nomadic life. The tribe was increasingly grown. By the early Tang Dynasty, the then existing eight Khitan tribes formed an ally, having an army of 40 000 and was under the control of the Tang regime. After the decline of the Tang, the Khitan Tartars frequently attacked its neighbours, captured people from other states and rapidly increased in power. In the 2nd year of Zhenming of the Later Liang (916), Yelü Abaoji, the chief of the Khitan Tartars, declared himself emperor and named his state Khitan, after having defeated other tribes like Cige and Dieci. Two years later, Yelü Abaoji, who was known as Emperor Taizu(the first emperor) of the Liao, set up his capital north of the Xar Moron River and named it Huangdu (imperial capital; later called Shangjing). Before long, he conquered the Uygurs in Ganzhou and captured the Bohai. In the 1st year of Huitong (947), Emperor Taizong of the Liao defeated the Later Jin and changed the name of his dynasty to the "Great Liao". In the 1st year of Tonghe (983), the Liao Emperor Shengzong, Yelü Longxu, revived the name Khitan. Later in the 2nd year of Xianyong (1066), Emperor Daozong restored the name the "Great Liao".

During the reign of Taizong of Liao, Liao acquired sixteen cities of Yanyun from Shi Jingtang and started from which it began to extend to the Central Plain. Yelü Deguang launched several attacks to conquer the Central Plain but had to retreat in facing the severe counterattacks from the people there. After Taizong of Liao, from Ruan, the Shizong(947 ~ 950) of Liao to Jing, Muzong (951 ~ 969), the period witnessed the conflicts from within and the rulers did not turn their head to the Central Plain. The conflicts were settled till Xian, Jingzong (969 ~ 982) of Liao.

Jingzong was succeeded by his 12-year-old son, known as Shengzong, who co-ruled Liao with his mother, Empress Xiao. Xiao was an outstanding female statesman in history. In the fourth year of Shengzong (987), Liao launched war a-

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gainst Song and won the battle. From then on , Liao started their attack on the Song every year till the 22nd year of Shengzong , Liao army threatened the Chanzhou city and was offered to sign a compromise with Zhenzong of Song according to which the Song was forced to contribute to Liao silver and goods annually in return of the peace. Therefore a temporary peace was bought, and with the tributes from the Song, Liao became rich and strong and attained the height of power and splendor.

Liao reached a stage of decline after Shengzong and Xingzong(1031 ~ 1055). In 1101, when Emperor of Tian Zuo came into power, Liao was progressively threatened by Jin of Nüzhen, their rising neighbor. In 1115 Jin captured Huang Longfu, an important city of Liao. At the same time, Jin reached an agreement with Song, namely the "Haishang Agreement" to form a joint force to fight against Liao. In several years, Jin seized most of Liao's territory including Liaoyangfu in Dongjing. In the 5th year of Baoda (1125), Emperor Tianzuo was captured by the Jin army, which brought the Liao Dynasty to an end. In the 9th year of Tianhui (1131) of the Jin, Yelü Dashi, a minister of the former Liao, reestablished the Liao in the Chuhe valley which became known as the Western Liao.

The Economy and Political System of Liao: In politics, the Liao adopted a differential ruling system. That is, different systems were applied to people from different cultures and economies in different areas. The important ones were the tribal system, the slavery system, the Bohai system, and the feudal system of the Han people. Officials were divided into two groups according to where they came from (the north or the south). Corresponding administration systems were set up for each area. The Khitan administrative system, called the orthodox system, was applied to Khitan officials who were called northern officials, while the Han administrative system was applied to the Han officials, who were called southern officials. Because of different customs and levels of economic development, the northern officials mainly governed the Khitan Tartars and other nomadic peoples while the southern officials took charge of agriculture mainly in areas where the Han people resided. As the Liao Dynasty was founded by the Khitan, the northern officials were superior in status to their southern counterparts. But the southern administrative system was actually the feudal system used to be practiced in the Central Plain states. The northern administration system embodied the old trace of tribe influence, while the southern administrative of Liao was an imitation after the Tang system although it was not so perfect as the latter. In particular it included a depart-

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ment "Han'er Si", which was in charge of the Han affairs with Han officials. After the Liao conquered the sixteen prefectures in the Yanyun area, this system was further improved with the assimilation to the Chinese governing system.

The Liao Dynasty went through different stages of economic development. In its early years, it mainly depended on outward expansion, slavery and robbery, so its development remained slow and disrupted. It was not until the reign of Emperor Shengzong that the Liao managed to institute feudal reform. The Liao rulers also adopted a differential economic management system, similar to its political one. This system promoted the economic development throughout the whole northern area due to its adaptation to the reality. The Liao economy was divided into three zones: the fishing-hunting zone, the nomadic zone and the agricultural zone. The fishing-hunting zone covered the Khitan Tartars' area between the Huang River(Xar Moron) and Tuhe rivers, and the Nüzhen people's area in the northeast and so on. The nomadic zone consisted of various northern grassland nationalities. The agricultural zone referred to the southern area where the Han lived and the eastern area where the Bohai people lived. The integration of the three economic zones into a political system sped up communication between different nationalities and promoted a higher level of economic development. The southern economy, which had been feudal for a long time, dominated the whole economy and directed other economic zones to step into the feudal economic system with different paces.



辽和西夏
Liao and Xixia

五代是中原上的五个王朝,先后与之并存的十国除北汉外都在秦岭——淮河以南,其它与之并存的还有辽和西夏。辽国是中国历史上以契丹族为主体建立的王朝,都城上京临潢府(今内蒙古巴林左旗南),其创建者为耶律阿保机(汉名亿)。辽国共历九帝,前后 210 年。其疆域东临北海、东海、黄海、渤海,西至金山(今阿尔泰山)、流沙(今新疆白龙堆沙漠),北至克鲁伦河、鄂尔昆河、色楞格河流域,东北迄外兴安岭南麓,南接山西北部、河北白沟河及今甘肃北界。

辽的兴起和发展:契丹族是中国古代北方地区的一个游牧民族,以放牧、打猎为生。历史文献上有关契丹族的确实记载,始于北魏登国四年(389)。主要活动在

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潢河(今西拉木伦河)一带。唐朝初年,契丹8个部落组成部落联盟,拥兵四万,接受唐朝统辖。唐朝衰落后,契丹族不断向外扩张,俘掠外族人口,实力大增。后梁贞明二年(916),契丹族首领耶律阿保机凭借强大的军事力量,击败了的剌葛、迭剌等人,在龙化州称天皇帝,国号契丹。神册三年(918),辽太祖耶律阿保机在潢河以北正式建都城,称为皇都(后改称上京)。随后,降服甘州回鹘,灭渤海国。会同元年(947),辽太宗灭后晋,改国号大辽。统和元年(983),辽圣宗耶律隆绪曾改国号契丹。以后辽道宗咸雍二年(1066),又恢复大辽国号。

辽太宗耶律德光统治时期,辽国从石敬塘的手中得到了燕云十六州。以此为基础,辽开始了对中原地区的扩张。耶律德光数次对中原进兵,希望征服整个中国,但因中原人民的反抗,使其计划搁浅下来。在太宗之后,经历世宗阮(947~950)和穆宗璟(951~969)两代,辽的统治内部出现了激烈的纷争,直到景宗贤(969~982)时,其统治才渐渐稳定下来。

景宗死后,其子12岁的耶律隆绪即位,是为辽圣宗。由于圣宗年龄尚小,所以由其母萧太后摄政,萧太后是辽历史上著名的女政治家,于圣宗统和四年(987)进兵攻宋,大败宋军。此后,辽国连年发兵攻宋,至圣宗二十二年,辽国攻至澶州城下,与宋真宗签定了"澶渊之盟",迫使宋朝年年向辽国进贡"岁币",辽宋两国从此相对安定下来。辽圣宗依靠宋国的进贡,使辽的经济发展起来,此时辽国达到了历史上的鼎盛时期。

经过圣宗、兴宗(1031~1055)的盛世之后,辽国开始走向衰亡。公元1101年,辽天祚帝即位,此时随着女真族的兴起,辽国的统治逐渐受到威胁。公元1115年,金兵攻占辽国重镇黄龙府,随后又与宋朝订立"海上之盟",共同攻辽。金兵在几年的时间里,占领了包括东京辽阳府在内的大部分辽国土地,保大五年(1125),辽天祚帝被金军俘虏,辽国自此灭亡。金天会九年(1131),原辽国大臣耶律大石在楚河流域重建国家,仍沿用辽国号,史称西辽。

辽的社会经济和政治:辽国采用"因俗而治"的统治制度,其特点是根据不同地域、各民族不同的发展水平,而制定独特的统治制度。其内容包括有部族制、奴隶制、渤海制和汉族封建制,采用南、北两套官制进行管理。"官分南、北,以国制治契丹,以汉制待汉人"(《辽史·百官志》)。"国制"是指契丹官制,统称北面官,汉制官职统称南面官。北面官地位优于南面官。北南两面官的区别还在于管理的范围不同。北面官主要管理北面的契丹人和其他游牧民族,南面官主管南面从事农业经济的汉族等。北面官制是在契丹氏族部落制基础上发展来的一套官制。因此,北面官职多保留部落联盟制的痕迹。辽南面官制实际上是从中原王朝移植过来的制度。最初,辽太祖仿唐制在中央设立三省,但是当时还未完全具备后来南面官三省的职能。朝中另设汉儿司,主管汉人事务,官员为总知汉儿司事,由汉族大臣担任。辽朝得燕云十六州后,对中原制度进一步吸收,汉制逐渐完备。

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辽代社会经济的发展经过几个不同的阶段，前期由于国力主要用于向外扩张，采取奴隶制的掠夺式经济，使辽初经济发展较为缓慢，甚至对某些地区的经济造成破坏。直到辽圣宗时期，辽朝的经济才有一个较大的发展，这无疑是封建化改革的结果。辽朝统治者管理经济的办法与政治制度相同，也采取“因俗而治”的方针。由于这一方针适应当时社会经济的发展，因此北方社会经济在这一时期处于上升阶段。从生产性质上划分，辽代经济大体可划分为三大区域：渔猎区、牧区和农区。以渔猎为基本生产方式的是居住在潢河（西拉木伦河）、土河之间的契丹族以及东北部女真族等。以畜牧业为基本生产方式的是北方草原各民族。以农业为主要生产方式的是南部地区的汉族以及东部渤海人。三个地区的社会组织形态融为一体，加速了相互之间的交流，推动了辽代经济的发展。早已进入封建社会的南部汉族地区经济，在辽代起主导作用，使牧区、渔猎区在不同的基础上，以不同的步伐向封建经济过渡。



五代十国时期的文化成就
The Cultural Achievements of Five Dynasties and Ten States

Despite the political division of China in this period, four important advances occurred. First, the trade became important In the south, trade became increasingly important, especially the tea trade. Efforts at state monopolization occurred in an attempt to control the revenue of the tea trade. Salt monopolies were developed and the salt taxes were the top budget item during this period. The second development was translucent porcelain. This also happened in the south and was used both within China and as an export item. The next important development was in the field of printing. In about 940, the first printing of the Classics occurred. Attempts at movable type began in about 1045. Printing had far reaching effects on the Chinese people. As would occur later in Europe, printing allowed more people to become educated because books became more readily available. Finally, in northern China, paper money was introduced. This introduction was due in part to the fact that metal was scarce in China. Besides, the existing copper money was very heavy and difficult to transport. The beginning of paper money was deposit certificates that merchants used in provinces where copper

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coins were the currency. Eventually, the government would accept copper and then issue certificates, thus creating the prototype of a banking system. This money system greatly prospered the trade.

The practice of binding women's feet also began during this time. The first evidence of this practice showed up in about 950. Scholars were not sure how this practice began, however, it was widely practiced among both the rich and poor of China. Only a few groups did not participate in this custom. They were the boat women of Kuang-tung and the aboriginal people of the southwest. None of the non-Chinese groups surrounding China followed this custom.

Buddhism experienced a sharp decline during this period. In northern China, Buddhists were heavily persecuted in 955. This persecution seemed to be aimed at stopping men from becoming monks to avoid joining the armies. Many regulations were put into practice. 30 336 temples and monasteries were secularized, and many monks were forced to leave the monasteries and take up secular lives. The construction and the number of temples and monasteries were limited, in addition, private people could no longer build them. Monks were also required to carry six identification cards.

Culturally, the Liao Dynasty achieved mainly in astronomy, the calendar, medicine and architecture. Not only did the Liao calendar kept the best parts of the Central Plain Han calendar, but also retained some of the special traits of the Khitan people. Important achievements were made in acupuncture, pulse-feeling diagnosis, gynecology, obstetrics and preservation of corpses. *The Book of Acupuncture and Pulse-Feeling*, written by a celebrated doctor named Zhi Lugu, enjoyed wide popularity at the time. The Liao architecture influenced by the Tang style, accommodating the Khitan customs, achieved its own unique style. The Khitan dialect and the Han language were the main languages used in the Liao Dynasty.



五代十国时期的文化成就

The Cultural Achievements of Five Dynasties and Ten States

尽管此时中国政权处于分裂状态，这一时期也有四大进步：在南方，贸易变得很重要，尤其是茶叶贸易。为了增加收入，茶的买卖由政府垄断。

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盐的买卖也出现了垄断，盐成为当时最紧俏的商品。第二，就是陶瓷的发展，透明的彩陶产于南方，是当时对外出口的主要商品。第三，就是印刷，大约公元 940 年出现了第一批印刷版的经典作品，并在 1045 年发明了活字印刷术。印刷术的发明对中国和世界都产生了深远的影响，它使更多的人接受教育成为可能。第四，由于金属缺乏，铜钱较重不方便携带，中国的北方发明了纸币。纸币的出现是存储的凭证，它可以在铜钱流行的省份通行。最后政府接受铜钱而后发行这种纸的凭证，这就形成 了早期的银行。新的货币制度大大推动了贸易的发展。

五代十国时期妇女开始裹小脚，首次出现在公元 950 年。学者们不清楚为什么妇女要裹小脚，然而，这种现象在中国富人和穷人中十分盛行。只有少数群体像广东的船家女儿和南方边远地方的女子才不裹脚。除此之外，在中国其它广大地区的非少数民族女子都有裹脚的这一传统。

这一时期佛教经历了一次大的劫难。在北方，公元 955 年，佛教徒遭受到严重迫害。这次迫害意在阻止男人们为逃避兵役而加入僧侣队伍。许多限制措施开始施行，30 336 个寺院被拆除，大量的僧侣被强迫还俗。寺院修建和数量被严格限制，作为私人不能再建造寺院。僧侣们还被要求带六种身份证。

辽国的文化发展及其成就，主要体现在天文历法、医学和建筑方面。辽国历法不仅吸收了中原汉族历法的优点，而且在许多方面体现了契丹民族特色。辽国的医学成就也很显著，其针灸、切脉诊法、妇产医科、尸体防腐等技术都具有较高水平。辽国名医直鲁古所著《针灸脉决书》，在当时很有影响。辽代的建筑受唐代建筑的影响，并糅合契丹尚东之俗而形成自己的风格。辽代主要通行的文字是契丹文和汉文。

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Chapter 15 宋：北宋、南宋及并存的辽、金和西夏

Song Dynasty:the Northern Song, the Southern Song and the Conexistence Dynasties of Liao (or Qidan, or Chitan)、Jin and Xixia (or Tangut)



北宋
The Northern Song Dynasty

The Northern Song was a regime of the Han people founded by Zhao Kuangyin who was known as Emperor Taizu. The Song capital was located in Kaifeng in Henan Province.

Song lasted 319 years from 960, when Zhao Kuangyin, founded Song through an army revolt, to 1279 when it was destroyed by Mongolia. Its existence was longer than that of the Tang Dynasty; however its influence is less-reaching than that of the Tang Dynasty in history. The long-term existence of Song due to, first, unlike the generals before him who had declared themselves emperors of dynasties that soon failed, Zhao Kuangyin lived a long life. This allowed him to establish a more solid foundation for his successors. Another reason that his dynasty lasted longer was that he did not try to fight the Khitans in the north; instead he conquered the southern half of China. The southern kingdoms, while economically and culturally advanced, did not have strong militaries and were relatively easy to defeat. In order to maintain peace with the Khitans, the Song was forced to pay them annual tributes. There were two periods in Song, the Northern Song and the Southern

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Song. The Northern Song was a time coexisted with its counterparts of Liao, Xia and Jin. The Southern Song was continuing of the Northern Song which was retained in the south. The founding of Song Dynasty once again ended the disunification of the ancient China since the end of the Tang Dynasty.

The Making of Song Dynasty: In the 6th year of Xiande (959) of the Later Zhou, Emperor Shizong, Cai Rong died of illness, so Emperor Gong, seven years old then, succeeded to the throne. In the early first lunar moon of the following year, Zhao Kuangyin, Satrap and Commander of the imperial army, started a mutiny in Chenqiaoyi (southeast of Fengqiu in Henan) and led an army into Kaifeng to force Emperor Gong to abdicate his throne to him. Kaifeng remained as the capital, but the name of the dynasty was changed to the Song, which became known as the Northern Song in history because the Guide Army led by Zhao Kuangyin garrisoned in Song Prefecture. The Northern Song had nine emperors who ruled for a total of 168 years.

The fourth year after the establishment of the Northern Song Dynasty, the rulers of Song commenced to carry out their military operations to unify China by applying the strategy—"the south first and the north second." They held that to keep the defense in their Northern fronts was wise because Liao was strong enough not to be defeated easily; contrastively, those southern states were economically and culturally advanced, however, with weak military strength. Since 963 after fighting for over decades of years across the country, Song eliminated the resistant forces of the Later Zhou and cleared away the separatist regimes of the Jingnan, the Later Shu, the Southern Han and the Southern Tang. Later, Emperor Taizong summoned Wuyue and the Former Shu to surrender, which meant the end of the Southern states. In 979, Taizong of Song personally led his strong army and destroyed the Northern Han, the last kingdom of the ten states. By this time, the state of warfare that had lasted over 200 years from the time of the An Lushan and Shi Siming Revolts in the Tang Dynasty almost ended. The Northern Song's territories extended to the eastern and southern coastlines. In the north, it bordered on the Liao, along the present-day Jin River, Baxian in Hebei and Yanmenguan in Shanxi. In the northwest, it reached as far as the Baiyu Mountain in Shaanxi, the eastern Gansu and the northeastern Qinghai, and was contiguous to the Western Xia and the Turfan. In the southwest it bordered on Vietnam.

The later Jin of the Five Dynasties and Ten States ceded the sixteen cities of Youyun to Liao of Qidan. In order to regain it, the Northern Song and Liao had

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been fighting for a long time. Actually, since Zhao Kuangyin came to power, the Northern Song fought many wars with Liao but failed to recover the land. Till to the year of 1 004, a peace pact was concluded in Chanzhou, under which the Liao obtained a bountiful annual gift of silver and silk from the Northern Song, while Emperor Zhenzong had to admit Empress Dowager Xiao of the Liao aunt and take Shengzong of Liao as his brother. Since then the northern border of Song was peaceful and quiet. The pact between the Northern Song and the Liao was later known as "the Pact of Chanyuan" in history.

The Economy and Politics of the Northern Song: The early Northern Song period (960 ~ 997) covered the reigns of Emperors Taizu and Taizong. In order to achieve a long reign instead of becoming the sixth short-lived dynasty after the Five Dynasties in the north, Zhao Kuangyin, Taizu of the Northern Song, made great efforts to end separations and introduced a package of political, military and economic reforms aiming at "strengthening the central government while weakening the local".

Militarily, to avoid the old tricks of the powerful garrison commanders to kill and replace the emperor, Taizu successfully removed their governing rights over the army in a banquet after they sensed the implication of Emperor Taizu. After that some civil perfects were put into important positions and the commanders of the army were not allowed to be represented in the government. Taizu abolished the post of Commander of the Imperial Army and set up a Military Council to take charge of troop-deployment arrangement, but without any power to command troops. The Marshals and the Military Council had their own duties but held each other in check. They were both under direct control of the emperor. In the army, a shifting defense system was implemented: troops and their commanders were regularly transferred to different regions for military service to prevent them from forming cliques. Administrative reforms, following the system of the Tang Dynasty, included the three central agencies, the Secretariat, the Military Council, and the Chancellor of the Treasury, which were placed under the chief Minister to share administrative, military and financial power. In this way, the chief Minister would not have too much power. Measures were also taken to drain the power of local despotic satraps, limit their wealth and utilize their most capable men. Finally, these satraps were given sinecures in the capital, while their former domains were to be governed by civil prefects appointed by the emperor and under the direct control of the royal house. The local surplus revenues, after deduction for expenditures, were

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subject to the central government. These reforms greatly strengthened the power of the central government, created political stability and spurred economic development. The increase in centralized power also produced negative effects such as the weakening of local governments and the military strength. In examination, Taizu of the Song innovatedly chose the talented staff by presiding over the test in person. Therefore, more capable statesmen were singled out to work for the government which enlarged the bureacracy and consolided the regime of the Northern Song.

The policy of the strong central government and weak military officials did successfully help to establish a strong central government which maintained the social stability and laid foundation for ending the separation and enhancing the development of economy. All these led to the long reign of the Song Dynasty. However, it left an impoverished and weak local government with limited power and military strength, poverty of the country and heavy troubles from other states to face the threats from their strong enemies in the north, namely, the Liao (the former Qidan), the Xi Xia and Jin. Although enormous silvers and silks were attributed to Liao annually, Song was suffered from the consistent situation of being threatened and finally was conquered by Liao. Despite all the defects towards the outside, the Northern Song's administration was successful and its economy, culture and science were as developed and advanced as that of the Tang Dynasty and even more than that.

The Growth of the Northern Song: The growth of the city was drastically improved in the Northern Song. The layout of the cities before the Northern Song was that the workshops and the uptowns were separated. However, with the growth of economy and expansion of the population the division was eliminated and the workshops could be found everywhere instead of gathering in certain place.

The middle period of the Northern Song (998 ~ 1099), lasting from Emperor Zhenzong to Emperor Zhezong, was an important period in the history of the Northern Song. The farmlands were doubled in ten years after the establishment of the Northern Song. The new economic policies such as the "two-taxes" system and the tenancy system greatly motivated the peasants to work. As a result, population increased, more lands were cultivated, more advanced iron tools were made, more effective farming techniques appeared and farming products became more diversified besides doubled in output. Statistics show that in the 3rd year of Zhidao (997) of Emperor Taizong's reign, there were 4.13 million families on the household register. But in the 8th year of Jiayou (1063) of Emperor Renzong's reign, the

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number of families increased to 12.46 million. Farm lands increased from 300 million in the 2nd year of Zhidao (996) of Emperor Taizong's reign to 520 million *mu* in the 5th year of Tianxi (1063) of Emperor Zhenzong's reign. This fast agricultural growth promoted the development of handicrafts and commerce. In the Northern Song dynasty, industries of shipbuilding, metallurgy, textiles, dyeing, paper-making and china-making all experienced greater progress than any previous dynasties either in scale of production or techniques. The old patterns of the trade were broken which resulted in the prosperous business situation in the cities. There were about 40 cities with population over 100 000 family households and Kaifeng became a commercial center of the Northern Song.

The capital Kaifeng also named Dongjing or Bianjing in the Northern Song Dynasty. As records said that there were not less than 160 trades of handcrafts and business shops in all, so much so that there were numerous people coming and leaving the downtown all day and night. The busy street of the Dongjing was crammed with various kinds of goods from all over the country even from Japan, Korean and Arab. To meet the needs of expanded economy, the Northern Song issued the paper money, called Jiaozi, the earliest paper money in the world. Paper money appeared and soon was in widespread use which indicats an epoch-making growth of economy in the Northern Song Dynasty. Meng Yuanlao of the Northern Song in hisbook, *Dongjing Menghua Lu*(*the Collections of The Prosperous Dongjing*), depicted the rich and thriving of Dongjing in details: there are downtowns, hotels, teahouses, and bawdyhouses in Dongjing; all the businesses end till deep night and start very early in the next morning; at any time of the year, there are always continuous flow of people so that Dongjing seems a Nightless City. Still, the painter of the Northrn Song, Zhang Zeduan, described the flourishing Dongjing in his picture, *Qinming ShangHeTu* (*the Scene on the Pure Brightness Day*). Accommodating more than 600 people in vistas, his picture was a treasure of arts in Chinese history. The Chinese word *Shanghe* means worship of the ancestors of the family. In the picture, he focused on the scenery around the Eastern Jiaozi Gate of Dongjing and the banks of the Bian River and noted down with painting the crowded and prosperous moment on the festival of the Pure Brightness, a traditional Chinese festival for ancestor worship. By depicting the heavy traffic, the gathering of all the business trades and the foot passengers, the picture revealed the splendor and thrives of the Kaifeng, the most prosperous capital of ancient China.

There were high achievements in terms of literature and history in the Northern

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Song Dynasty and many famous and productive persons were made in this time. Education and the examination system became central to the upper class. It created the space for the development of the bookmen. The rise in the popularity of education was due in part to advances made in printing and the greater availability of books. Examinations grew progressively in popularity throughout China; although, only a few were allowed to pass to fill the administrative positions. This resulted in the education itself, and the attempted examination, gaining more importance socially than it had in the past. In history, the *New History of Tang*, complied by Ouyang Xiu, contributed a lot to the preservation of the history of Tang. *The History as a Mirror*(*Zi Zhi Tong Jian*) wrote by Sima Guang, starting from the third year of Yingzong (1066) and finished in the 7th year of Shenzong (1084) was of great historical value. Sima Guang once said that the book, which cost him 19 years, was made with all his energy and efforts. Consisting of 294 *Juan*, the book recorded events from the 23rd year of the emperor Zhouwei in the Warring States (403 B. C.) to the end of the Later Zhou, the 6th year of the Five Dynasties, covering 1362 years of history with the prosper and wane of the dynasties and the success and the fails of the administrative practice as well. This book offered the later emperors the significant reference besides its literature and historical charms. In literature, the poems of the Song Dynasty carried forword the cause into future, especially the *Ci*, was another remarkable success following the Tang Dynasty. The most prominent poets are Ouyang Xiu, Yan Shu, Liu Yong, Su Shi, Qin Guan and Zhou Bangyan etc. among them Liu Yong and Zhou Bangyan were widely known for their description of delicate feelings and Su Shi was much praised for his plain and graceful style. The prose writing reached another height: Ouyang Xiu, Su Shi, Su Xun, Su Che, Wang Anshi, Zeng Gong of the Song Dynasty and Han Yu, Liu Zongyuan of the Tang Dynasty were called "The Eight Most Prominent poets of the Tang and Song". With the endeavors of writers from the Song Dynasty, the reform against the old style of flowery parallelism and favored the classic form of prose was gainful and left today's world with voluminous, expressive writings. Meanwhile the drama and vernacular tales, which were humorous and satirical accompanied with recitation and dance, became very popular. These were the prototypes and foundations of the drama and novels of the Yuan Dynasty, the Ming Dynasty. Hence, the literatures in the Northern Song Dynasty were in the stage of pioneering and transition.

This period also saw a boom in science and culture as a result of the invention

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and application of the compass, printing techniques and gunpowder. The gunpowder could be used as a weapon in siege warfare. Foreign trade expanded greatly, and the Chinese had the best ships in the world in the Song Dynasty. Their ships contained as many as four decks, six masts, and a dozen sails. The seaships were guided by a stern post rudder, while navigation was done through the use of charts and compasses. These ships could carry 500 men. European ships on the other hand used manu power and an inefficient steering oar. Advances were also made in medicine, as the first autopsy was performed in about 1145 on the body of the southern Chinese captives.

The Perdition of the Northern Song: "The strong central government policy" carried out at the early stage of the Song was turned out to be a poor and weak government in that it was submissive to its northern counterparts outside, and inside the court corruptions were in rampage. Under these circumstances, the higher officials in the Northern Song advocated reforms in hoping of turning the declining tides. The well-known examples are the "Qingli Reform" during Emperor Renzong's reign and the "Wang Anshi Reform" during Emperor Shenzong's. But these reforms brought about few results, with strong opposes from the conservatives in the court for the sake of their own interests hence the Northern Song went into decline. Social conflicts became increasingly common. Both military and political expansion together with quick land annexation pace gravely depleted the government treasury.

The last stage of the Northern Song (1100 ~ 1127) covering the reigns of Emperors Huizong and Qinzong was the darkest and most corrupted period of the entire dynasty. Many peasants, the impoverished and the homeless on account of corruption and poverty, rose to rebel against the government. The uprisings led by Fang La and Song Jiang were the biggest worry of the period. The peasants uprising, led by Song Jiang at Liangshanpo, Shandong province, fought with the Song's troops in Shandong, Hebei, Henan, Anhui, and the Northern Jiangsu . Although the peasants army won over the government army, their general, Song Jiang accepted amnesty and pledged loyalty to the Emperor. At the time the Huizong of Song was fond of rare stones, thus collected rare jewels all over the country and shipped them back capital. Every ten ships was a *Gang* (unit of counting the ships), therefore the goods were named "the Gang of Beautiful Stones" (*Hua Shi Gang*). The sheer grab brought sufferings to the families especially in the southeast of Hangzhou City, which finally led to the uprising of Fang La. This was the largest peasants uprising in the Northern Song which lasted from the October 2nd of

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Xuanhe(1120) to the March in 1122.

Fang La, a tenant, was born in Muzhou of Qingxi(now Chun'an County, Zhejiang). His hometown was teemed with bamboos, lumber, lacquer and tea etc. The two government workshops pinched thousands kilo of lacquer and lumbers so much so that the small private business and the populace were forced to the corner and complains were heard everywhere. In 1120, Fang La staged a peasant uprising and established his regime. In three months he and his men took control of six prefectures and over 60 counties in modern Zhejiang and Anhui provinces , while their forces grew nearly a million, which shocking the southeast of China.

When the uprising threatened Hangzhou, the general Tong Guan was sent to fight against the peasant army. At the same time, the Emperor, Zhenzong of the Song apologized to the public for his misdeeds and promised to abolish the agencies of workshop and stop shipping of the rare rocks and stones. When Tong Guan crossed the river and directed his army to attack Hangzhou from two directions, the local militia all gathered to cooperate to fight. The uprising army was defeated and in April the following year, Fang La was captured and soon put to death in Kaifeng. Other uprisings were put out till 1122. Although the uprisings at the end of the Song Dynasty were destroyed, they weakened the reign of the Northern Song badly.

Moreover, external aggression aggravated the sad situation of the Northern Song. For a long time, the Northern Song kept fighting against the Liao, the Xi Xia and the Jin. At that time, the Jin established by Nüzhen grew strong. To recover the sixteen states of Youyun, the Northern Song sent an emissary to the state of Jin to negotiate an agreement for a joint attack on the Liao. However, the resort also exposed its weakness to Jin. Therefore soon after the destroy of Liao, a powerful Jin force launched a large-scale attack on the Northern Song in winter in the 7th year of Xuanhe of Huizong (1125). The two troops of Jin attacked Taiyuan from the west and the east together with Nianhan and Wobuli as their leaders respectively. Meanwhile the Northern Song was in panic and Huizong of Song gave the throne to his son, Zhao Heng, who was known as Qinzong and pinned on him the hope to improve the situation and turn the tide. The Jin's army has arrived at the bank of the Yellow River, threatening the Song's capital, Kaifeng. Huizong fled to Jinling(now Nanjing). Under the direction of Li Gang, the chancellor of the Northern Song, Jin was defeated and was detained to march southwards for a while. However, the Emperors of the Northern Song were not resolute to fight, instead, they sent emissary to seek negotiation with the Jin. A peace pact was agreed in

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which the Northern Song promised to cede lands and give tributes to Jin except dismissed Li Gang and other loyalists, thus the troops of the Jin became even fearless. In the 1st year of Jingkang(1126), the Jin army conquered Kaifeng, the capital of the Northern Song. In the following year, the Northern Song emperor was deposed and his dynasty came to end. In all, the Northern Song lasted 168 years with the reign of nine emperors of seven generations.



北宋
The Northern Song Dynasty

北宋是由汉人赵匡胤建立。他就是宋太祖,宋的首都在河南开封。

宋朝从公元960年宋太祖赵匡胤陈桥兵变建立,到1279年被元朝灭亡,共存在了319年。时间超过了唐朝,但其影响却远在唐朝之下。宋的长期存在,一是由于:和其他的军事统领不同,赵匡胤活了很长时间,这使他有时间为自己的继位者创造一个更加稳定的环境。另一个原因就是宋统一了南方而不是去和北方的契丹作战。宋征服了南方的小国,南方的小国虽然经济和文化都很发达,但没有强大军事,易于击破。宋通过进贡和北方契丹保持了和平。宋通常分为北宋和南宋两个时期,北宋是与辽、夏、金对峙时期,而南宋则是偏安衰亡时期。宋王朝的建立,结束了自唐末形成的四分五裂的局面,使中国又归于统一。

北宋的建立:五代后周显德六年(959),周世宗柴荣病死,七岁的恭帝继位,时任殿前都点检、归德军节度使的赵匡胤掌握了军权。翌年正月初,赵匡胤在陈桥驿(今河南封丘东南陈桥镇)发动兵变,黄袍加身。并率军入开封,胁迫周恭帝禅位,夺取了皇位。因赵匡胤所领的归德军驻在宋州,所以建国号为宋,定都于开封。史称北宋。北宋经历了九位皇帝168年的统治。

北宋建立后的第四年,就开始进行统一全国的军事行动,并采取了"先南后北"的政策。宋太祖认为,当时对辽国还没有取胜的把握,只能在边境上采取守势;而南方割据政权统治区域大都是物产丰富的地区,这些政权的实力又较为薄弱。因此,其统一战略部署是先消灭南方的割据政权,然后北上削平北汉以及收复幽云地区。从公元963年(乾德元年)以后的几十年,北宋首先出兵灭掉荆南,接着陆续灭掉后蜀、南汉和南唐。在强大的军事、政治压力下,公元978年(太平兴国三年),前蜀和吴越相继归附,南方的割据政权全被消灭。公元979年,宋太宗亲率大军出征北汉,把"十国"中的最后一国灭掉,消除了五代十国独立割据的局面,从唐代安史

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之乱开始，持续了二百多年的封建军阀割据局面基本上结束。北宋疆域东、南临海，北境以今津海河、河北霸县、山西雁门关一线与辽接壤，西北至今陕西白于山、甘肃东部、青海东北部与西夏、吐蕃毗邻，西南与越南接界。

在五代十国的后晋时期，曾把北方的燕云十六州割与契丹族所建立的辽国。为了收复燕云十六州，北宋与辽进行了长期的战争。自宋太祖赵匡胤起，北宋曾多次与辽交战，但一直未能收复失地。直至公元1004年，北宋真宗与辽国在澶州定下了停战和议，约定真宗称辽萧太后为母，宋辽为兄弟之邦，北宋每年向辽交纳“岁币”和丝绸，双方互不侵犯。自此，中国北方才有了少许安宁，宋、辽的这次结盟被后世称之为“澶渊之盟”。

北宋的政治、经济：在宋朝建立之初，也就是太祖、太宗时期（960～997），为使宋王朝能长治久安，而不致成为继五代后的第六个短命的王朝，宋太祖赵匡胤除了致力于结束五代十国的分裂割据局面之外，还制定了一系列的方针政策，大力实施“强干弱枝”政策。

在军事方面，为防止武将专政篡弑重演，太祖以“杯酒释兵权”解除了大将对军队的控制，实行重文轻武政策，提倡文人典军，严禁武人干政。取消禁军最高统帅殿前都点检、副都点检职务，朝廷设枢密院掌管调动军队，但无统兵权。三帅统兵权和枢密院调兵权职责分明，相互制约，直接对皇帝负责。军队实行更戍法，定期换防，将帅常调，以防止官兵“亲党胶固”。另外，宋沿袭唐制，又大力削弱宰相（中书令）实权，宰相下设数名参知政事、枢密使、三司使，以分其军、政、财三权，使宰相无法独揽大权。为消除藩镇割据的局面，对独霸一方的节度使，采取“稍夺其权，制其钱谷，收其精兵”的办法，逐步从地方调回都城任闲职，其原领州郡由朝廷控制，委派文官任知州、知府，直接对朝廷负责。规定地方财政每年赋税收入，除支度给用外，凡属钱币之类，“悉奉送京师”。这些措施加强了中央集权，巩固了政局，刺激了经济的发展，但也造成了弱枝强干的负面影响。在科举方面，宋太祖打破常例，以殿试的方式对考生进行最终的考核。这样一来，北宋王朝的官僚阶级队伍得到了壮大，从中出现了一大批优秀的政治家，巩固了政权。

北宋的“强干弱枝”、“重文轻武”政策，虽然成功地削弱了地方权力，使宋朝中央集权得到强化，这对政治稳定，结束分裂局面和经济的发展创造了有利的条件，宋朝国家存在时间长，但却造成宋代的国力积贫积弱，使财政拮据、地方权限过小、军队战斗力削弱、外患深重等消极后果。北宋的外敌主要有辽国（其前身即契丹）、西夏和金国。尽管宋室耗费大量银、绢向它们缴纳岁币，始终改变不了被动挨打的状态，最后亡于外敌之手。北宋在内治方面，却非常成功，宋代的经济、文化、科技之强，人才之盛较之汉唐有过之而无不及。

北宋的发展：中国古代城市的发展，到北宋出现了新的转折。北宋以前的城市，一般是坊、市分区，即住宅区与商业区严格分开。北宋时，随着商品经济的发展

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和城市人口的增加，彻底打破了“坊”、“市”的界线，商店可以随处开设，不再采取集中的方式。

北宋中期（998～1099），从真宗到哲宗时期是北宋历史的重要时期。宋初几十年间，全国耕地扩大了将近一倍。由于实施两税法、代役制和租佃制等新的经济制度，激发了广大农民的生产积极性。随之而来的是：人口的增加，垦田面积的扩大，铁制工具制作的进步，耕作技术的提高，农作物的种类和产量倍增等等。据统计，宋太宗至道三年（997），北宋户籍上有413万多户，而到宋仁宗嘉祐八年（1063），北宋户数已逾1246万多户。宋太宗至道二年（996），耕地有3亿多亩，而至宋真宗天禧五年（1021），增至5.2亿多亩。农业经济的迅速发展促进了手工业、商业的发展。北宋的造船、矿冶、纺织、染色、造纸、制瓷等手工业，在生产规模和技术上远超唐代。商业市场打破了旧的格局，大小城镇贸易盛况空前，都市商业十分兴旺繁荣，十万户以上的城市达四十多个，而宋都开封更成为全国的商业中心。

开封在北宋时又称东京（东都或汴京）。据记载，东京的手工、商业多达一百六十行，沿街店铺林立；闹市上人来人往，熙熙攘攘，通宵不绝。在京都市场上，各地货物琳琅满目，甚至日本、朝鲜、阿拉伯等国的商品亦有买卖。而北宋为了应付贸易及商业发展的需要，还发行了世界上最早的纸币——“交子”，纸币的出现及广泛使用，具有划时代的意义。其社会经济的发达，由此亦可见一斑。宋人孟元老曾撰《东京梦华录》，详尽描写了宋东京的繁华，当时开封城中有闹市、有酒楼、有茶馆、有妓院，城中夜市至三更方尽，五更时分又再燃灯开张，夜以继日，人烟不断，可谓“不夜城”。此外，画家张择端的《清明上河图》描绘了汴京的风物，使近600人跃然纸上，成为中国绘画史上不朽的佳作。上河是宋时民间对清明祭祖坟之谓，意同“上冢”。该画描绘出清明时节东京东角子门内外及汴河两岸的繁荣热闹景象，但见桥上车水马龙，商贩云集，行人络绎不绝，表现出当时中国第一都会的繁荣兴盛。

在史学和文学方面，北宋有着极高的成就，其间名人辈出。宋朝的科举制度使文人得到了可以自由发展的空间。教育的发展得益于印刷术的进步，使书本的普及成为可能 。科考开始在中国流行，尽管考取的人不多，但考取后都能担任一定的官职。这使备考和赶考都成为有史以来最具社会意义的事情。史学方面，北宋欧阳修等编纂《新唐书》，对唐史的保存，有很大的贡献。而司马光主编的巨著《资治通鉴》，更是编年史的典范。《资治通鉴》自英宗治平三年（1066）始修，至神宗元丰七年（1084）成书，前后历时十九年。在《进资治通鉴表》中，司马光曾说“臣之精力，尽于此书”。该书上起周威烈王二十三年（公元前403年），下迄五代后周世宗显德六年（959），将1362年中王朝的兴衰、政治的得失记载下来，为后代帝王统治提供了重要借鉴，它对史学和文学的影响力至今不衰。除史学之外，北宋的文学发展，也在中国文坛上起着继往开来的重要作用。尤其是“宋词”，更是唐诗之后中国文学史上另一座丰碑。北宋的词人辈出，如晏殊、欧阳修、柳永、苏轼、秦观、周邦彦

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等等。柳永、周邦彦的词以绮艳著称，而豪放派的苏轼则最为后世所熟识。北宋在散文上的成就也是巨大的，其中欧阳修、苏洵、苏轼、苏辙、王安石、曾巩，与唐代的韩愈、柳宗元并称“唐宋古文八大家”。在北宋文学家的努力下，使自唐代韩愈以来的古文运动取得进一步的成功，当中有许多作品传颂至今。在散文、诗、词等文学形式发展的同时，话本和戏曲这类民间说唱文学也蓬勃发展，并为元代戏曲和明代小说的兴盛，打下了雄厚的基础。由此可见，北宋的文学成就，具有承前启后的划时代意义。

宋代也是科技文化的繁荣时期。尤其是闻名于世的指南针、印刷术和火药三大发明的开发和应用主要是在这个阶段。宋用火药作为攻克城市的武器。对外贸易也发展很快，宋时中国有世界上最好的船只。当时的大船高四层，六个桅杆，双帆，船由坚实的后舵控制，靠指南针把握方向，可以载重 500 人。与此同时，欧洲的船是靠人力划桨来行使的。宋时的医学在世界上也居于领先地位，在公元 1145 年就以南方的俘虏为试验做过人体解剖。

北宋的灭亡：北宋由于一建国即推行“强干弱枝”政策，到了中期便造成积贫积弱局面：对外软弱无能，屡受外敌进侵；对内吏治败坏，冗官冗吏充斥。有识之士深以为忧，遂生改革弊政之议，以扭转危机四伏的局面。北宋改革影响最大的是宋仁宗时期的“庆历新政”和宋神宗时期的“王安石变法”。但两次变法维新却屡遭保守朝臣及既得利益者的阻挠。庆历新政、王安石变法均以失败而告终。北宋逐步走向衰亡。社会冲突更加频繁，政治和军事的扩张和土地的快速兼并耗尽了北宋政府的财力。

宋徽宗（1100～1127）在位时期是北宋王朝最腐朽黑暗的时期。众多的农民倾家荡产无以为生，纷纷起义反抗暴政。其间以方腊、宋江领导的农民起义影响最大。以山东梁山泊为据点的宋江农民起义，转战于山东、河北、河南、安徽、江苏北部一带，并屡次打败官军。最后宋江等被朝廷招安。宋徽宗因素爱奇石玩好，时常在民间搜刮珍宝，并用大船运回京，每十船组成一纲，称为“花石纲”，许多百姓因而家破人亡，东南地区的杭州一带受害尤烈，终于激起以方腊为首的民变。从公元 1120 年（宣和二年）十月到公元 1122 年三月，在江浙地区爆发了方腊领导的农民起义。这是北宋时期规模最大的一次农民起义。

方腊是睦州青溪县（浙江淳安）人，雇工出身。青溪及其附近地区盛产竹、木、漆、茶等经济作物，造作局和应奉局每年从这里勒索成千上万斤的漆，其他竹木花石的数量也极为庞大。小生产者和一般劳动人民的生活陷入绝境，怨声载道。于是在公元 1120 年，方腊发动群众，宣告起义，设置官吏将帅，起义队伍很快便扩大到数万人。起义军所向披靡，三个月内，接连攻占了两浙首府杭州等地，共攻占六州六十多县，队伍扩大到近百万人，“东南大震”。

当北宋最高统治者接到方腊起义军逼近杭州的消息之后，立即派童贯率军南

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下,镇压起义。接着,宋徽宗又"下诏罪己",宣布撤消"造作局"、"应奉局",停运花石纲。童贯带领的宋军过江之后,分路指向杭州等地。这时各地的地主武装也纷纷出来配合官军进攻。起义军兵力分散,抵挡不住宋军的反扑。次年四月,方腊被俘,就义于开封。浙东的各支起义军到1122年以后也被镇压下去。宋末农民起义虽然失败,但却大大动摇了宋室的统治。

与此同时,来自外部边境的进犯更加恶化了北宋的局势,北宋一直与辽,西夏和金在北方对峙。北方女真族所建的金国崛起,宋室为了收复燕云诸州,便联金灭辽,但其弱点也为金国所洞悉。就在灭辽的同一年,即徽宗宣和七年(1125)冬,金兵分兵两路大举南下攻宋。东路大军由斡不离指挥,西路则由粘罕指挥,共同进攻太原。此时,宋朝的局面已经大乱,徽宗迫不得已将皇位让于太子赵恒,是为宋钦宗。寄希望于能改善局面,抗拒金兵,以扭转不利局势。此时,金兵已到达黄河岸边,直逼宋都开封,宋徽宗逃至金陵(今南京)。北宋军队在丞相李纲的指挥下,击退了金军,暂时制止了金国的南侵,但由于徽、钦二帝的无能,一心想与金国求和。他们先后答应割地赔款给金国,又罢免了李纲等忠臣,使得金兵更加肆无忌惮。靖康元年(1126),金军攻陷汴京。靖康二年(1127)春,金废宋帝为庶人,至此,北宋王朝宣告灭亡。其间共历七世九帝,享国168年。



西夏
The Xi Xia

Founded by Li Yuanhao, known as Emperor Jingzong, the Western Xia was a dynasty of the Dangxiang people, with its capital in the Xingqing Prefecture (now Yinchuan in Ningxia). His empire extended as far east as the Yellow River, as far west as Yumen (west of Dunhuang, Gansu), as far south as Xiaoguan (north of Huan County, Gansu) and as far north as the Gobi desert. At its height, the Xi Xia consisted of 22 prefectures covering northern Ningxia and Shaanxi, northwestern Gansu, northeastern Qinghai and part of Inner Mongolia. Ruled by 10 emperors, the Xi Xia lasted 190 years and was a rival of the Liao, the Northern Song, the Jin and the Southern Song.

By origin, Dangxiang was a branch of the Qiang nationality and they formerly lived in the vicinity of the Yellow River valley located in the southeastern area of present-day Qinghai. Since the late Tang Dynasty to the Northern Song Dynasty, the

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Tuoba family of this nationality, working as satraps of the Central Plains government, had been governing the Xia Prefecture (now Hengshan in Shaaxi) and four other neighbouring prefectures. Due to the efforts of Li Jiqian (Li Yuanhao's grandfather) and Li Deming (Li Yuanhao's father), this nationality pursued a strategy of allying with the Liao. They made peace with the Song, attacked the Turbans and the Uygurs, and conquered the Xiliang Prefecture (now Wuwei in Gansu), the Ganzhou Prefecture (north of present-day Zhangye in Gansu) and the Guazhou Prefecture (present-day eastern Anxi in Gansu). Thus, the Dangxiang controlled all the areas along the western bank of the Yellow River and laid a solid foundation for Li Yuanhao to establish a dynasty. In the 9th year of Tiansheng of Song Renzong (1031) Li Deming died and his throne went to his son Li Yuanhao. The new chief then refused the title conferred by the central government, replaced the surnames of Li and Zhao awarded by the Chinese court with Wei (on his own creation) and declared himself "Wuzu" (Son of Heaven). Li Yuanhao then carried out a series of reform, including changing the hairstyle, the dress code, creating a written language, simplifying ceremonies and setting up an administrative system. At the same time, he made Xingzhou the Xingqing Prefecture, enlarged his palace and made preparations for declaring himself emperor. He attacked the Northern Song in the 1st year of Jingyou (1034) and defeated her forces in Fuzhou (now Fugu in Shanxi), Huanzhou (now Huanxian in Gansu) and Qingzhou (now Qingyang in Gansu). In the 1st year of Baoyuan (1038), Li Yuanhao formally assumed the imperial title, designating his reign Yanzuo, and his dynasty, the Great Xia, was also known as the Western Xia in history.

Largely influenced by the Song Dynasty, the Xi Xia basically adopted her civil service system. The Central Government consisted of a Secretariat, a Privy Council, a Military Council, a Treasury, a Prefecture of Kaifeng, and a Censor Department, a Taxation Department, an Agricultural Department, a Livestock Department, a Department of Tibetan Studies, a Department of Han Culture and several others. Local governments were split into two levels, i. e., prefectures and counties. Prefectures were also set up in strategic political centers and military places.

The military service system was a mix of the tribal military service system of the Dangxiang and that of the Song. The Military Council was the highest military body, consisting of several departments. The military forces comprised the imperial army, the "capture" army and local troops. The imperial army was divided into three groups that performed different duties. The Zhizi Army was an élite force of 5 000

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men who were excellent horsemen and archers. Chosen from aristocrat families, they were actually the armed escorts of the emperor and were on duty on three shifts a day in the palace. Another group of the imperial army, amounting to 3 000 soldiers, was top cavalrymen chosen from local armies across the country and who would follow the emperor into battle. But the main part of the imperial army was the garrison force stationed in the capital. This well-armed army had 25 000 soldiers in total. The "capture" army, amounting to 100 000 men, was the main fighting force of the Xi Xia. It was called "capture" in that the enemy troops were always caught alive and then forced to become slaves. The local forces, under jurisdiction of several departments of the Military Council, consisted of roughly 500 000 cavalrymen and infantrymen. The Xi Xia practiced a policy of "every citizen a soldier" i. e. Soldiers engaged in agriculture during times of peace and fought in war time.

The Dangxiang had originally lived by livestock husbandry and hunting, but later learnt more advance agricultural techniques. By the time the Xi Xia was founded, farming had become the main sector in its economy. Emperor Jingzong (Li Yuanhao) placed even higher emphasis on agricultural development. He not only had large-scale irrigation works built, but also personally took charge of the building of a canal from the Qingtong Gorge to Pingluo, called "King Hao Canal" or "King Li Canal". Afterwards, the areas of Xingqing and Lingzhou became the main bases for grain production. Attention was also paid to animal husbandry. In the central government, a special department was set up to be responsible for its development. Livestock husbandry areas were mainly scattered north of the Heng Mountain and along the corridor on the western bank of the Yellow River. Sheep, goats, horses, camels, cattle, asses, mules and pigs were the main animals domesticated. Handicrafts and commerce also flourished then. The Xi Xia had a high output in the industries of metallurgy, salt collecting and refining, brick and tile making, pottery and china making, textiles, paper making, printing, wine making, and the making of gold, silver, and wooden utensils.

With the promotion of its rulers, the Dangxiang received more of the Han culture than any other nationality at the time. One can say that the core culture of the Western Xia was Confucianist. Towards the end of the Xi Xia, its government was in chaos and the political opponents and different interests groups were rival for controlling of the government.

After the founding of the Kingdom of Mongolia, there were wars between

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them. With many years of fighting finally in the 2nd year of Baoyi (1227) of the last emperor's reign, the Western Xia ended in the hands of the Mongolia.



西夏
The Xi Xia

西夏是中国历史上以党项族为主体建立的王朝，建都兴庆府（今宁夏银川），开国皇帝为夏景宗李元昊。西夏疆域，东临黄河，西至玉门关（今甘肃敦煌），南接萧关（今甘肃环县北），北抵大漠。盛时辖地22州，包括今宁夏及陕西北部、甘肃西北部、青海东北部及内蒙古部分地区。西夏共历十帝，前后190年。与辽、北宋及金、南宋并存。

党项族原属于羌族的一支，居住在今青海东南部黄河曲一带。从唐末，经五代到北宋，党项拓跋氏均以中原王朝节度使的身分统辖以夏州（今陕西横山）为中心的五州之地。经过李继迁（元昊之祖父）、李德明（元昊之父）两代人的艰苦努力，实施依辽和宋、用兵吐蕃与回鹘的战略，向西发展占领西凉府（今甘肃武威）、甘州（今甘肃张掖北）、瓜州（今甘肃安西东）等州，控制了河西走廊，为李元昊称帝建国打下了坚实的基础。宋仁宗天圣九年（1031），李德明死，李元昊继位，不再接受封号，废除唐、宋所赐李、赵姓氏，改姓嵬名氏，自号"兀卒"（青天子）。随后，李元昊实行变发式、定服饰、造文字、简礼仪、立官制等一系列改革，并升兴州为兴庆府，扩建宫城，准备建国称帝。宋仁宗景祐元年（1034），他开始不断向宋发动攻势，在府州（今山西府谷）、环州（今甘肃环县）、庆州（今甘肃庆阳）等地击败宋军。宋仁宗宝元元年（1038），元昊正式称帝，改元天授礼法延祚元年，国号大夏，史称西夏。

西夏的政治制度受宋朝影响很大，官制的设置基本上模仿北宋。中央行政机构有：中书省、枢密院、三司、御史台、开封府、翊卫司、官计司、受纳司、农田司、群牧司、飞龙院、磨勘司、文思院、蕃学、汉学等。地方行政编制分州、县两级，在特殊的政治中心和军事国防要地有时也设郡、府。

西夏的军事制度是在党项部落兵制的基础上吸取宋制而发展起来的。枢密院是西夏最高的军事统御机构，下设诸司。军队由中央侍卫军、擒生军和地方军三部分组成。中央侍卫军包括"质子军"、皇帝卫队和京师卫戍部队。"质子军"人数约5 000人，是由豪族子弟中选拔善于骑射者组成的一支卫戍部队，负责保卫皇帝安全，号称"御围内六班直"，分三番宿卫。另有皇帝亲信卫队3 000人，是从境内各军中精选出来的强勇之士组成，皆为重甲骑兵，分为十队，每队300人，随皇帝出入

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作战。京城地区还屯驻一支训练有素的卫戍部队，共2.5万人，装备优良，是中央侍卫军的主力，擒生军人数约10万，是西夏的精锐部队，主要任务是承担攻坚和机动作战，因在战斗中生擒敌军为奴隶，故此得名。西夏的地方军由各监军司所辖，共有50万人，军兵种主要是骑兵和步兵两种。西夏兵役制度是全民皆兵制，平时不脱离生产，战时参加战斗。

党项族原来主要从事畜牧业和狩猎，通过学习汉族先进的农业生产技术，农业经济得到迅速的发展。到西夏建国时，农业生产已成为西夏社会经济的主要部门。西夏建国后，景宗李元昊更加重视农业生产的发展，大力兴修水利工程，并亲自主持修筑了从今青铜峡至平罗的灌渠，世称“昊王渠”或“李王渠”。以后，兴庆府、灵州一带，一直是西夏粮食生产的主要基地。在发展农业的同时，西夏统治者也较重视畜牧业生产。国家专门设立群牧司负责畜牧业的管理。西夏的畜牧地区主要分布在横山以北和河西走廊地带，牧养的牲畜以羊、马、驼、牛为主，还有驴、骡、猪等。由于农、牧业的发展，社会生产力的迅速提高，西夏的手工业生产和商业贸易也随之迅速发展起来。西夏的冶炼、采盐制盐、砖瓦、陶瓷、纺织、造纸、印刷、酿造、金银木器制作等手工业生产也都具有一定的规模和水平。

在西夏统治者的倡导下，党项族是同时期接受汉文化较多的一个民族。可以说，西夏文化的核心是儒家文化。西夏末期，朝政长期处于内乱之中，政敌和宗党间的斗争激烈。

蒙古汗国建立后，几次征讨西夏，经过长期的抗争，西夏于末帝宝义二年(1227)被蒙古所灭。



金
The Jin Dynasty

The Jin, founded by Wanyan Aguda (known as Emperor Taizu), was a regime dominated by the Nüzhen people. Its capital was first in the Huining Prefecture (now Baicheng, south of Acheng, Heilongjiang Province), then in Yanjing (now Beijing), and lastly, in Bianjing (present-day Kaifeng, Henan Province). Ruled by nine emperors, and lasted for 120 years. At its height, it had a population of 44.7 million people and its territory extended as far as the Outer Xing'an Ling Mountain in the north, the Huai River in the south, the coastline in the east, and Shaanxi in the west.

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The ancestors of the Nüzhen had first lived in the Changbai Mountains and the Heilongjiang River valley. The name "Nüzhen" did not appear in historical records until the Five Dynasties period when it was under the control of the Khitan. The Nüzhen was in preliminary clan stage at the beginning of the Liao and then it grew quickly with the using of the iron tools and expansion of the population. Towards the end of the Liao, Nüzhen developed strong enough. After its Wanyan tribe established a tribal union, all its tribes quickly got unified. In the 4th year of Tianqing (1114), Wanyan Aguda, the leader of the Nüzhens, performed a ritual with his armies on the bank of the Lailiu River (present-day Jianlalin River between Heilongjiang and Jilin) and declared war on the Liao. After his victories in Ningjiang and Chuhedian, Aguda assumed the imperial title in the 5th year of Tianqing (1115). He named his regime the Great Jin and used Shouguo as his reign title.

After winning a decisive victory in the battle of Hubudagang, the Jin carried out its plan to conquer the Liao. It attacked and captured five important Liao cities: the "eastern capital" (present-day Liaoyang in Liaoning), the "upper capital" (south of present-day Barin Left Banner in Inner Mongolia), the "middle capital" (present-day Damingcheng, west of Ningcheng in Inner Mongolia), the "western capital" (present-day Datong, Shanxi) and the "southern capital" (present-day Beijing). The conquest of these "five capitals" by the Jin regime brought about the immediate fall of the Liao. In 1120, Jin made an agreement with the Northern Song to form a joint attack on the Liao. And in 1125, the Emperor Tianzuo of the Liao was captured and the north part of China was under the control of the Jin.

Immediately after conquered the Liao, the Jin then turned against the Northern Song. Ascending the throne, Emperor Taizong (Wanyan Sheng), greatly encouraged by the Liao defeat, swept to attack the Northern Song successfully in the following wars out of the incompetence of rulers of the Song, though the army of Song resisted with all their mighty. And Jin seized Kaifeng, the capital of the Northern Song, captured the Emperors of Hui and Qin and put an end to the Northern Song in 1127. Later the Jin waged many wars against the Southern Song, but was fought back by the troops of the Southern Song under the brilliant leaders of Yue Fei and Han Shizhong. The balance of power remained the same on two sides, the Jin and the Southern Song.

While the rival dynasties existed side by side, the Jin succeeded in forcing the Xi Xia to become its subject state and the Southern Song to sue for peace. However, the rise of the Mongols posed a threat since they were decided enemies of the

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Jin. The hatred towards the Jin was deep into the marrow. Surrounded as it was by the Mongolia to the north, the Western Xia to the west, and the Southern Song to the south, the Jin was in an unfavorable situation. The best course of action would have been that of uniting with the Xi Xia and the Southern Song against the Mongols—as its alliance with the Xi Xia could prevent the Mongols from marching southward and a good relationship with the Southern Song would exempt it from southern threats. In this way, the Jin could avoid fighting on two fronts and have its strength focused on fighting againt the Mongols. But instead, the Jin abandoned the Xi Xia, attacked the Southern Song and the Mongols, meaning that it had created three enemies for itself. The Jin became isolated and helpless. When the Mongols attacked the Xi Xia, the Xia asked the Jin for help, but the latter refused to. The Western Xia then surrendered to the Mongols. They joined together to attack the Jin who was now squeezed into a corner. To remove threats from the west and the north, the Jin removed its capital from Zhongdu to Bianjing and tried to win over the south for compensating the loss of the north. Accordingly, it left the northern territories open to Mongolian conquest and began to attack the Southern Song but achieved almost nothing. With pincers attacks by the Mongols and the Southern Song, the Jin gradually lost power and its downfall was unavoidable. In 1233, Wokuotai, the Taizong of the Yuan Dynasty took Bianjing, Emperor of Jin, Aizong fled to Caizhou and in the following years, Jin was destroyed by the joint force of the Mongolia and the Southern Song, which brought the Jin to an end.

The Jin's political, military and economic system changed in its early and late periods. During the "tribal union" period, the premier and the union chieftains (clan elder in Nüzhen) shared the power of administering different Nüzhen tribes. After the founding of the Jin Dynasty, the premier and the union chieftains were replaced by four and later five chief executives, to form the highest authority under the emperor. After conquering a number of the Liao and the Song territories during Emperor Taizong's reign, the Jin adopted some of their practices and systems. Both Emperor Xizong and the Prince of Hailing introduced reforms. The Prince Hailing also move the capital to Zhongdu(present Beijing), and standarlized its regemens and carried out further reforms. During the reign of Emperor Shizong, a complete political system was set up. The primary body, the State Council, helped the central government deal with state affairs. Under the State Council, there were "Six Boards": the Board of Civil Service, the Board of Revenue, the Board of Rites, the Board of War, the Board of Punishments, and the Board of Works. Local govern-

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ments were divided into four levels.

The military service system was based on that of the Nüzhen, with those of the Qidan, the Bohai, the Xi and the Han integrated. Military organization was relatively simple, with emphasis placed on the cavalry and other arms developed at the same time. Its troops were made up of soldiers of many nationalities, either mercenaries or conscripts. Officers enjoyed high status. This system exerted great influence upon that of later dynasties.

The early stage of the Jin was economically backwards with the remaining features of the preliminary tribe. Since Taizong, Xizong and the King of Hailing, there were drastic changes happened: the Jin transformed from a nomadic tribe to a feudal society with agriculture as the fundamental support, which laid foundation for its further development. The farming, handicrafts and commerce flourished, but different areas achieved varying degrees of social and economic development in Jin. Although some features of traditional Nüzhen culture were inherited by the Jin, it was the Han culture and Liao culture that dominated the Jin society.



金
The Jin Dynasty

金国是中国历史上以女真为主体建立的王朝，先建都会宁府（今黑龙江阿城南白城镇），后迁都燕京（今北京），再迁都至汴京（今河南开封），其创建者是金太祖完颜阿骨打。金共历九帝，前后120年，疆域盛时北达今外兴安岭，南抵淮河，东临于海，西至陕西，人口4470余万。

女真族的祖先很早就生活在长白山和黑龙江流域。五代时，女真之名始见于史籍，并受辽契丹所统治。在辽统治初期，它还处于原始氏族形态，但随着人口的增加与铁器的大量使用，使其快速发展起来，到辽末年，女真族已成为北方一支不可小觑的力量。女真完颜部首领完颜阿骨打，在统一了女真各部后，于辽天庆四年（1114）九月，率部誓师于涞流河（今黑龙江与吉林省间拉林河）畔，向辽朝的契丹统治者宣战。他在取得宁江大捷和出河店之战胜利后，于辽天庆五年（1115）称帝建国，国号大金，年号收国。

金朝建国后，在护步答冈会战中大败辽军，随后展开以辽五京为战略目标的灭辽之战。攻取五京的前后步骤是东京（今辽宁辽阳）、上京（今内蒙古巴林左旗

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南)、中京(今内蒙古宁城西大名城)、西京(今山西大同)、南京(今北京)。这五部分的攻取对辽是致命的打击。公元1120年,金与宋签定"海上之盟"共同对辽,公元1125年,辽天祚帝被俘,金国完全控制了北方。

在消灭辽国以后,金国把矛头直指向宋朝。称帝之后,金太宗吴乞买(完颜晟)挟灭辽之威,大举进攻宋朝,虽然宋军民全力反抗,但由于宋统治者的无能,使得金国连连得胜,于金天会五年(1127)攻占了北宋都城开封,虏去徽、钦二帝,使北宋灭亡。南宋王朝的建立使得金国继续向南进兵,而南宋的抗金名将岳飞、韩世忠等人对金国的抵抗使得金军实力大降,无力再和南宋交战,形成了南北对峙的局面。

金在与南宋、西夏并立期间,迫使西夏臣附、南宋屈辱求和,始终维持其霸主地位。但是,随着蒙古的兴起,金的强国地位受到了威胁。金蒙世仇,结怨甚深,蒙古人对金"怨入骨髓"。金西北邻蒙古,西邻西夏,南邻南宋,处于西、西北、南三战之地,战略地位有明显的弱势。对待三国的战略,金的正确选择是结夏联宋,对抗蒙古。团结西夏,可以从西面牵制蒙古南下。成吉思汗于建国后对金"乃定议致讨,然未敢轻动",其重要原因是担心攻金时西夏可能构成的侧面威胁。联合南宋,可以免除后顾之忧,避免两面作战,全力对付蒙古。然而,金朝统治者却错误地选择了绝夏、攻宋、抗蒙的战略,结果三面树敌,自我孤立,致使形势急转直下。蒙古攻西夏,西夏求援于金,金坐视不救,西夏投附于蒙古,与蒙古联手攻金,金处于西、北两面受敌窘境。金为减轻压力,从中都迁都汴京,采取弃北图南的战略,进攻南宋,企图挹彼注兹,失之于蒙而获利于宋,于是"南开宋战,西启夏侮,兵力既分,功不补患"。结果,金北方尽失于蒙,南方受挫于宋,国土日蹙,国力日衰。金国于天兴元年(1233),元太宗窝阔台帅军攻下汴京,金哀宗逃至蔡州,次年,蔡州在蒙古军与宋军联合进攻下被攻破,金国至此宣告灭亡。

金国的政治、军事及经济制度前后有所变化。女真部落联盟时采用国相制,国相与部落联盟长都勃极烈分治诸部。金太宗时,占领辽、宋之地后,开始采用许多辽、宋制度。金熙宗时,对各项制度作了改革。金海陵王迁都中都(今北京),统一制度,又作了进一步的改革。金世宗时,各项制度大体确立。中央设尚书省综理政务,下设吏、户、礼、兵、刑、工六部分掌政务。地方设路、府、州、县四级。

金朝的军事制度是一种多成分的结合体,在原女真军制的基础上,广泛吸收了契丹,渤海、奚、汉等民族的军事制度,而有其自身的特点。金朝军事机构较为简化,重视骑兵的作用,也逐步建立和发展其他兵种,军队中民族成分复杂,实行签军和募兵兵役制度,军事职官的地位较高。金朝的军制对后世的军制有一定的影响。

金国在刚刚建立起来的时候,国力非常落后,经济制度还存在着一些原始社会的残余。自太宗、熙宗、海陵王以来,金国进行了全面的转变,使其从原来的游牧部落变成了一个以农业为主的封建集权制国家,为其今后的发展奠定了基础。金时,农业、手工业和商业都得到了发展,但各地区的经济发展存在很大差异,虽然保留

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和吸收了女真族的某些文化传统，但基本上是继承辽、宋的汉族文化。



南宋
The Southern Song Dynasty

The Southern Song was a Han regime founded by Zhao Gou (known as Emperor Gaozong), with its capital in Lin'an (present-day Hangzhou, Zhejiang). The Southern Song was in a consistent menace of the Jin in the north and tried in vain in recovering its ruling of the northern part of China until it was destroyed by the Yuan Dynasty. The Southern Song had nine emperors who ruled for 153 years. Its territorial boundaries in the north extended from the Huaishui, through Tang (present-day Tanghe in Henan), Deng (east of present-day Deng County in Henan) to Dasanguan (southwest of Baoji, Shaanxi) in the Qinling Mountain, bordering the Jin and in the southeast and southwest line, it remained the same as those of the Northern Song.

The 1st year of Jingkang (1126) saw the conquest of Kaifeng, the Northern Song capital, by the Jin army. In 1127, Emperors Huizong and Qinzong were deposed, ending up the Northern Song. In the same year, Zhao Gou, the Prince of Kang and former marshal in Hebei, ascended the throne in Nanjing (south of present-day Shangqiu in Henan) after the withdrawal of the Jin troops. Zhao Gou still called his regime the "Great Song", which became known as the Southern Song, and chose the title of his reign Jianyan. Instead of appointing competent people, carrying out reforms and devising effective defensive strategies. Emperor Gaozong did the opposite by blocking his talented Chief Minister Li Gang and changed the dominant military strategy from one of active resistance to passive defense. Consequently, Li Gang's policies to develop the state could not be implemented, Zong Ze's efforts to establish Kaifeng as a fighting base for the Jin troops were wasted and the anti-Jin activities in the Central Plains were discouraged. The Song fled to Lin'an, abandoning the Huai River valley and the Yangtze River. However, the Lin'an garrison mutinied and the Jin troops took advantage of the situation to march south. Emperor Gaozong fled to the East China Sea. The Southern Song was in dire straits. As the Jin troops had failed to capture the Song emperor despite their hot

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pursuit, they started withdrawing to the north. But at Huangtiandang (south of present-day Nanjing) the withdrawing Jin troops were held up and almost crushed by the Southern Song army led by General Han Shizhong. After that, the Jin forces dared not cross the Yangtze River and the Southern Song could stand on its own feet.

Then the Southern Song took some strategic defence measures which were quite successful. First of all, it strengthened its defensive forces in Sichuan and Shaanxi. Secondly, a complete system of defensive works was built to link the Yangtze River and the eastern bank of the Huai River midstream. Thirdly, it pursued a strategy of attacking the Central Plains with Jingxiang as its base to link up with Heshuo. It also attached great importance to developing military hardware, reforming the military system and increasing the army's manpower. As a result, the situation became more favourable. However, the Southern Song pursued a policy of suing for peace and had no plan to recover the Central Plains. Moreover, its policy of appointing civil officials to control and restrain military officers greatly discouraged its generals and hindered the development of military strength. The measures taken in the 11th year of Shaoxing(1114) that depriving three great generals of their commanding power, killing the outstanding anti-Jin general Yue Fei, reduceing the number of the soldiers led to its self-destruction. Consequently, the Southern Song went into decline.

After the emergence of the Mongols, the three powers in the north—the Mongols, the Western Xia and the Jin—constantly fought against each other. This should have been the best opportunity for the Southern Song to expand. But, its rulers, having adopted a self-defence strategy, took no action at all. It was not until the Xi Xia vanished and the Jin, having lost most of its northern territories, turned to attack the Southern Song that it was forced to fight. Although the Southern Song troops held the southward marching Jin army at bay, they also suffered heavy losses. When the Mongolian forces entered at the northern bank of the Yellow River, the Southern Song no longer had any strength left to march north. Worse still, when the Jin was doomed, the Southern Song even made a decision to join with the Mongols to resist the Jin, not knowing that it would soon follow the Jin's fate. In the 2nd year of Deyou (1276), the army of Yuan invaded Ling'an, the Empress Dowager Xie and the Emperor Gong surrendered. Some anti-Yuan ministers such as Wen Tianxiang, Lu Xiufu and Zhang Shijie etc. moved to the south in Fujian and Guangzhou and tried to revive the Southern Song by establishing a mini-Song court

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. In the first year of Xiangxing (1278), Wen Tianxiang was captured by the Yuan army at Wulingpo (now north of Haifeng, Guang Dong) and was enjailed to Dadu, the capital of the Yuan. Wen was no single idea of giving in facing the alternate coercion and intimidate of the Yuan. At last he died a martyr at the capital of Yuan. In the 2nd year of Xiangxing (1279), The fleet of the Yuan led by Zhang Hongfan assaulted Yashan, the last decisive battle with the remaining Southern Song. In February, the Southern Song's troop was defeated and Lu Xiufu jumped into the sea, carrying the last emperor Zhaorui on his back. Soon Zhang Shijie pursued the same end. The Southern Song was ruined.

The political system in the Southern Song generally followed its Northern Song counterparts. But the administrative organizations were streamlined and re-structured to accommodate the new practice of autocratic centralization of power. The three secretariats and six boards of the former Northern Song Dynasty were merged in order to reduce the number of official posts and administrative organizations. But changes were not so drastic with respect to local governments. Reforms were also introduced into the military system. Early in the Southern Song, the former Northern Song's Military Council was replaced with various bodies. But at the end of the Jianyan reign (1131), the Military Council was restored to its position as the highest military body. At the same time, more military and paramilitary organizations were set up in regional areas to maintain order and to resist the Jin forces.

After the Southern Song became more politically stable, the social economy began to develop. Two-fifths smaller than its predecessor, the Southern Song's advanced agricultural techniques saw it reap rich harvests. Hence the gross productive capacity was at the same level as that of the Northern Song. To meet its military needs, the Southern Song paid great attention to weapon manufacturing, mining, metallurgy, and shipbuilding. As a result, the Southern Song surpassed the Northern Song in technique and scale of these industries.

The Xiangyang, Hanzhong, Zhejiang and the area to the east part of the Yangtze River were the bases for food supply. Meanwhile, more advanced agricultural implements were put to use and the irrigating systems were greatly improved. In handicraft industry, sericiculture, baldachin, silk and textile were also bettered. Techniques of publishing and painting were highly advanced and widely used which rendered mass production of books. The development of paper-making skills resulted in disparate papers which enhanced the culture development of the Southern Song. Pottery industry grew quite rapidly, the famous blue and white porcelain was

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created. The most common porcelain was the type known as Celadon near the end of the Song Dynasty, and celadon, bearing with the subtle lines, was made in Longquan County of Zhejiang. The exporting of the pottery wares was increased in the Southern Song Dynasty. Shipbuilding industry reached its height. The trades and business in city were flourishing and the bazaar of vary kinds could be found anywhere in the city with various goods on display. The paper money—kuaizi was first used in trade. Under the encouragement of the government, trades overseas was expanded to the Southeast Asia, Dashi (now Arab), Korea and even countries in the Eastern of Africa.

One noticeable cultural development during the Southern Song was the flourishing of moral science, especially the Neo-Confucianism which came to be the official ideology of the day. Zhu Xi was one of the people who helped develop Neo-Confucianism. While not the only person to write about Confucianism, he was the one who combined others works with his and best organized these beliefs. He selected, from the ancient writings on Confucianism, *the Four Books* and also synthesized the writings of previous philosophers who had been active earlier during the Northern Song era. Zhu Xi believed that "reason" in things existed before things themselves and all the changes in things were governed by it. As far as men were concerned, "reason" was nothing but men's nature which was inherently good; all the feudal moral standards originated in it. Blinded by the desire for material gains, man could become evil and commit violations of the feudal moral standards. The purpose of these remarks, as far as Zhu Xi was concerned, was the justification of the feudal moral standards and the necessity for people to observe them. An important part of Neo-Confucianism is the attempt to "repossess the Way." Pursuiting of the Way through disciplined self-cultivation formed a person's character. This was important because it encouraged the nobles to live up to the Confucian ideals by being less selfish.

While poetry and painting gained importance, some poets began using the vernacular styles in their writings. In the past it had been very unusual to use phrases from everyday life. The well-known form of poem was *ci*. Both Lu You and Xin Qiji were famous *ci* poets and both had participated in the anti-Jin struggle. Their works, therefore, reflected their concern for their country and their lofty sentiments and emotions. Li Qingzhao was a poetess who enjoyed a special position in Chinese literature. General Yue Fei, known for his military exploits, wrote impressive ci.

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In its simple form, drama or *zaju* made its appearance during the Northern Song Dynasty. Humorous and satirical, it consisted of recitations and dialogues; later, it was accompanied by songs and dances. The *zaju* of the Jin was not much different from that of the Southern Song. During the Southern Song Dynasty a most popular kind of *zaju* was the "Wenzhou drama" or "southern drama" developed in Wenzhou and other coastal regions of Zhejiang Province. Through the medium of songs, recitations, and dances, it told complicated stories with a variety of characters. In the Jin as well as in the Song, there were also dramatic ballads known as *zhugongdiao* or *gongdiao* . By songs and recitations, they told long stories. In terms of vocal style, *zhugongdiao* absorbed the characteristics of major melodies, *ci* , and folk ballads of the Tang and Song dynasties. Both *zaju* and *zhugongdiao* had contributed to the development of the Yuan drama.

Hua ben or vernacular tales consisted of two kinds: the long ones and the short ones. The short ones, known as *xiao shuo* , or short stories, dealt with such topics as loves, ghosts and spirits and heroic adventures. The long ones, known as *jiangshi* or historical episodes, related historical events that occurred in a certain period. They described wars and the rise and fall of dynasties and portrayed heroes and their military exploits. Revealing the seamy side of society, they were literature of realism. By the end of the Northern Song Dynasty, vernacular tales had made considerable progress. They advanced further during the Southern Song Dynasty and served as the forerunner of the novels of the Yuan and Ming dynasties. Painting reached new heights during this time. There were two main schools of painters. The first created decorative, yet realistic, paintings that show a great attention to details. The second tried to paint inner realities, as they viewed painting to be an intimate personal expression.

While being one of the most technologically and culturally advanced people in the world at the time, the Song were not militarily powerful. Part of the reason for this may be that Confucianism held military in very low regard. Confucianism did not recognize the military as being part of the four official classes of occupations; therefore, the military positions consisted of the poor, uneducated peasants, mercenaries or allies. Diplomacy was the favored form of dealing with enemies. This pracice was prolonged the period of paying tribute to enemies. In addition being not meant to be militarily strong enough to defeat them, the Southern Song was left susceptible to be attacked from others. This weakness allowed for two non-Chinese kingdoms to exist to the north of the Song and finally the Southern Song was defea-

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ted by the later grown minority tribe, the Mongolian in the Yuan Dynasty established by Kublai Khan.



南宋
The Southern Song Dynasty

南宋是北宋灭亡后，由宋皇族在江南建立起来的、以汉族为主体的封建王朝，建都临安（今浙江杭州），开国皇帝为宋高宗赵构。南宋王朝自建立以来，一直在金国的威胁之下，直至被元消灭时，也未能恢复宋朝在中国北方的统治。南宋共历九帝，前后 153 年。其疆域北以淮水，经唐（今河南唐河）、邓（今河南邓县东）二州至秦岭大散关（今陕西宝鸡西南）一线与金为界，东南、西南同北宋时期。

北宋靖康元年（1126），金军攻占北宋都城开封。次年二月，废宋徽、钦二帝，北宋灭亡。同年，原任河北兵马大元帅的赵宋皇族康王赵构，在金军退走之后，于南京（今河南商丘南）即位，仍沿用大宋国号，史称南宋，年号建炎，是为宋高宗。南宋新立，当务之急是选贤任能，革新军政，制定积极进取的战略计划。然而，宋高宗昏聩无能，任用佞人，排斥贤相李纲，改积极抗战方针为消极防御。结果导致李纲建国十策难以完全落实，宗泽经营的开封基地前功尽弃，中原抗金义军的活动遭受打击。随后，宋庭采用弃淮守江的战略，放弃两淮，南逃临安。结果造成临安卫军政变，金军亦乘机南下，宋高宗航海走避，南宋险些亡国。金军穷追宋高宗不获，由江南北撤，被南宋韩世忠部拦截在黄天荡，北撤金军险遭灭顶之灾。此后，金军不敢轻易渡江，南宋朝庭得以立足江南。

南宋在江南的统治稳固之后，实施了几项相对成功的战略举措。一是加强川陕防御，阻挡金军入川之举；二是建立以长江中游地区为重点、连结淮东的江淮防御体系，以阻止金军进攻；三是实施以荆襄为基地，联络河朔，乘隙而进，直捣中原的战略方针。同时，南宋还重视发展军事技术，改革军事制度，加强军队建设，从而使国防力量有所增强，从屡战屡败到胜多败少，战略形势逐渐向有利于南宋方面转化，曾一度出现北进的较好形势。但南宋以妥协求和，偏安自保为基本方针，贯彻以文制武的军事指挥原则，极大地抑制了领兵将帅才能的发挥，妨碍了军事的发展。尤其在绍兴十一年均为（1114）采取的解除三大将领兵权、杀害抗金名将岳飞、缩编军队等错误措施，无疑是自毁长城。结果，南宋在偏安中逐步走向衰弱。

蒙古兴起之后，蒙古、西夏、金三国在北方激战，此时是南宋向外发展的最佳时

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机。但是，南宋统治者在消极防御的战略方针指导下，对北方三国撕杀作壁上观，没有任何积极的行动。待西夏灭亡，金北方尽失，战略转移，南攻宋地，南宋才被迫应战。南宋虽能阻止金军南下，但兵力受损，蒙古势力也进入黄河以北，南宋再无力北攻。金垂亡之际，南宋尚不知唇亡齿寒，大祸将至，竟作出联蒙灭金的决策，结果寸土未得，实力暴露，最终走向灭亡。

南宋德祐二年(1276)，元军攻克临安，宋廷谢太后及恭帝投降。部分抗战派大臣南下福建、广东建立南宋行朝，文天祥、陆秀夫、张世杰等共撑危局，南宋祥兴元年(1278)十二月，文天祥在五坡岭(今广东海丰北)兵败被俘，元朝统治者将他囚禁在大都。面对元朝的种种威逼利诱，文天祥始终坚贞不屈，于至元十九年(1282)十二月就义于元大都。祥兴二年(1279)正月，元将张弘范率水军攻打崖山，与行朝进行最后决战。二月，宋军大败，陆秀夫身背末帝赵昺跳海而亡，之后张世杰堕海殉国。南宋至此灭亡。

南宋的政治制度基本上是沿袭北宋，但行政机构比北宋精简集中，适应于新形势下的专制主义中央集权。首先对中央最高行政机构三省六部进行了调整，除户部以事务繁多未减少外，其他五部通过兼领、合并而大量省并。地方府、州、军、监级和县级机构，基本沿袭北宋制度。建炎末(1131)，恢复北宋枢密院管军旧制，枢密院又成为最高军事机构。南宋建立后，为了加强对地方的统治，先后设置一些军事统御机构，对维护地方治安和抗击金军起到一定的作用。

南宋在政局稳定之后，社会经济在某些方面比北宋发达。尽管南宋国土比北宋减少2/5，但农业生产发达地区都在南宋境内。因此，南宋农业生产的总体水平并不亚于北宋。而军器制造、采矿冶炼、造船等手工业生产的技术、规模等方面都超过北宋。

南宋立国后，襄阳、汉中、两浙和江东地区渐成为粮食生产基地，农作物的栽培技术比以前也有进步。在农业工具方面出现了人工踏犁、竹龙等先进工具，水利灌溉系统也更为发达。手工业方面，养蚕织锦、丝织业、棉织业有较大发展。雕板印刷与活字印刷业非常发达，印制了大量书籍，造纸业也随之发达，可以造出各种用途的纸张，促进了南宋时期文化事业的发展。瓷器制造业也颇发达，著名的带有碎纹(称“百圾碎”)的青瓷——就是南宋浙江龙泉县烧造的，运销海外的瓷器比过去也增加了。南宋造船业十分发达。城市工商业繁荣，各种市场遍布城中，出售的商品门类繁多。首创在商业中使用纸币——会子。政府鼓励海外贸易，当时与东南亚、大食(今阿拉伯)、朝鲜、乃至东非诸国都有贸易往来。

南宋的文化事业非常发达，出现了理学家朱熹、陆九渊，文学家辛弃疾、陆游等人。其中影响最大的是理学逐步取得了官学地位。南宋时期，思想道德教育有了很大的发展，新儒家学派成为统治阶级倡导的思想信条。朱熹是新儒家思想的代表人，与其他的人不同，他将自己的观点与别人的观点结合起来，追古溯源，将古书

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《四书》有关孔子的学说与宋时活跃的哲学思想结合起来。朱熹认为,万事万物中的“理”是先于事物本身而存在的,万事万物的变化皆受制于“理”。就人类来说,“理”就是人类的本质,而人类的本质本来就是善良的,国家的一切道德标准皆来自“理”,盲目的物质追求会使人的本质变坏,进而违反社会的道德标准。朱熹的目的在于说明封建伦理道德的合理性,从而促进人们自觉地去遵守。新儒家思想试图重新回到“道”上,强调修身齐家以治国和安定天下。这在当时是很重要的,因为它要求人们遵循儒家思想不要只重一己之私利。

南宋时期诗歌和绘画也有了重大的发展,诗人在写作中运用多种表现手法,与以前不同的是他们从日常生活中吸取了大量的词语。这一时期,最有名的是词的发展。陆游和辛弃疾都是著名的词人,他们参加过南宋抗金的斗争,因此作品中多半表现出为国家命运担忧的主题。李清照是南宋著名的女词人。抗金将领岳飞也擅长作词。

杂剧这种艺术形式出现在北宋,它形式简单、幽默而具有讽刺意味,包括叙述和对话两种形式,后来又加入了说唱和舞蹈形式。金时的杂剧和南宋时相似,南宋时最流行的杂剧形式是“温州剧”,也叫南剧,起源于浙江温州的其它沿海地区。通过说唱、叙事和舞蹈表达具有许多人物的复杂故事。在金、宋时期,还有叙事民谣叫做诸宫调或宫调,通过说唱可以讲述很长的故事。从旋律上讲,诸宫调吸收了宋词和唐宋时期民谣的主要特点。诸宫调和杂剧对元朝时戏曲的发展做出了很大贡献。

话本也叫地方故事,有两种形式:长剧和短剧。短剧主要表现有关爱情、鬼神和惊险故事。长剧也叫讲史,主要是叙述一定时期的历史,它讲述战争、王朝的兴衰和军事征服。它反映社会丑陋的一面,是文学中的现实主义。北宋末年,地方剧发展很快,在南宋时期又取得了进一步的发展,是后来元、明小说的前身。南宋时的绘画也有了一定的发展,主要有两种绘画风格,一种是表现外在的现实,另一种是内心的现实,后者认为绘画就是表现亲近的内在感受。

尽管宋朝的科技和文化在当时都是领先的,但宋朝的军事却不强大。有可能是因为对儒家思想的信奉降低了军事的地位,儒家思想讲究仁政,并不把军事职位列入统治者管理的职能类别。所以军事职位主要是由穷人、文化程度较低的农民和唯利是图的人担当,因而外交就成为对付敌人的主要手段,这就使宋代的历史有很长的一段都是进贡,而不是将敌人彻底打败,这也使宋朝极易受到外敌的入侵。这种软弱使两个非汉族建立的王国得以在其北面存在,而宋本身也被日后成长起来的少数民族部落——蒙古人忽必烈汗建立的元朝所灭。

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Chapter 16 The Yuan Dynasty 元朝

The Mongol government was founded in 1206 and had its reign title Yuan in 1271. It united the whole country in 1279 and came to its downfall in 1368. The Yuan Dynasty lasted ninety-eight years totally from the year of 1271. Yuan Dynasty is another united feudal state after Qin, Han, Sui and Tang dynasties.

蒙古族政权建立于1206年,1271年正式定国号为元,1279年统一全国,1368年灭亡。从1271年算起,元朝共历时98年。元朝是继秦、汉、隋、唐以后,我国历史上又一次大统一的封建王朝。



蒙古族的兴起和元朝的统一
The Rising Up of the Mongols and the Union of the Yuan Dynasty

The rise of the Mongols and Genghis khan united the tribes: 1) The origin of the Mongols: the Mongols was an old ethnic group in the North of China, and it was called Mengwushiwei in the Tang Dynasty, a branch of Shiwei tribes. They lived in the Ergun River valley and in the 8th century they began to move to the West. At that time there were many tribes, of which the bigger ones were Tartar, Kelie, Naiman and Wanggu etc. Mongol was only the title of a tribe. When it united all the tribes, Mongol became the general name for all the tribes on the prairie. 2) Genghis khan united the mongolian tribes: from the 10th century the mongoLian tribes and clans began to be under the control of Liao and Jin. When it came to the

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12th century, with the promotion of the productivity and the increase of the outer influence, the Mongolian tribes and clans began to separate and the intense polarization of rich and poor emerged, and then the tribe nobles, shepherds and the slaves came into being. The tribes had the endless war to plunder slaves, livestocks and the pastures. Tiemuzhen, the noble of Borzhiqin of the Mongols developed his power greatly in the long-term war and united the MongoLian tribes. In 1206, the leaders of all the MongoLian tribes had a meeting and elected Tiemuzhen the Great Han and honored him Genghis khan and then the Mongolia khanates was founded.

West and South expeditions of the Mongols: After the foundation of mongolia khanates, Genghis Khan and his followers launched large-scale wars. First, Genghis Khan led the troops on a Western expedition himself from 1219 to 1225 and occupied the middle Asia and the Southern Russian pasture. Then he had the Southern expedition and conquered Xia in 1227 and Jin in 1234. In the year of 1260, Kublai inherited the Han and changed the reign title into Yuan and Kublai was Yuan Shizu (the first king of the Yuan Dynasty). Yuan Shizu continued to go to South and attacked the Southern Song Dynasty and occupied many places of the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River. There he was resisted heavily by the soldiers and people of the Southern Song Dynasty. In 1279, the Southern Song Dynasty was conquered and the Yuan Dynasty united China.

The importance that Yuan united China: That Yuan united the country ended the situation that Song, Xia and Jin's co-existence and laid a foundation for Yuan, Ming and Qing dyasties long-term unification of more than 600 years. The appearance of the united feudal empire promoted and strengthened inter-ethnic ties of economy and culture, and made the multinational country more prosperous. The unification was also a process that rulers of all ethnic groups collaborated. After the Mongols occupied the central plain, they adopted the administration of the Hans and the other ethnics, the "Han Laws" and had formed an allied government with the dominance of the Mongol aristocracy, including the Han landlords.

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蒙古族的兴起和元朝的统一
The Rising Up of the Mongols and the Union of the Yuan Dynasty

蒙古族的兴起与成吉思汗统一各部：①蒙古族的由来。蒙古族是我国北方一个古老的民族，唐朝时称“蒙兀室韦”是室韦诸部的一支。他们原住在额尔古纳河流域，8世纪时开始西迁。当时蒙古草原上有许多部落，较大的有塔塔儿、克烈、乃蛮、汪古等部。蒙古原是一个部落的名称，后来蒙古统一各部以后，它就成为草原各部的通称。②成吉思汗统一蒙古各部。10世纪开始，蒙古各部先后受辽、金控制。12世纪时，随着社会生产力的发展和外部影响的加强，蒙古的部落氏族制度开始瓦解，贫富分化激烈，出现了部落贵族、牧民和奴隶。蒙古各部首领为了掠夺奴隶、牲畜和牧地，进行了无休止的战争。蒙古部孛儿只斤氏的贵族铁木真，在长期的征战中壮大了自己的力量，统一了蒙古各部。1206年，蒙古各部首领召开大会，推举铁木真为大汗，尊称成吉思汗，建立了蒙古汗国。

蒙古的西征和南下：蒙古汗国建立后，成吉思汗及其子孙发动了大规模的战争。首先，1219年到1225年成吉思汗亲自帅军西征，占领中亚西亚和南俄罗斯草原。继而南下，1227年成吉思汗帅军灭夏，1234年灭金。1260年，忽必烈继承汗位，1271年改国号为元，即元世祖。元世祖继续南下进攻南宋，占领长江中下游许多地方，但遭到南宋军民的英勇抵抗。1279年，南宋灭亡，元朝统一了中国。

元朝统一中国的历史意义：元朝的统一，结束了辽、宋、夏、金等政权长期并立的局面，从而奠定了元、明、清600多年的长期统一的基础。大统一的封建帝国的再现，促使国内各民族之间的经济文化联系进一步加强，促使多民族国家进一步繁荣。元朝统一的过程，也是各族统治者合流的过程。蒙古贵族进占中原地区后，吸收汉族和其他各族地主参政，采用“汉法”，形成了以蒙古贵族为主，包括汉族地主在内的联合统治。

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元朝的统治政策
Ruling Policies of the Yuan Dynasty

The concurrently-used Administration of Mongols and the Establishment of Xing Sheng System: The administration of the Yuan Dynasty is a mixture of the Mongols and the Hans in general. The central government consisted of Zhongshusheng, Shumiyuan and Yushitai. Zhongshusheng controlled the national affairs. Shumiyuan controlled the military affairs and Yushitai was in charge of the laws. In the localities Xingzhongshusheng was set up, which was abbreviated as Xingsheng. Under Xingsheng there were Lu, Fu, prefectures and counties. Except the chief governor in the different levels of administration "Daluhuachi" was appointed in the governments of different levels, which were given to the Mongolians or the Semus, and they had the real power. The establishment of Xingsheng system is an important reform of the administration in the history of China and it strengthened the unification of the country. Later, the Xingshengs had been developed into the names of the administrative regions, which initially laid the essential foundation for the scales of the provinces of Ming and Qing dynasties and even the modern provinces.

The establishment of Xuanzhengyuan and Xunjiansi: The Yuan Dynasty set up Xuanzhengyuan in the Central to control Buddhism in the country and the administrative affairs in Tibet. The subordinate officials were the Buddhist or the common people, who were in charge of the military affairs and the civil administration. In the Yuan Dynasty, Tibet had been a formal administrative region under the control of the central government.

The Yuan Dynasty set up "Xunjian" on the boarder and the passes to maintain the public order. In 1360, The Yuan Dynasty set up its "Xunjiansi" in Penghu to take charge of Penghu and Taiwan.

The establishment of Military system, Relay station and Jidipu: The forces of the Yuan Dynasty consisted of the imperial guards in the Capital and the garrisons throughout the country. The garrisons were under the command of Shumiyuan.

The Yuan Dynasty built roads extending to all directions, taking the Capital

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Dadu (the modern Beijing) as the center and set up relay stations in order to "communicate with the frontiers and understand the situations in the frontiers and to deliver orders." At that time there were more than 1 300 relay stations in the country. Besides, Yuan had its Jodhpur to particularly deliver the urgent documents.

The four classes of citizens and the national oppression: the Yuan governors divided the nationalities in China then into four classes. The first was the Mongolians. The second class was the Semis (including all the ethnics in the Northwest of our country and the people came to China from the Mid Asia and Europe). The third was the Hans (they were the Hans, the Qidans and the Jurchens etc. under the control of Jin) and the fourth was the Southerners (all the nationalities in the Southern Song regions).



元朝的统治政策
Ruling Policies of the Yuan Dynasty

蒙汉兼用的统治机构与行省制的确立:元汉的统治机构大都是蒙汉兼用。中央设中书省、枢密院和御史台。中书省总理全国政务,枢密院掌管军事,御史台司监察。地方设行中书省,简称行省。行省下设路、府,州、县。各级官署除主管官吏外,均设"达鲁花赤",由蒙古人或色目人充任,掌实权。行省制度的确立,是我国历史上政权机构的重大变革,它从政治上巩固了国家的统一。这些"行省",后来发展成行政区的名称,初步奠定了明清乃至今天省区的规模。

宣政院、巡检司的设置:元朝在中央设置宣政院,管理全国佛教和藏族地区的行政事务。其下属官吏僧俗并用,兼管军事民政。元朝时,西藏正式成为我国中央政府直接管辖的一个行政区域。

元朝在沿边或关隘要地设置"巡检"管理治安等事。1360 年,元朝政府在澎湖设"巡检司",管理澎湖和台湾。

军制、驿站与急递铺的设置:元朝军队分宿卫京师的禁军和驻防各地的镇戍军。镇戍军归枢密院调遣。

元朝以都城大都(今北京)为中心,修筑四通八达的交通线,并设置驿站,以便"通达边情,布宣号令"。全国有驿站 1 300 多处。另外还设有专门传递紧急公文

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的“急递铺”。

四等级的划分与民族压迫：元朝统治者把全国各族人分为四等。第一等是蒙古人，第二等是色目人（包括我国西北地区各族及中亚、东欧来到中国的人），第三等是汉人（原金统治区域的汉族和契丹、女真等族人），第四等是南人（原南宋统治区的各族人）。



元朝的社会经济
Economy in the Yuan Dynasty

The Mongols were aware that exploitation by taxes and trade would be much more profitable for them than simple raids. They began to pay attention to the agricultural production and carried out a policy to “take the agricultures as the urgent affairs”, restored and developed agriculture at different levels. They adopted the two-tax system which was in use since the Tang Dynasty: in the north, a poll-tax combined with the biennial taxation in grain, or material and corvee labour were in use; in the south, the Mongols used the double tax system (liangshuifa), the peasants being taxed twice a year with a real-estate tax and a profit tax. To ensure the nourishment of the north, the Mongols began with the reconstruction of the Great Canal. An artisan household system was adopted in the handicraft but it made the craftsmen have no production enthusiam, which led to a low. Therefore the proficiency was low and restrained the development of the handicraft. However commerce was prosperous in the Yuan Dynasty. Dadu was the center of the politics and economy of the country and also the famous city in the world. Merchants, missionaries and diplomats from Europe, Asia and Africa often gathered there. The foreign trade of the Yuan Dynasty covered the areas of Korea, Japan, and the seacoast of Africa, which was very active. And it was monopolized by the government.

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元朝的社会经济
Economy in the Yuan Dynasty

元朝的统治者明白，通过税收剥削和贸易往来比单单抢夺有利的多。于是，他们开始重视农业生产，实行了“以农桑为急务”的政策，使各地的农业生产都得到不同程度的恢复和发展。他们采纳了自唐朝以来一直沿用的两税制：在北方，实行人头税和两年一征的田税，或实物税和徭役制；在南方，蒙古 统治者实行了两税制，即农民一年交纳两次税。为了确保北方的繁荣，他们重开大运河。在手工业方面实行匠户制度，但是它使工匠们无生产积极性，因而生产效率不高，限制了手工业的发展。但元朝时期商业贸易发达。大都是全国政治经济中心，也是当时世界闻名的城市，经常有欧、亚、非各国的使节、友人、传教士等集聚。元朝的对外贸易，东起朝鲜、日本，西达非洲海岸，十分活跃。并且，当时的对外贸易由政府垄断。



元朝的文化
Cultures in the Yuan Dynasty

The intermingling of different religions and the position of Lamaism: Like the Tang Dynasty, when many religions came to China from the West and from the inland of Asia, Yuan China as open to the merchants coming from the West, who had different religious beliefs. Muslims were special allies of the Mongols and had therefore access to many positions prohibited from Chinese. A special place in the Mongol empire was reserved for Lamaism. Lamaism enjoyed state protection. As Buddhism in China had already reached and even surpassed the summit, the history of Chinese Buddhism was ready to be written down, like in the book *Fozu Lidai Tongshi*. Religion was also a tool for the masses to rebell against the harsh Mongol rule, the exploitation by the exclusive class of Mongols and the rich Chinese gentry. The secret societies rebelling against Mongol rule with the protection of religions were the White Lotus Society (Bailianjiao), the White Cloud Society (Baiyun-

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jiao) and the Red Turbans (Hongjin).

Yuan songs and main writers: Yuan songs are as important as Tang poetry and Song ci, which represents the important achievement in the literature in Yuan Dynasty. Yuan songs include Sanqu was and Zaju. Sanqu was the new style verses in the Yuan Dynasty, and zaju (Yuan dramas) was a kind of comprehensive drama. The famous writers and their masterpieces in the Yuan Dynasty are: Guan Hanqing and his "*Dou E Yuan*", Wang Shipu and his "*Xixiang Ji*", Ma Zhiyuan and his "*Han Qiugong*" and Bai Pu and his "*Wutong Yu*" and so on. Of all the writers, Guan Hanqing had the greatest influence. He had written more than 60 plays, and more than ten of them have been handed down so far. In 1958, Guan Hanqing was listed as the world literary celebrity.

The science of history and "*Wen Xian Tong Kao*" by Ma Duanlin: The science of history in the Yuan Dynasty has made achievements in many ways. The representatives of the historical works are the privately compiled "*Wen Xian Tong Kao*" and the official revision of "*The History of Song*", "*The History of Liao*" and "*The History of Jin*" and so on.

"*Wen Xian Tong Kao*" was compiled by the historian Ma Duanlin in the early years of the Yuan Dynasty. It covers more than twenty-four fields such as tax, monetary, registered permanent residence and the positions etc. The book has three hundred and forty-eight volumes.

Scientific achievements and "*The Official Calendar*" by Guo Shoujing: It had its development in science and technology in the Yuan Dynasty. Great achievements were made in mathematics, astronomy, calendar, geography, agriculture and medicine etc. "*A Book of Agriculture*" by Wang Zhen in the Yuan Dynasty is the most perfect encyclopedia about agriculture since the "*Qi Min Yao Shu*".

The scientist Guo Shoujing in the Yuan Dynasty was good at astronomy, calendar, mathematics and water conservancy, who stressed on the on-spot observation. He had made thirteen kinds of astronomic equipments and observed, measured the celestial phenomena. On the basis of his observation and research, Guo Shoujing made the "*Imperial Calendar*". The "*Imperial Calendar*" took 365.2425 days as a year and which only missed 26 seconds compared with the real time needed that the sun goes around the earth once. It is same to the Geliego Calendar in use today, but it was three hundred years earlier than the Geliego Calendar.

The communication of the Eastern and Western cultures: In the era of Song

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and Yuan, esp. in the Yuan Dynasty, the culture between China and the west got obvious development. The four great inventions of China (printing, compass, gunpowder and papermaking) were introduced to Europe by the Arabians and they played an important part in the development of economy and science in Europe.

The three west expeditions of the Mongols promoted the communication between China and Europe. The ambassadors, merchants, travelers and priests from the west came to China continuously. The most famous one of them was Marco. Poro. He came to China in 1271 and had stayed in China for seventeen years. He had been an official in the Yuan government and had traveled to many big cities in China then. He described vividly about China then in his "*Journey of Marco. Poro*", which stimulated the Westerners' desire for the Chinese civilizations.



元朝的文化
Cultures in the Yuan Dynasty

各类宗教的兼蓄并容与喇嘛教的地位:和唐朝时期一样,当来自西方和亚洲内陆的各种宗教传入中国的时候,元朝总是敞开大门,欢迎这些来自西方的、具有不同宗教信仰的商人。穆斯林是蒙古人的特别盟友,因此其中的很多职位对于汉人来说受到限制。喇嘛教在蒙古帝国有其特殊地位,享有蒙古人的国家保护。佛教在中国已经达到甚至已过了高峰期,因此,当时中国的佛教史已经可以著书立传了,即《佛祖历代通史》。但是,宗教也是群众反对蒙古人残暴统治、反对蒙古阶级的剥削和汉人贵族的工具。在反对蒙古人统治的历史上,曾经利用宗教做掩护的组织有白莲教、白云教和红巾军。

元曲及其代表作家:元曲与唐诗、宋词并称,它代表了元代文学的主要成就。元曲包含散曲和杂剧两个部分,散曲是元代的新体诗,杂剧是一种综合性的戏剧艺术。元代著名的杂所作家及其作品有:关汉卿的《窦娥冤》,王实甫的《西厢记》,马致远的《汉宫秋》,白朴的《梧桐雨》等。其中关汉卿的影响最大,他写过 60 多个剧本,流传到现在的尚有 10 多个。1958 年,关汉卿被列为世界文化名人。

史学及马端临的《文献通考》:元朝的史学成就是多力面的。较有代表性的史学著作有私家编撰的《文献通考》等和官修的《宋史》、《辽史》、和《金史》等。

《文献通考》是宋末元初史学家马端临编撰,分田赋、钱币、户口、职役等 24 门类,共 348 卷。

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科学成就与郭守敬的《授时历》:元朝科学技术也有所发展。在数学、天文历法、地理学、农业科学、医药学等方面都有许多成就。元朝王祯的《农书》,是《齐民要术》以来最完备的农业知识百科全书。

元朝科学家郭守敬,精于天文历法、数学和水利,并重视实地观侧。他制作了13种天文仪器,并对天象进行实侧。郭守敬根据观侧和研究,制定了《授时历》。《授时历》以365.2425天为一岁,和地球绕太阳一周的实际时间只差26秒,与和现行的公历(《格列高利历》)一年周期相同,但比现行公历的确立早300年。

元朝东西文化的交流:宋元时期,特别在元代,中国和西方的文化交流有了显著发展。中国的四大发明(印刷术,指南针、火药和造纸术)先后经过阿拉伯人传入欧洲,对欧州的经济文化发展起了重要作用。

蒙古贵族三次西征,客观上促进了中国同欧洲的联系。西方各国的使臣、商人、旅行家、传教士络绎不绝来到中国,其中最著名的是意大利威尼斯人马可·波罗。马可·波罗于1271年来到中国,留居中国17年,曾在元朝做官,游历过中国许多大城市。他在《马可·波罗行记》中对当时的中国作了生动具体的描写,激起了西方人对中国文明的向往。



农民大起义和元朝的灭亡
Peasants Uprising and the Downfall of the Yuan Dynasty

In the later period of the Yuan Dynasty, the land was centralized. The people were poor, andethnic conflicts and class contradictions were intensified. The rule of the Yuan Dynasty grew more and more corrupt. The scrambling for the throne was terribly serious. At the end of the Yuan Dynasty, the plagues of locusts, drought, flood and earthquake took place one after another and year after year. The natural disasters and man-made calamities pushed the masses to the edge of the death. Therefore rebellions happened one by one. The rising up of the Red Turbans led by Liu Futong destroyed the reign of Yuan completely. In 1352, Zhu Yuanzhang, who was a tenant, joined the Red Turbans led by Guo Zixing, and he developed his power and influence step by step. In 1367, he issued the war proclamation against Yuan and raised a clarion call "to drive out the Dalu and restore China". He sent the generals Xu Da and Chang Yuchun to fight in the

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North. In the year of 1368, Zhu Yuanzhang made himself the emperor in Yingtian and founded the Ming Dynasty. He was honored Ming Taizu (the first king of the Ming Dynasty). In the same year, the Ming armies occupied Dadu. The Mongol gentry escaped to the North, and the Yuan Dynasty died out.

The features and historical meaning of the Peasant Uprisings at the end of Yuan: The Peasant Uprising at the end of the Yuan Dynasty is a great struggle against the Yuan feudal control and national oppression with the major force of the Hans and the other nationalities. The peasant armies raised the call to fight against the Yuan and restore Song, which had the color of national struggle, but actually a class one.

The peasant uprising overthrew the Yuan Dynasty though it was made use by the class of landlords as tools to change dynasties. It made the four Khan countries lose their common leader, and this is a great event with world historical importance. It blew the feudal landlords with the Mongol gentry as the main force and the peasants got certain land. In the rising, many Qukou (they had lower social status than the tenants), slaves and craftsmen got their freedom and created conditions for the production development in the early years of the Ming Dynasty.



农民大起义和元朝的灭亡
Peasants Uprising and the Downfall of the Yuan Dynasty

元朝后期土地集中，人民贫困，阶级矛盾和民族矛盾激化。元朝的统治也日趋腐朽，帝位之争异常激烈。元朝末年连年出现蝗旱、水灾和地震。天灾人祸把广大人民群众推到死亡的边沿，武装起义相继而起。刘福通领导的红巾起义从根本上瓦解了元朝的统治。1352 年佃农出身的朱元璋参加了郭子兴的红巾军并逐步扩大自己的势力和力量，于 1367 年发布讨元檄文，提出“驱逐鞑虏，恢复中华”的口号，派大将徐达、常遇春率军北伐。1368 年朱元璋在应天称帝，建立明朝，始称明太祖。同年，明军攻占大都，蒙古贵族逃亡塞北，元朝灭亡。

元末农民大起义的特点和历史意义：元末农民大起义是以汉族人民为主体、包括其他各族劳动人民在内的反对元朝封建统治和民族压迫的一场大规模斗争。农民军在斗争中提出反元复宋等口号，带有民族斗争的色彩，但其实质仍然是阶级

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斗争。

元末农民大起义虽然最后被地主阶级利用去作为改朝换代的工具，但它推翻了元朝，使四大汗国失去了共主，这是具有世界历史意义的大事。这次起义打击了以蒙古贵族为首的封建地主阶级，使农民获得部分土地。在起义中，大量驱口（比当时佃农的社会地位还要低）、奴隶、匠户争得了自由，为明初的生产发展创造了条件。

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Chapter 17 明朝 Ming Dynasty

Ming Dynasty lasts 277 years from the foundation in 1368 by Zhu Yuanzhang to its destruction by the peasant uprising in 1644. It is another dynasty of great influence in Chinese history after Han and Tang dynasties.

The founder of the Ming Dynasty, Zhu Yuanzhang (reign motto Hongwu or "Inundating Martiality"), was a poor man when he joined the Red Turban (Hongjin) rebellion in the lower Yangtze region. Similar to the founder of the Han Dynasty, he was very suspicious of the educated courtiers around him and exerted an extremely authoritarian regime ("the tyrant of Nanjing"). This harsh governmental style was partly due to the influence of governmental institutions of the previous Mongol period that was marked by a strong centralization. Zhu Yuanzhang, full of mistrust, took over the whole responsibility of the imperial administration by abolishing crucial ministries and secretaries. To control the highest officials at the court, he installed the so-called Brocade Guards (Jinyiwei), a kind of secret service staffed with the only kind of people he trusted, namely the eunuchs. During the whole course of the Ming Dynasty, there was always prevalent a deep mistrust between the scholarship elite, who occupied the governmental posts in the capitals and in the prefectures, and the central government, that was often deeply influenced by some high ranking eunuchs. The authoritarian and centralized politics of the Ming government led to a status of immovability and orthodoxy.

The second emperor of Ming was overthrown by his own uncle, who adopted the reign title Yongle/ "Everlasting Joy", and shifted the capital from Nanjing (Yingtianfu) to Beijing (Jingshi or Shuntianfu). The Yongle Emperor's reign was the most flourishing time of the Ming Dynasty.

The Ming Dynasty is famous for the influence of the eunuchs on political affairs. Basically trusted with tasks of imperial household affairs, many eunuchs were able to climb up the social ladder and to occupy posts at the court that made them able to influence the ruler and his decisions. The great part of the eunuchs came

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from poor families of north of China, while the scholar-officials that traditionally occupied governmental posts came from gentry clans in southern China. The problem of the intermingling of the eunuchs into state affairs was not initial in Yuan: The last Han emperor had to get rid of the eunuchs with the help of a military dictator, and the Song Dynasty scholar Ouyang Xiu wrote an essay about the influence of eunuchs. The intermingling of the eunuchs into state affairs led finally to the corruption, chaos, and destruction of the country.

明朝从1368年朱元璋建国,到1644年为农民起义所推翻,前后共存在277年,是继汉、唐之后又一个影响较大的王朝。

明朝的开国皇帝,朱元璋(年号洪武),在长江下游一带加入红巾军起义时穷困潦倒。和汉朝的开国皇帝一样,朱元璋生性对那些饱读私塾的大臣们放心不下,于是实行绝对集权制(南京暴君)。这个可怕的政府形式部分是因为仿效蒙古政府构成的影响,因为前蒙古政权的特点就是高度中央集权制。朱元璋,总是错信他人,通过取消朝中重要机构和罢免朝中大臣而将大权独揽一身。为了控制朝中高官,设立了所谓的锦衣卫,这个秘密机构里面安插了他所信任的宦官。在明朝的历史上,大臣们一直是互不信任,这些人无论在京都、州府,还是朝中都身居要位,都深受官居极品的宦官的迫害。明政府的这种霸道的、集权化的政治导致了国家的不稳定和呆板。

明朝的第二任皇帝是被其叔叔篡位的。篡位后自封永乐皇帝,并将京都从南京(应天府)迁到北京(京师或顺天府)。永乐皇帝年间是明朝历史上最为繁荣的时期。

明朝以宦官干预政治而著名,本来宦官都是委以皇宫内院之事,但是,很多宦官都能爬到社会阶层,在皇宫中占据要位而影响统治者及其决策。大部分宦官来自中国北方的贫困家庭,而那些饱学私书的传统上位居高官的人们,则来自中国南方的贵族世家。然而,在明朝宦官干预国家事务并不是新鲜事:汉朝的最后一个皇帝不得不求助于军队才除掉权势过重的宦官;宋朝学者欧阳修曾撰文批评当政、跋扈的宦官。宦官的当政最终都导致了一个国家的腐败、混乱和最终的灭亡。

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明朝前期的政治和经济
Politics and Economy in the Early Years of the Ming Dynasty

The ownership of the land had certain changes after the peasant uprising at the end of the Yuan Dynasty. The number of owner-peasants had increased. On the base of relatively-scattered land, Ming governors in the early years had set up a highly-centralized government and also had carried out certain measures to restore and develop economy. All of these are embodied in the following points: 1) It strengthened the absolute monarchy and set up the central and local administrations. In the army, a system of Weisuo was carried out. Ming Taizu set up a special military administration with special tasks to guard the emperor, a guard administration, Jinyiwei. It made the literary inquisition to a large scale, which made a lot of intellectuals suffer terrible man-made accidents. It practiced new school system and examination system to debar people's thinking. In order to control the peasants and ensure the tax, it made the Huang Ce (the Yellow Book) and the Yulin Ce (the Fishscale Book). 2) It moved the capital to Beijing. Ming Chengzu continued to strengthen up the centralized government and adopted the policy to abolish the vassal states and forced the dukes in the north to the south and some of them were degraded to commoner status. The national and the military rights were in the hands of the emperor himself. Meanwhile, Ming Chengzu decided to move the capital to Beijing in order to strengthen the Northern frontier. From the year of 1417, it began to build the city of Beijing in a large scale and it was finished in three years. In 1421, the Ming government moved its capital officially to Beijing. That Ming moved its capital to Beijing had its importance in guarding the trouble from the Northern Mongols and maintaining the integration of the country. 3) The early policies, restoration and development of economy were made. Diverse measures to restore and develop the economy had been designed, which had changed the highly-centralized phenomenon of the land to a certain degree and improved the identity and social status of the peasants and the craftsmen. The development of agriculture and handicrafts promoted the commerce and

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the city economy. Then the commercial cities appeared and the merchants had more movements and the tax had been improved.



明朝前期的政治和经济
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经过元末农民战争之后，土地占有关系发生了一些变化，自耕农的数量增加了。在土地比较分散的基础上，明初统治者建立一个高度中央集权的政权，并采取了恢复和发展经济的措施。主要表现在以下几个方面：

君主专制统治的加强，建立中央和地方的统治机构。在军队方面，实行卫所制度，明太祖还设立了一个保卫皇帝并从事侦缉活动的军事特务机构——厂卫机构，锦衣卫；大搞文字狱，使许多知识分子无辜罹难；实行新的学校制度和科举制度，禁锢人们的思想；为了控制农民和保证赋役来源，制订了黄册和鱼鳞图册以加强对人民的控制。

迁都北京。明成祖继续加强中央集权，采取削藩政策，将北方诸王迁往南方，有的被废为庶人，国家军政大权又集中于皇帝。同时，明成祖为了巩固北方边防，决定迁都北京。1417 年开始，大规模营建北京城，历时三年始告建成。1421 年，明政府正式迁都北京。迁都北京对于防御北方蒙古侵扰和维护国家统一有着重要意义。

明初经济政策与社会经济的恢复和发展。制订了恢复和发展经济的各项措施，一定程度上改变了土地高度集中的现象，改善了农民和手工业者的身份地位。农业和手工业的发展，促进了商业和城市经济的繁荣，商业城市兴起，商人活动频繁，商税收入增加。



张居正改革
Zhang Juzheng Reform

Historical background: The mid-Ming was faced with the political crisis be-

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cause the national defence power was weakening down except for the political corruption, high centralization of the land, poverty of the people and the country and the rising seriousness of the class contradictions. The northern Tartars took the chance to aggress and the Japanese pirates troubled the southeast seacoast areas from time to time. All of these made the governors consider the problem to save the country themselves.

Reform: In the year of 1573, Zhang Juzheng occupied the office of the Chief Minister of the cabinet. He reformed by taking it as the core to strengthen the centralization. In politics, he advocated to bring order into the local administration and cut off the unnecessary officials. In the army, he improved the frontier defense and appointed the strategist Qi Jiguang to guard Jimen and the strategist Li Chengliang to guard Liaodong. He also agreed to trade tea and horses with the Tartars and has the peaceful coexistence. In economy, he measured the land again and clarified the private land that the despots had grabbed for. He invited the water conservancy expert Pan Jixun to harness the rivers. He reformed the tax system and advocated the one-whip system.

The importance of the Reform Zhang: Juzheng Reform had improved the financial state of the Ming government and strengthened the frontier defense. The military power had been strengthened as well. But the reform annoyed the present interests of the bureaucrats and the landlords and was against seriously by them. In 1582, Zhang Juzheng died and the reform was stopped at the same time. But the way to collect tax in silver was maintained.



张居正改革
Zhang Juzheng Reform

历史背景：明朝中期面临着政治危机，当时除了统治腐朽、土地高度中、民贫财竭、阶级矛盾日益尖锐外，国防力量也逐渐削弱。北方鞑靼乘机侵扰，倭寇也不断入侵东南沿海。这些都迫使统治阶级不得不考虑改革自救的问题。

改革的内容：1573 年，张居正任内阁首辅。他以加强中央集权为中心进行政治改革。政治方面，澄清吏治，裁减冗员；军事方面，整顿边防，任用军事家戚继光守卫蓟门，李成梁镇守辽东，并与鞑靼进行茶马互市，和平相处；经济方面，丈量土

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地，清查豪强地主的隐田，聘请水利专家潘季驯主持治河，改革赋役制度，推行一条鞭法。

改革的作用：张居正改革，改善了明政府的财政状况，明朝北方边防得到巩固，军事力量也有所增强。由于这次改革触犯了大官僚地主的一些眼前利益，遭到他们的强烈反对。1582 年，张居正逝世，改革也随之终止，但用银两收税的办法却保留了下来。



明朝与周边的关系
Relations with the Territories around of the Ming Dynasty

A brief introduction: The Ming armies pushed back the Mongols to their original territories and rushed into Inner Asia to occupy territories that had been Chinese prefectures since the Han Dynasty. Only in the 15th century, the Ming armies suffered a throwback by the joined troops of Mongols, Oirats, and "Tartars". In the Northeast the Ming troops occupied Manchuria, and the Korean kingdom (Chosŏn) of the Li Dynasty could be forced to accept the nominal supremacy of the Ming Dynasty. In the south, Ming troops could occupy northern Vietnam for a couple of years, but in 1427 the Lê Dynasty could free Vietnam (Dai Viêt) from Chinese troops. The Ming government and Buddhist institutions had intense relations with the different dukedoms ("daimyats") of Japan. Likewise, Buddhist monks traveled to Tibet and India. The most important demonstration of Ming authority were the expeditions of the 15th century, led by the eunuch general Zheng He, "Sanbao Taijian". The Zheng He expeditions even reached Persia, Arabia and East Africa. The successful reoccupation of proper China until the end of 14th century was stopped at these traditional frontiers by the restrengthened nomad peoples. The Great Wall was rebuilt and refortified in the mid of 15th century. A further cause of the redraw of the Ming government from the international stage were the attacks of Japanese pirates (Wokou; Japanese: Wako) along the whole east coast. Among these pirates, smugglers and "grey" merchants were also Chinese outlaws and people from Southeast Asia. Pirates of the 16th century attacked all important cities of the Chinese east cost. Only in the 1560s the Chinese government was able

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to take control over the sea traffic on the east coasts.

The importance and influence of Zheng He's travel to the West: First, the travel to the West of Zheng He was the great event in the world navigation history, and it is more than half a century earlier than the opening of the new sea route by the European navigator Columbia. It is a great contribution to the world navigation. Second, it opened the sea route from China to the Red Sea and the seacoast of the East Africa. Third, it broadened the international trade and strengthened the friendship between the Chinese and the peoples of the Asian and African countries. Fourth, it made the oversea Chinese move to the Southeast Asia and promoted the development of the Southeast Asia.

Robbery of the Europeans to China: In the 16th century, the European colonists began to attack the Southeast seacoast areas of China. The Portuguese often robbed along the seacoast area after they had occupied the Strait of Malacca. In 1626 the Spanish occupied Jilong and Danshui in Taiwan.

In 17th century, the Dutch dominated the sea in the world and tried to open the gate of China with force. In 1603 the Dutch occupied Penghu and was driven away by the soldiers and people in Fujian very soon. Then in 1624 the Dutch defeated the Spanish and occupied Taiwan alone. The Dutch carried the colonial control in Taiwan, which aroused the strong rebellion from the people in Taiwan.



明朝与周边的关系
Relations with the Territories around of the Ming Dynasty

简述：明朝军队将蒙古人赶回到了他们原来的驻地，然后蜂拥至中亚地区并占领了自汉朝以来一直是中国的省府的地域。仅在15世纪中期，明朝军队就遭遇到由蒙古人、瓦剌人和鞑靼人的联合军队的阻击。在中国东北地区，明朝军队占领了满族人的居住地和朝鲜王国，当时朝鲜被迫接受了明朝名义上的统治。在南方，明朝军队占领越南北部达2年之久。1427年，黎朝从中国部队手里解放了越南（当时叫大越）。当时，明政权以及佛院和日本的各公国之间关系紧张，同时，佛教僧侣西去西藏和印度。而对明朝在世界上的权威最具说明意义的，是15世纪由太监郑和（三宝太监）率队所进行的远航。郑和的远航曾一度到达波斯、阿拉伯和非洲。

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到了14世纪末期,强大的中国对周边成功的再占领止于重新强大了的游牧民族。15世纪中期,明朝对长城进行了重新维修和加固。但是明政府在世界舞台上的萎缩其更深原因是由于日本海盗在中国东南沿海的袭扰,这些日本海盗、走私者和"灰色"商人中夹杂由中国的犯人和南亚人,他们袭击中国东部海岸的所有重镇。直到16世纪60年代,明朝政府才控制了东海岸的水上交通。

郑和下西洋的意义和影响:一、郑和下西洋是世界航海史上的壮举,比欧洲航海家哥伦布开辟新航路早半个多世纪,这是我国人民对航海事业的伟大贡献。二、开辟了中国到达红海、东非沿岸的新航道。三、扩大了国际贸易,增进了中国同亚非国家人民的友谊。四、进一步推动华侨移向南洋,从而促进了南洋的开发。

欧洲人对中国的掠夺:16世纪时,欧洲殖民者开始侵扰我国东南沿海地区。葡萄牙人占领满剌加(马六甲)后,常到我国沿海劫掠。1626年,西班牙殖民者侵占我国台湾的基隆和淡水。

17世纪荷兰称霸海上,企图用武力打开中国大门。1603年,荷兰侵占彭湖,不久,被福建军民驱逐。1624年,荷兰人乘明朝防务松弛,侵占我国台湾南部。后来,荷兰人又打败西班牙人,独占台湾。荷兰在台湾实行殖民统治,引起台湾人民的强烈反抗。



明代的文化
Cultures in the Ming Dynasty

Further development of Neo-Confucian philosophy: Although Confucianism had been adopted as "orthodox" state doctrine since the Han Dynasty, and Neo-Confucianism since the Yuan Dynasty, there existed many liberate and oppositional ways of thought among the Confucian scholarship, especially from the Donglin Academy. Taoism and Chan-Buddhism showed their influence in the thinking of Ming scholars that retired from official posts and developed quietistic philosophies. The greatest Ming philosopher is Wang Yangming or Wang Shouren. He proposed that an innate knowledge enable man to reach goodness even without learning or studying the Confucian Classics. Li Zhi even renounced the orthodox Confucianism and accused his contemporaries of pharisaism. He sympathized with Buddhism and vernacular literature of the urban population, and he acted as advocate of discriminated and disadvantaged groups like the poor average people, women and

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ethnic minorities. Li Zhi's words and behaviours were lodged a false accusation against the classics and orthodoxy by the governors and he was arrested and put into prison and died there.

Science and technology: In the field of science and technology, numerous publications about geography - also of foreign countries, techniques, agronomy, geology, craftsmanship, military, medicine and pharmacology were published, for example Chen Fu's and Wang Zhen's *Nongshu* or "*Book of Agronomy*", Xu Guangqi's agronomic encyclopedia *Nongzheng Quanshu*, and Li Shizhen's pharmacological encyclopedia *Bencao Gangmu*. Another interesting book is the illustrated encyclopedia *Sancai Tuhui* or "*Assembled illustrations of the Three Realms of Heaven, Earth and Man*". Another famous book which is about science and technology is Song Yingxing's "*Tian Gong Kai Wu*". And "*Traveling Notes of Xu Xiake*" is a book about Chinese geography by the greatest traveler Xu XiaKe then in the Ming dynasty, who traveled on foot to all the famous and great mountains and rivers in China. At the end of the Ming, Jesuit missionaries translated Western writings (and not only the *Bible*), and Chinese writers described machines the Jesuits had presented to the Chinese Emperors. Like today, the Chinese scholars of late Ming Dynasty were especially interested in science and technique of the West. The Western missionaries and travelers also brought Chinese science to Europe.

Anecdotes, stories and novels: The advance in printing technique as well as the demand from an urban public made it necessary and possible for vernacular literature to become more widespread than ever before. Anecdotes, stories and tales were published in collections like "*Pai'an Jingqi*" or "*Surprising Stories Causing the Reader to Pound the Table*" and "*Jingu Qiguan*" or "*Wonderful Tales of Old and New Times*". Probably the most important late Ming anecdote writer is Feng Menglong who wrote the ghost story "*Pingyaozhuan*" and the collection "*Xingshi Hengyan*" or "*Proverbs Awakening the World*". Apart from short stories, voluminous novels were written that consisted of hundreds of small tales about local and historic heroes: the hero tales "*Journey to the West*" by Wu Cheng'en, "*Investiture of the Gods*" edited by Xu Zhonglin, the "*Three Kingdoms*", and the "*Water Margin*" or "*Bandits of Liangshan Swamp*" by Luo Guanzhong, and finally, the erotic social critic "*Plums in a Golden Vase*". Theatre plays had been popular since the Song Dynasty, and we possess a collection of famous Yuan theatre plays published during Ming, the "*Yuanquxuan*". The greatest Ming theatre play is Tang Xianzu's "*Peony Pavilion*".

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明代的文化
Cultures in the Ming Dynasty

新理学的进一步发展:尽管理学自汉朝以来被认为是正统的国教,但是,自元朝时候起,新理学就以多种自由的和相反的思想形式在理学者,特别是东林院中流行。道教和禅宗佛学在明朝退休的高官中有很大影响,并发展成了清静无为哲学。明朝最伟大的哲学家是王阳明(王守仁),他认为,人可以不学习、不研究理学,其良知就能让其达到善界。李贽甚至完全放弃传统的理学,并批评他同时期的哲学家的伪善。他同情佛教和城里人的本语言文学,并为那些受歧视和处于弱势的人群如贫穷的老百姓、妇女和少数民族而充当辩护人。李贽的言行被当时统治者诬为离经叛道,结果被捕下狱而死。

科学技术:在科学技术方面,一系列的关于国内国外的地理学、技术、农学、地质学、手工业、军事、医学和药物学的作品出版发行。如,陈甫和王祯的《农书》,徐光启的《农政全书》和李时珍的《本草纲目》。另一本有趣的著作是《三才图会》,书中诠释了三大王国——天国、地球和人类的关系。著名的科技读物是宋应星的《天工开物》。而明朝时期大旅行家徐霞客的《徐霞客游记》则讲述了中国的地理情况,徐霞客徒步游遍了中国的名川大山。明朝末年,耶稣使者翻译了大量的西方作品(不仅仅是《圣经》),中国作家也讲述了使者们送给中国皇帝的机器。和今天一样,明朝时期的中国学者们对西方的科学技术都极为感兴趣。而西方的传教士和旅行家也把中国的科学带到了欧洲。

文学艺术:印刷术的发展和城镇居民的需要使本土文学有必要、有可能比以前任何时候发展的更快。奇闻逸事、小说和故事常常成册发行,如《拍案惊奇》、《今古奇观》等。明朝晚期最著名的奇闻作家也许是冯梦龙,他著写了神鬼小说《平妖传》和《醒世恒言》。除短篇小说外,长篇小说又叫章回小说也有大量出版,它们通常包括有关地方和社会英雄的数百个故事。如,吴承恩的《西游记》,还有许仲琳编辑的《封神演义》,罗贯中的《三国演义》和《水浒传》,还有最后时期的描写性爱的遭到社会批判的《金瓶梅》。自宋朝以来戏曲一直很流行,直到现在我们还有在明朝时期出版的著名元曲集锦《元曲选》,明朝时期最伟大的戏曲是汤显祖的《牡丹亭》。

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明末农民大起义
Peasants Uprising at the End of the Ming Dynasty

At the end of the Ming Dynasty, it was corrupt in politics. The emperor often did not go to court and the government was in the control of the eunuchs. The eunuchs practiced graft and accepted bribes, sold and bought positions and scrambled for the rights and interests, which deepened the social crisis. In 1594, Langzhong of the Board of the Civil Office, Gu Xiancheng, was removed from his office and returned to his hometown, Wuxi. He taught together with Gao Panlong and Qian Yiben and so on in the Donglin Academy. They discussed the governmental administration, criticized the groups in office. They were supported by most of the scholar-officials and were called the Donglin Party. The Donglin Party disapproved of Shenzong's dethroning the oldest son to be the successor with the substitute of the younger one, they were against the robbery of the mine supervisors and the tax supervisors. They advocated to open up for the criticisms and suggestions and to restore the governmental administration, so they were hated by the groups in office. In 1601, the tax supervisor Sun Long came to Suzhou. He set up barriers, extorted the merchants and decided to levy three *qian* silver for every loom and three *fen* silver for every bolt of silk. The weaving households stopped weaving to show their protest. The unemployed weavers went to the street on strike under the leadership of Ge Xian. They enclosed the Tax Department and killed the tax official, and Sun Long was frightened to escape at night. The fight against the tax and mine supervisors broke out as well in other more than 10 cities. The fights are the reflection of the seeds of the capitalism in politics at the end of the Ming Dynasty.

The annexation of land came to the surprising extent at the end of the Ming Dynasty. The emperor awarded a great amount of land to his gentry, ministers, and the eunuchs. Ming Shenzong once awarded his son the land of two million *mu*. The landlords and bureaucrats annexed land greatly. In the Taihu valley, nine tenths of peasants lost their land.

The tax exploitation of the feudal government became more and more serious. The heavy taxes and the high centralization of the land made more peasants lose their land. They became either tenants, slaves and servants, or tramps and famime refugee, and some were even forced to rise up. In the late Ming Dynasty,

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the internal contradiction among the ruling class became more intense, and so were the class contradictions. It was unavoidable for the large-scale peasants uprising to break out. Therefore it broke out in Shaanbei. The insurrectionary army fought from place to place in the areas of Henan, Hubei and Sichuan. In 1634, they gathered in Xingyang, Henan and talked over the measures against the government. At the meeting they accepted the suggestions of Li Zicheng, who was a follower of Gao Yingxiang. From then on, the peasant war at the end of Ming came to a new stage under the leadership of Li Zicheng and Zhang Xianzhong.

In the year of 1643, Li Zicheng founded the new government in Xiangyang and titled himself Xinshun Emperor. In the early 1644, he commanded the Great Shun Army to start from Xi'an, go through Datong and Xuanhua, enter Juyong Gate and enclose Beijing. The soldiers guarded the city gave in. Emperor Chongzhen committed suicide. On March 19, Li Zicheng and his army entered into the city of Beijing and the corrupt reign of the Ming Dynasty was overthrown.

After the Great Shun Army entered the city of Beijing, the national political situation changed greatly. The landlord class was not willing to give up their authority and they attempted to rise up again. In April 1644, Li Zicheng commanded the army to suppress the rebellion in the east and had a fierce battle with Wu Sangui in Shanhai Gate. However, the Qing army joined in the battle unexpectedly. The peasant army was taken by surprise and suffered a great loss. In 1645, Li Zicheng was attacked by the landlord force in Jiugongshan Mountain of Tongshan County, Hubei and died a hero's death. At the end of 1646, Zhang Xianzhong died and the peasants uprising at the later period of Ming failed eventually.

The historical importance of the peasant uprising at the end of the Ming: The peasants uprising at the end of the Ming Dynasty is a most large-scale peasant war in the Chinese feudal society. It overthrew the corrupt rule of the Ming Government, stroked the landlord class, adjusted partially the production relationship and created conditions for the development of productive forces in the early Qing Dynasty. The insurrectionary army raised a clarion call to "average the land and stop the tax" and directed the spearhead of struggle to the feudal land ownership, which symbolizes that the peasant war in our country had entered a new stage.

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明末农民大起义
Peasants Uprising at the End of the Ming Dynasty

明朝后期，政治腐朽。皇帝经常不上朝，国家大权由宦官掌握，他们贪污受贿，卖官鬻爵，争权夺利，加深了社会的危机。1594 年，吏部郎中顾宪成被革职还乡到了无锡，与高攀龙、钱一本等在东林书院讲学，他们议论朝政，批评当权集团，得到部分士大夫的支持，被称为“东林党”。东林党反对神宗废长立幼，反对矿监、税监的掠夺，主张开放言路，改革朝政，遭到当权派的嫉恨。1601 年，税监孙隆来到苏州，设置关卡，勒索客商，还理定每台织机征银三钱，每匹绸缎征银三分。当时机户一致停业，以示反抗。失业的机工，在葛贤领导下，走上街头，包围税署，打死税吏，孙隆吓得连夜逃跑。其他十几个城市，也都爆发了城市人民的反税监、矿监的斗争。这些斗争是明朝后期资本主义萌芽在政治上的反映。

明朝后期，土地兼并达到惊人的地步。皇帝常把大量土地赐给贵族、大臣和宦官作为庄田。神宗一次就赐给他的儿子福王，田地 200 万亩。地主、官僚也大量兼并土地。在太湖流域，十分之九的农民失去土地。

封建政府的赋役剥削也越来越重。土地高度集中和赋役繁重，使更多的农民失去土地，沦为佃户、奴仆，或成为流民、饥民，甚至被迫起义。明朝末年，统治阶级内部矛盾加剧，阶级矛盾日益激化，大规模农民起义的爆发已是不可避免的了。于是在陕北爆发了大规模的农民起义。起义军转战于河南、湖北、四川一带。1634 年各地首领汇集于河南荥阳商量对策，采纳了高迎祥部将李自成的建议。此后，明末农民战争在李自成、张献忠的领导下进入新阶段。

1643 年，李自成在襄阳建立政权，自称新顺王。1644 年初，李自成率领大顺军从西安出发，经过大同，宣化，进入居庸关，包围北京城，守城的明军投降，崇祯帝自杀。3 月 19 日，李自成带领大军进入北京。明朝的腐朽统治被推翻了。

大顺军进入北京后，全国政治形势发生重大变化，地主阶级不甘心失败，企图东山再起。1644 年 4 月，李自成率军东征，在山海关与吴三桂军队开展激战，清军突然加入战斗，农民军猝不及防，损失惨重。1645 年，李自成在湖北通山县九宫山遭到地主武装的袭击，壮烈牺牲，1646 年底，张献忠壮烈牺牲。明末农民起义失败。

明末农民起义的历史意义：明末农民起义是中国封建社会中规模最大的一次农民战争，它推翻了明朝的腐朽统治，打击了地主阶级，局部调整了生产关系，为清朝前期社会生产力的发展创造了条件。起义军明确提出“均田免租”口号，把斗争锋芒直指封建土地所有制，标志着我国农民战争发展到了一个新的阶段。

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Chapter 18 清朝 Qing Dynasty

总论
A Brief Introduction

The age of the Qing Dynasty is, not only in the eyes of Westerners, but also in the mind of Chinese, a period of prosperity, of decay, of stagnation, of revolution, of laziness and of challenges that came upon a population that seemed to sleep a beauty's sleep of Confucian social ethics in a paradise where a wise ruler governed over a satisfied and happy population, and on the other side a society that was bound by rules of a backward social thinking. The period of early and middle Qing Dynasty is the culmination of two thousand years of bureaucratical administration, two thousand years of literature, thinking and art. Their rule over the majority of "cultured" and highly sophisticated Chinese population was only possible by a mixture of authoritarianism, or force, and paternalism, or benevolence. The second and third generation emperors of the Qing learned that it was only possible to rule China if the Manchu became Chinese themselves, not racially, but culturally and mentally. Therefore, the three great emperors with the reign mottos Kangxi, Yongzheng and Qianlong, saw themselves as protectors of Chinese literature and art. China was the largest, richest and most effectively governed state of the world till the 18th century. Internal problems and external conflicts led to the decay of a glorious empire from the beginning of 19th century, focusing on the Opium war and the following unequal treaties.

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总论
A Brief Introduction

清朝无论在西方人的眼中还是在中国人的眼中，是一个经历了繁荣、腐败、停滞、革命、惰性和挑战的时代，所有这些都发生在这个国家国人的身上。它就像是沉睡在天国里封建道德中的睡美人。在那里，聪明的统治者统治着满足和幸福的国民，也统治着一个受落后的社会思想束缚的社会。清朝早中期是中国2000年官僚统治的顶峰，也是2000年文学、思想和艺术的顶峰。他们对于这个有文化的、老于世故的绝对大汉族的统治只有通过多方面的专制来实现——要么是武力，要么是家长制统治，要么是亲善。清朝的第二代、第三代皇帝懂得，只有满人汉化才能统治中国。所谓的汉化，不仅仅是种族上，关键是文化和思想意识。所以，清朝的三位皇帝以“康熙、雍正和乾隆”为座右铭，将自己看作是汉文化艺术的保护者。直到18世纪，中国在世界上是最大、最富有、最有影响力的政权国家。内忧外患，尤其是鸦片战争和战后一系列不平等条约，最终导致了在19世纪开始辉煌的帝国的最终灭亡。



清朝的巩固和发展
Consolidation and Development of Qing Dynasty

After the Qing army entered the Shanhai Gate, the surrendered general from Ming, Wu Sangui was conferred the title of Pingxiwang and stationed in Yunnan; Shang Kexi Pingnanwang in Guangdong, Geng Jingzhong Jingpuwang in Fujian. They were called “Three Feudatories”. The Three Feudatories had their armies and set up their own separatist regime, acting like the independent kingdoms and spending a great deal of military expenditure, which made “half of the national wealth be spent on them”. The Three Feudatories were arrogant and domineering, becoming the barriers for the Qing Government to stablize the national political power and strengthen the frontiers. When Kangxi came to the

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reign, he took it as the task of top priority to cut down to state the Three Feudatories. His suppression of the Three Feudatories was helpful to the integration of the nation.

The Qing Dynasty unitied Taiwan, strengthened the communication between Taiwan and the inland, improved the development of Taiwan and consolidated the Southeast. Qing also enforced its control over Mongol and Xinjiang, suppressed the rebellion of the entry of Huijiang and enhanced the management in Tibet. All of these provided the favorable conditions for the development of the economy. From the mid-time of Kangxi, the agricultural production had restored and developed gradually. The handicrafts in the Qing Dynasty were more prosperous than that in the Ming Dynasty.

清朝的巩固和发展
Consolidation and Development of Qing Dynasty

清人关后,封明朝降将吴三桂为平西王,驻云南;尚可喜为平南王驻广东;耿精忠为靖甫王,驻福建。称为“三藩”。三藩挑兵割据,形同独立王国,耗费了庞大的军费开支,致使“天下财赋,半耗三藩”。他们飞扬跋扈,成为清朝稳定全国政权和巩固边疆的障碍。康熙帝亲政后,将削藩列为当务之急,其平定“三藩”有利于全国的统一。

清朝时期统一了台湾,加强了台湾同内地的联系,促进了台湾的开发,巩固了东南。加强对蒙古和新疆的统治,平定回疆贵族的叛乱,加强对西藏的管理。所有这些都为国民经济的发展提供了有利条件。从康熙中期起,农业生产逐步恢复和发展。清朝的手工业比明朝更加发达。

前清时期和清朝中期的文化
Cultures in the Early and Middle of the Qing Dynasty

Literature: The Qing emperors understood themselves as patrons of artists

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and writers. Especially the Emperor Kangxi promoted the compilation and publication of all knowledge and writing of China. During his reign *the History of Ming Dynasty* came off the press, along with, the illustrated encyclopedia *Gujin Tushu Jicheng*, *the Collection of Tang Poetry* and *Tang Prose Writings*, the character dictionary *Kangxi Dictionary*, *the Rhyme Dictionary*, and the collection *Siku Quanshu*, a compendium that tried to subsummize all existent writings that had ever been published. Emperor Kangxi made great cotributions to Chinese literature. However his two successors went to far. In order to ensure their rulership, they got literary inquisitions into full swing. Therefore, literary critics at that time were punished. The literary standard of the Qing rulers also enclosed demoralizing writings. Qing novels, which are colorful and rich in daily language, is therefore very different from Yuan and Ming novels. Qing novels like Cao Xueqin's "*Dream of Red Mansion*", Wu Jingzi's "*The Scholars*", and Xia Jingxu's "*Words of an Old Peasant Sunning*" are written in a very subtitle language with many reminiscences to the old literature that can only be understood by well educated people. Likewise are the short story collections like Pu Songling's "*Strange Accounts from the Leisure Study*", Yuan Mei's "*What Confucius did not Say*", and Ji Yun's "*Essays from the Short Grass Hall*". Less popular anthologies are Pu Songling's "Xingshi Yinyuan" or "*Matrimonial Causations Awakening the World*"... In the sphere of high-class theatre, we also find a subtle and romantic style in the plays of Li Yu (the erotic novel "*Rouputuan*" or "*Carnal Prayer Mat*" is attributed to him), Hong Sheng ("*Hall of Everlasting Life*") and Kong Shangren ("*Peach Blossom Fan*").

From the end of 18th century on, the private correspondence between scholars was written in a very free and apolitical style (for example, the autobiography "*Six Records of an Unsteady Life*" by Shen Fu), and even in the public sphere, we find writers that did not hesitate to show their unconventional standpoint, like the poet and essayist Yuan Mei and Li Ruzhen (writing the novel "The Causal Connection of a Flower and Its Mirror Reflection") who both supported thoughts of equal rights for women. For the scholars that lived during the conquest of the Manchu, the downfall of the Ming regime was a prove for the abuse of authoritarian power of the central government in Beijing. However, these people did not only criticize the Ming autocracy, and thereby supporting the new Qing rulers. Thinkers and philosophers of the new age (mid 17th century to 18th century) also criticized the traditional, sterile and impeding style of Confucian classics that had been interpreted by the Neo-Confucianists of the Song and Ming eras. Criticizing or overworshiping the liter-

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ature authoritarism of the Ming also meant doubting the legitimacy of the new Qing rulers. Many scholars were put to death for opposing the Qing regime, like Jin Shengtan, but others stayed unmolested, like the important history critics Huang Zongxi, the evolution theoretician Wang Fuzhi, Fang Yizhi, and Gu Yanwu. All of these philosophers were oriented to practical sciences and interpreted philosophy only as one part of a cosmism of sciences, the study of classical Confucian writings and their interpretations were by no means the heart of education. This viewpoint was deduced by Gu Zuyu, Mei Wending, Yan Yuan, and Li Gong. The school of thinking that leads to a deepgoing change in the life of Confucian classics was the movement of text criticism that came up during the second half of 17th century. *The Rites of Zhou* and the *Book of Documentswere* identified as later compositions than they purported to be, many histories and stories about early Confucian saints and rulers were detected as being later inventions. *The Book of Songs* did not only contain hymns for the Zhou rulers, but also simple love songs. Confucius and the writings attributed to him were dethroned by man like Wan Sida, Yan Ruoqu, Hu Wei, Yuan Mei, Wang Zhong, Cui Shu, and Hui Dong. This movement was quite similar to the first researches of the Greek and Hebrew original texts of the bible, a book whose Latin version had been sacrosanct since the being of Christianity. Zhang Xuecheng was one of the first historians to lay stress on the importance of local history of the huge empire of China. Every document, he said, had to be incorporated into a historiography, and not only annals and edicts like the official histories did. Historiography should also be a personal work although there might be subjective interpretations.

Probably the most important writer and scientist of early and middle Qing period was Dai Zhen, a universal scholar, mathematician, philologist, one of the editors of the collection *Siku Quanshu*, and philosopher; the most objective and earnest criticist of Neo-Confucian interpretation of the classical writings and their nature philosophy. His most important philosophical writing might be "*The Origin of Goodness*" or *Yuanshan*. Instead of the Neo-Confucian universal order, he interpreted any being as being guided and led by breath, odem or matter that helps the abstract cosmic order to manifest all appearances. Books about practical science and philology were not only written and published by scholars or officials, but also by rich merchants that patronized writers and artists and that engaged themselves in studies about geography, chronology, epigraphy, mathematics, philology, and the Confucian Classics. The places for scholars preparing for the state examinations

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were provided by private academies. Private studies and patronage only ended with the financial and economical ruin of the rich merchant families of the lower Yangtze area at the end of 18th century. But all of these made the writing prosperous in the early and middle of the Qing Dynasty.

Science and technology: There are many fields of social activities and sciences the two cultural spheres learned from each other. During the end of Ming and beginning of Qing Dynasty, the Jesuit padres residing at the imperial court in Beijing was important media for the cultural and technical exchange from east to west and vice versa. While the Jesuits showed to the Chinese upper class the technical inventions made in Europe during the past century, like watches and astronomical instruments, they were impressed by the high standards of Chinese medicine, and land surveying. Chinese painters and musicians adopted European concepts of art. Chinese painters and calligraphers had always stood in the century-old tradition of elder patterns and models. Musicians did not live as famous composers, but as nameless instruments of the ritual art of music. The west was inspired by technically improved objects like suspension-bridges with iron chains, a push cart with a sail, rotating de-spelting machines, magnetism, and much more. The great universal genius Leibniz undertook deepgoing investigations into Chinese technique. Silk worms were introduced to the west some centuries before, but industrial production of silk could only be established in the 16th century. The German J. F. Bettger accidentally invented porcelain, but the need for Chinese porcelain was very high in the stream of a China fashion in 18th century Europe. Philosophers interpreted the tranquil and prosperous empire of the Kangxi and Qianlong Emperors as the ideal state, headed by a wise monarch. Until the end of 18th century, China was technically much more advanced than the west, and only the industrial revolution helped the western states to become prevalent powers during the 19th century, giving them a sentiment of being superior to the backward Chinese empire.

Art: Qing Dynasty art can be called a culmination of all art styles that have been developed during the past 2500 years. Unlike Ming artists, artisans, painters, calligraphers and craftsmen during the Qing period used very old forms and shapes for their works of art. Chinaware and lacquerware objects were given not only the bulgy shapes that had developed since the Song Dynasty, but we find also vases or cups with the shape of Shang or Zhou bronze ware like the zun type. Gourd shapes vessels, vases with three openings or more, the typical "rice" bowls and the small tea cups and tea pots we know today all developed during the Qing

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Dynasty. The typical bluegreen of the Ming chinaware changed to a broader palette of colors, ranging from orange to green and gold; Qing chinaware is much more colorful than the former types. New materials extensively used now are enamel, cloisonné and glass ware. Materials like jade, gold and cloisonné are first combined in a single art object. Additionally, a dark wooden base for vases or other items came up. We also possess a lot of objects made from easy decayable materials like wood or bamboo, for example furniture, and of course cloth material that served as daily worn dress, or as simple object of admiration. In the field of calligraphy, Qing artists went on to use the traditional styles of writing, but unlike Ming calligraphers, people now studied the oldest examples of Chinese script like the oracle bones and bronze vessel inscriptions. With the advent of Christian missionaries in China, Chinese painters learned from the Jesuits Western painting techniques like perspective and the use of oil-paint instead of monochrome ink. Even buildings and palaces were constructed according to the Western style, like the Yuanmingyuan Palace that was destroyed in the 19th century the Eight-Power Allied Forces. Typical for the Qing Dynasty private houses are the many gardens laid out by rich families in Suzhou and Hangzhou.

前清时期和清朝中期的文化
Cultures in the Early and Middle of the Qing Dynasty

文学:清朝统治者把自己看成是艺术家和作家们的守护神,尤其是康熙皇帝,他促成了中国的知识和作品的编辑发行。在他执政时期,出版发行了《明史》、《古今图书集成》、《全唐诗》、《全唐文》,以及《康熙字典》、《佩文韵府》和《四库全书》。《四库全书》尝试着对所有已发表的作品进行总结。康熙皇帝为中国文学发展作出了很大贡献。但是,他的两个继承人为了确保他们的统治地位而大搞"文字狱"。为此,清政府时期的文学评论家受到了惩罚。清朝统治者的文学标准封杀了有伤风化的文学作品,清朝时期的小说与元朝和明朝时期的多姿多彩的和日常生活用语丰富的小说不一样。清朝时期的小说主要有曹雪芹的《红楼梦》、吴敬梓的《儒林外史》、夏敬渠的《野叟曝言》,所有这些小说语言精练,并大多数都带有古文学的味道,并且只有那些受到过良好教育的人才能读懂。同样的作品还有蒲松龄的

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短篇小说集《聊斋志异》、袁枚的《子不语》、纪昀的《阅微草堂笔记》等。还有一些就是和前者相比略显逊色的蒲松龄的《醒世因缘》等等。戏曲方面有创作细腻、充满浪漫色调的戏曲作品，如，李渔（性爱小说《肉蒲团》就是描写李渔的）、洪升（《长生殿》）和孔尚任（《桃花扇》）等的戏曲作品。

从18世纪末期开始，文人之间开始用自由的非官方用语的形式互通信件（如沈复自传《浮生六记》）。不仅如此，甚至在公开场合下也使用自由体和非官方文体，他们毫不犹豫地表达了自己的非传统观点，如诗人和散文作家袁枚和李汝珍（著有《镜花缘》）。同时，这两位作家还赞成男女平等的女权主义思想。对于那些见证了满清的征服又看到了明朝的灭亡的学者们来说，他们知道明朝时期北京政府的高度集权和滥用职权最后导致了明朝的灭亡。但是，这些文人墨客们，一方面批判明朝的独裁统治，一方面又支持新的清朝独裁统治者。新时期（从17世纪中期到18世纪）的思想家和哲学家们也批判宋、明时期所演绎的传统、乏味和有碍于文学发展的儒家作品。批判和过于尊崇明朝时期的文学同样都是质疑清朝早期统治者的权威性。清朝时期也有很多学者由于反对清朝的统治而被处死，如金圣叹等。但是，也有一些人却安然无恙，如，举足轻重的历史学家黄宗羲，进化论观点持有者王夫之、方以智和顾炎武，所有这些哲学家们都致力于研究实学、并声称哲学不过是科学宇宙进化论的一部分而已，对儒家作品的研究和释义无论如何都不能成为学习和教育的重心。这一观点得到了顾祖禹、梅文鼎、颜元和李塨的进一步演绎。这一导致儒家大作深刻变化的思潮源于17世纪后期对教科书的批判。《周礼》和《尚书》事实上要比人们所认为的出现的晚得多，其中，很多有关早期儒家圣人和统治者的历史和故事也不过是人的杜撰而已。《诗经》不仅有关于周朝统治者的颂歌，也有关于朴素爱情的诗歌。那些被认为是属于统治者的儒家思想和作品则被清朝时期的文人和作家所废弃，这些人有万斯大、阎若璩、胡渭、袁枚、汪中、崔述和惠栋等。这种举动和对希腊语、希伯来语版本的《圣经》的早期研究极为相似，而拉丁语版本的《圣经》自从基督教诞生以来被认为是最为神圣的。章学诚是首先强调庞大中国地方历史的历史学家之一。他认为，每卷史书都应融入编年史者的工作，而不应该像官府史书那样仅仅是历史记载和政府法令的记录，编史工作可以是个人行为，尽管会掺杂有个人的主观释义。

可以说，清朝早、中期的最主要的作家和科学家是戴震。戴震是一位多才多艺的学者，他是数学家，语言学家，《四库全书》编纂者之一和哲学家，是古典文学作品新儒思想释义和自然哲学最客观、最认真的评论家。其最主要的哲学作品是《原善》。他解释说任何人都受呼吸和气的引导，而不是新儒理论，气能助道在各方面展现。除此之外，有关实学和语言学的书籍也由学者和官方大量出版。同时，那些赞助作家和艺术家的、甚至自己也直接参与学习研究地理、编年史、碑文学、数学、语言学和儒家思想的富商们也积极出版发行作品。当时，学子们备考科举的地方

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由书院提供。最后,由于18世纪末期长江下游富商之家金融和经济的衰败而致使私学和个人资助而告终。不过,所有这些,还是让清朝早中期的文学曾经一度繁荣。

科学技术:清朝时期,东西方在很多社会活动和科学领域中相互学习。明末清初,耶稣教传道士居住北京皇宫,这就是东西方文化和科技交流的重要媒介。当这些耶稣使者向中国的上层阶级展现欧洲在上一个世纪重大科技发明的同时,包括手表、天文仪器等,他们也被中国的高超的医疗水平和土地勘查所深深打动。中国画家和音乐家吸收采纳了欧洲艺术概念。那时,中国画家和书法家一直停留在对有百年之久的老格局和传统模式的表达。音乐家不是作为著名的创作人而存在,而是音乐形式艺术中名不见经传的乐器而存在。西方被中国的高科技成就,如铁索悬桥、有帆手推车、磁力学等所震惊。世界著名天才人物雷柏尼茨曾经对中国科学技术进行过深入研究。中国蚕丝在几个世纪之前就传入欧洲,但是,丝绸工业生产直到16世纪才出现。德国人J. F. 伯特格尔一次偶然的机会发明了瓷器,但是,18世纪的欧洲仍然大量需要中国瓷器。哲学家们认为,清朝康熙、乾隆统治时期的两大盛世理想的国度,是明君执政的理想国度。直到18世纪末,中国在科技方面一直比西方世界先进,只是后来19世纪的工业革命使西方诸国变成优势国家,让他们有了比落后的中国王朝先进的优越感。

艺术:清朝时期的艺术是过去2500年间中国各种艺术形式发展的顶峰时期。不同于明朝,清朝时期的艺术家、手工艺人、画家、书法家以及工匠们在创作艺术作品时都使用极为传统的形式和格式。瓷器和漆器制作时,不仅使用了源于宋朝的突出形状,花瓶和杯子也采用了商、周的铜器形状,如樽等。葫芦状容器、三开嘴或多开嘴的花瓶、独有特色的"饭"碗,以及小茶杯、茶壶等,即便是现代的人们也是耳熟能详,都是源于清朝时期。明朝时期的蓝绿色为特色的瓷器,在清朝时期发生了极大变化,色彩趋向多样化,从橘黄色到绿色、金色等。所以清朝时期的瓷器比以往任何朝代的瓷器都更加丰富多彩。现在,人们广泛使用的新材料是珐琅、景泰蓝和玻璃制品。玉、黄金和景泰蓝第一次同时使用在一件制品中。除此之外,黑木花瓶和其他艺术品也开始出现。到现在我们仍然拥有大量的使用易于腐烂的材料如木头和竹子制成的物件,如家具等。当然,还有我们日常穿戴的布料或者简易的小饰品等。在书法领域,清朝书法家继续沿用传统的书法形式。但是,与明朝书法家不同的是,清朝书法家研究的是中国手迹的最古老的范本,如卜骨和铜器上的刻文等。清朝时期随着大批基督教传道士的到来,中国画家也吸收了基督教中的绘画技巧,如透视法和油画技术取代了单色墨画。甚至楼房和宫殿的建造也是仿照西方风格,如在19世纪被八国联军毁掉的圆明园。清朝时期民间建筑的典型形式是苏州、杭州的富有之家建造的众多园林建筑。

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清朝的衰落
Decline of the Qing Dynasty

The Way into Crisis: That such a vast empire like Qing China would meet conflicts with neighboring people is a natural cause. Already the occupation of the Yili Territory in the west has been without consequences for the loyalty of Muslim people of Chinese Turkestan. But expanding Russia also claimed these territories of Inner Asia. Treaties with the Russian tsars helped to settle the border conflicts. Chinese troops proved the Qing sovereignty over Burma and Nepal. Chinese settlers in Yunnan, Guizhou, Sichuan and Taiwan met rebellions of the aboriginal tribes that could only be subdued by military force. Muslim people stood up against the Qing regime in Gansu and Xinjiang.

A Weakening China: The 19th century brought developments over China, which worsened the economical backwardness that was already seen after the long and glorious reigns of the three emperors Kangxi, Yongzheng and Qianlong. The two main problems are the question of centralized or decentralized administration, and to what extent the state should control the economy for the sake of the population and to fill the state treasure. Both questions should also be crucial for the economical, technical and political backwardness of the 19th century China. A political, economical and social system that had been proved effectively for two thousand years seemed to have no need for change or modernization. In the eyes of the Westerners, therefore, the political and social sphere of China had been unchanged for thousands of years. The economical sphere meanwhile seemed to have been influenced by Europeans, and at least experienced some modernization after Chinese mandarins became aware of China's economical backwardness. But in fact, economical changes already took place since the mid of 18th century. The long period of peace and the introduction of new crops from the America (peanuts, corn, and taro) resulted in a steady rise in the population. With an increasing population, there was also the need for a widespread commerce and trade network covering whole China, especially along the waterways of the great rivers and channels. Merchants needed banks for their funds to finance their business. The industry of Qing China was a highly sophisticated system of division of labour. China

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ware, tea, brocades and cotton was produced greatly in specialized regions and cities. Merchants and producers formed non-governmental guilds with comprehensive administratorial functions. While in the west of the USA, a lack of labour force led to the development of industrial agriculture, the surplus of labour force in China was an impediment for technification. And moreover, the social groups making profit and living in wealth, like the salt traders of the lower Yangtze valley, did consume their income rather for luxury instead of investing in long-term business like a heavy industry. The lack of governmental interference into the sphere of the economy left this field a prey for the penetrating Western merchants.

The Opium Wars and the Unequal Treaties: China as a country with a highly developed manufacturing industry had no need for imported cotton fabrics or similar items produced in the West. The British merchants, especially the East India Company, saw their chance in the import of opium. As the import of opium had been prohibited by the Chinese government already during the 18th century, the only way to make profit by selling Indian opium was the smuggling business. Opium does not only mean a danger for health, but also has a deep impact on public moral. Moreover, the export of tea, silk and chinaware was not able to cover the costs for opium imports: the Chinese trade balance tended to become negative. The court in Beijing was divided between ministers proposing a forced barter (opium against Chinese products); allowance of opium import but imposing high taxes on the drug; or confrontation with the British merchants. A representative of the last group was Lin Zexu who acted as commissioner in Guangzhou (Canton) in 1839, the main import harbour of the south. He confiscated opium cases and tried to banish British merchants. However under the protection of their government, the Britain Captain Elliott attacked some small harbors, occupied islands and threatened the port of Tianjin with canon boats: the so-called Opium War began. A British fleet, commanded by Henry Pottinger, proceeded until Nanjing, when the Chinese government finally gave in and signed the Nanjing Treaty in 1842, the first of a long line of shameful treaties for the Qing government, called "unequal treaties". For twenty centuries, Chinese emperors had dealt in the same way with penetrating "barbarians": making concessions to them by granting them material presents like Chinese silk or sending them princesses. In 1842, nobody in China was aware that the danger coming from the West was much deeper than a few nomad barbarians attacking the Chinese frontiers.

In the Nanjing Treaty, the Qing government granted the British free (opium)

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trade in the harbors of Xiamen (Amoy), Shanghai, Ningbo, Fuzhou and Guangzhou, abolishing the monopoly of the Chinese merchant guilds in these cities. British goods were imposed with a very low import tax, and British subjects were allowed to move freely inside China. As a trade base, the island of Hong Kong was handed over to Great Britain. The financial damages China had to pay for the war counted 21 million silver dollars. Great Britain was officially recognized by the Qing government as a foreign power with equal rights. In an additional treaty, the Humen Treaty, Great Britain was allowed to establish concessional settlement territories where British subjects were exempt of Chinese jurisdiction. But the most important item of this treaty was the Most Favorite Clausula, allowing Great Britain to obtain every contractual concession any other country should obtain. Following the British, France Treaty of Whampoa, the USA Treaty of Wangsha, and the minor European states forced treaties with the Chinese allowing them free trade inside a handful of harbor cities. In 1856, British and French saw their chance to revise the Nanjing Treaty. Unifying their armies, British and French occupied Guangzhou and forced the Qing government to sign the Tianjin Treaty in 1858 after their canon boats had bombarded the Tanggu Forts near Tianjin. But the French army invaded Beijing and burned down and plundered the Qing emperors' summer residence in the Yuanmingyuan Garden; the court had fled to Jehol. These military actions are called the Second Opium War. Signed in 1860, the Beijing Treaty. Meanwhile, Russia also claimed rights on Chinese territory. The treaties of Nerchinsk was signed between Russia and Qing Government in 1689. In 1858 Russia occupied the territory north of the River Amur and claimed this territory as Russian, ensured in the Aihui Treaty.



清朝的衰落
Decline of the Qing Dynasty

走向危机:清朝时期的中国如此辽阔与周边国家发生摩擦是再自然不过的事情了。尽管清朝在西部拥有伊犁地区,但却不能使中国土耳其斯坦的穆斯林效忠清朝。扩张中的俄罗斯也声称拥有中亚地区。清朝政府和沙皇俄国签订的条约有助于解决边境争端。中国军队保证了清朝对波尔玛和尼泊尔的统治,但是在云南、

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贵州、四川和台湾等地遇到了当地居民的强烈反抗，而这些只能用武力解决。穆斯林也在甘肃、新疆起来抗击清朝统治。

逐步衰弱的中国：19 世纪给中国带来了发展，也加剧了中国经济的倒退，这一点在清朝长时期统治和繁荣的康熙、雍正和乾隆三位皇帝时期既有显现。清朝时期两大主要问题是高度的中央集权制或者说高度分散的集权制以及为了国民和充实国库应该如何控制国民经济的问题。这两大问题对 19 世纪的中国经济、技术、政治的落后都起着决定性作用。2000 年来证明在中国行之有效的政治、经济、和社会制度似乎无需改变或实现现代化。因此，在西方人的眼里，中国政治、经济已经 2000 年没有任何变动。中国经济似乎是受欧洲的影响，至少当清朝大臣们意识到中国经济落后时中国还是体验了一下现代化。事实上，18 世纪中期中国经济就发生了重大变化。长期和平和从美国引进的农作物（如花生、玉米、芋头）使中国人口稳步上升。随着人口的增长，需要在中国广开商路和建立贸易网，尤其是要在长江和运河地区开辟水路。商人需要银行为他们提供资金以资助企业发展。清朝时期，中国手工业就有高度复杂的劳动分工。中国器具、茶叶、织锦和棉花生产在一些专业生产地区高度发展。商人和生产商组成了非官方的具有广泛管理职能的行业协会。在美国西部，因缺乏劳动力而促成了机械化农业发展的同时，中国劳动力的剩余则阻碍了技术的发展。此外，那些挣了钱而生活奢靡的商人，如长江下游的盐商们，大肆挥霍钱财，过着奢侈生活，而不是把资金投资到像重工业这样的长期企业上去。政府也缺乏对经济的干预，这使得这一领域逐步为西方商人所渗透。

鸦片战争和一系列不平等条约的签订：中国，作为一个有着高度发达的手工制造业的国家，无须从西方进口棉纺织品或诸如此类的产品。于是英国商人，特别是东印度公司，看准只有向中国进口鸦片。由于中国政府在 18 世纪就曾下令禁止进口鸦片，所以出售印度鸦片挣钱的唯一办法就是走私。鸦片不仅危害人身健康，并且对社会公众道德也有极其深刻的影响。但是，茶叶、丝绸和瓷器的出口总额弥补不了鸦片一项进口的差额：中国贸易出现逆差。朝庭中的大臣分成两派，一派主张强行物物交换（用鸦片换中国商品），主张鸦片可以进口，但是要征收高额关税；另一派主张直接反对英国商人经营鸦片。后一派则以林则徐为代表。1839 年他被派到南方重要港口广州任两广总督，没收鸦片并极力驱逐英国商人。在英国政府的庇护下，英国军队在伊里尔特上尉的统领下进攻几个小港口，占领了一些岛屿，并直接用炮舰威胁天津港——鸦片战争开始。1842 年，一支英国舰队，在亨利·鲍丁格尔的指挥下，一直打到南京，中国政府投降并签定了《南京条约》。这是中国清政府所签署的丧权辱国的第一个不平等条约。2000 多年来，中国的皇帝一直以同样的方式来对应入侵的蛮夷，即以赏赐财物，如丝绸或送公主和亲的办法与他们达成妥协。1842 年，中国没人意识到来自西方的危险远比几个游牧族侵扰边境深远的多。

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《南京条约》规定，清政府允许英国在厦门、上海、宁波、福州和广州进行鸦片自由贸易，取消中国商会在这些城市的垄断。对英国商品征收很低的进口税，英国人可以在中国自由往来。作为商埠，香港岛由英国管辖。中国赔偿战争损失费2 100万两白银。大清政府承认英国和中国享有同等权利。在附加条约《虎门条约》里，大英帝国允许在中国建立租界，租界内的英国公民不受中国司法管辖。该条约中最重要的一条就是最惠国待遇，即英国享有所有和其他国家签定的条约中的一切权利。继英国之后，法国签定了《黄埔条约》，美国鉴定《望厦条约》，其他几个欧洲国家也强行和中国签定了允许在中国众多港口自由贸易的条约。1856年，英法联军认为改写条约的时机成熟，于是英法联军炮轰天津附近的塘沽港。1858年，英法联军占领广州强迫清政府签定《天津条约》。但是，法国军队入侵北京，火烧和洗劫了大清皇帝在圆明园的夏日行宫，清政府逃到了热河，这些军事行动称为第二次鸦片战争。1860年签定《北京条约》。与此同时，俄罗斯也到处强占中国土地。1689年签定《尼布楚条约》，1858年俄罗斯占领阿穆尔河以北的领地，并声称归己所有，并在《瑷珲条约》中加以强调。



清朝的灭亡
Destruction of the Qing Dynasty

The corrupt Qing Government Emperor: Qianlong had been in the throne for sixty years. He inherited the former emperor's course and stressed on the development of agriculture and strengthened the control on the frontiers, which made the united multi-nationality country develop further. So the period of Qianglong was called "a period of prosperity". And it was also a turning point for Qing to go from prosperity to downfall. In the reign of Qianlong, the seeds of capitalism were growing further, the basic contradictions in the feudal society became more and more serious, and the feudal system had been already corrupt. In the later days of Qianlong, he focused on "cultural and military achievements" and loosened the control and management of the officials and the political fall appeared. From the end of Qianlong to the periods of Jiaqing and Daoguang, the administrative management was corrupt, the financial state was difficult, the centralization of land was high and the classical contradictions were becoming fiercer.

The struggle against the feudalism: 1) the peasants resisted to hand in tax

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and the hungry people fought for grains. At the beginning of the Qing Dynasty, the peasants had the fierce fight for land and against the high tax with the landlords and the government. They required to get rid of the tax and lessen the rent and raised the calls to "average the land" and so on. This reflected that the tenants wanted to own their own land; 2) The craftsmen fought for freedom; 3) The Miaos rebellion in Xiang and Qian against the control of corrupt Qing broke out in 1795 because the Han beaucrats and merchants occupied the land of the Miaos in the Miao areas in Guizhou, Hunan and Sichun and the feudal government began to exploit them severely. In the first moon of 1795, one of the Miaos in Songtao, Guizhou, Shi Liudeng launched the uprising first and then Shi Lanbao and Wu Ruyue of the Miaos in Hunan rose up one by one. They raised a call to drive the guests out and restore their own land. The rebellion had lasted for twelve years and failed in the end in 1896; 4) Bailianjiao uprising broke out in Sichuan and Hubei. In the old years of Qianlong, Bailainjiao was current in Hubei, Sichuan, and Shaanxi and so on. The Qing Government ordered to punish Bailianjiao followers severely and those who were involved in it and killed were innumerable. The heads of Bailianjiao, Liu Zhixie, Wang Conger and Yao Zhifu and so on raised the call to "rebel because of the Government oppression" and they were ready to rebel. Bailianjiao in Yichuan, Hubei rose up in the first moon of 1796 before the schedual because of the reveal of the news. Then the followers in many places of Hubei, Sichuan, and Shaanxi rose up, too. The uprising had lasted for nine years. It was the last large-scaled rebellion in the feudal society, which punctured heavily the Qing governors; 5) Tianli Jiao Uprising in the North took place in 1813. Lin Qing and Li Wencheng led the Tianli Jiao uprising in 1813 in the North. Lin Qing sneaked into Beijing with the guidance of the follower eunuch and attacked the court. But he failed because he fought against hopeless odds. But the insurrectionary army continued to fight under the leadership of Li Wencheng in Hua County of Henan. Then the Qing army broke through Hua County and Li burned himself and died a hero's death; 6) The Rebellion of the Taiping. The increasing population and the depreciation of copper coins was the main origin of the deep social problems of the 19th century. Although there was a need to enlarge the administration staff, the quota for the official recruitment stayed stabile. Corruption and bribery was the consequence of a lack of tasks for the educated class; a very intense description of this situation is Liu E's late Qing novel "*Travels of Lao Can*". The local mandarins were obliged to hand over a special amount of collected taxes to the court in Beijing, but

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how much taxes the mandarins really levied was up to them. Especially in southern China, many peasants did not own the fields they worked on, but acted as tenant farmers, and perhaps forever if they did not go to the cities to find a better job. Other people joined bandits or rovers, girls looked for employment in the red quarters of the lower Yangtze cities. Trying to escape the taxmen and the population pressure, many landless peasants looked for new estates in remote mountain areas. In 1795, a group of peasants rose against the Qing government. This traditional peasant uprising was called "*White Lotus*". The immense uprising of the "Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace" was of a similar character like the other secret societies and peasant or worker uprisings during Chinese history, but it was one of only a few uprisings that were able to endanger the foundation of a ruling dynasty. The founder of the Taiping Movement was the frustrated scholar Hong Xiuquan. Hong had been in contact with Christians and developed his own pseudo-Christian religion. He saw himself as a kind of messiahs and preached a social egalitarism and puritanism. His followers were unemployed, desperados and the poor, and they started to rebel against the Qing governmental institutions in 1850 from Guangxi Province. The organization of the movement was a strict hierarchy without separating military, political and clerical functions. In 1853, the Taiping rebels occupied Nanjing and established this city as their capital. Their armies advanced to Tianjin and had cut the waterways from south to north, the Taiping controlled the whole lower Yangtze River area. The Qing Government was unable to subjugate the rebels, and instead, local governors and rich merchants recruited soldiers to subdue the mighty Heavenly Kingdom. Three armies of local governors (Zeng Guofan, Zuo Zongtang and Li Hongzhang) and the Western powers under Frederick T. Ward and Charles J. Gordon with their "Ever-Victorious Army" were able to gradually throw back the Taiping armies and to massacre the Heavenly Capital Nanjing in 1864.

The Taiping Rebellion was only the mightiest of a long line of uprisings that shook the Qing government during the 19th century. The Heavenly Kingdom movement failed with certain causes and it has its importance in the history of China. The objective cause for it to fail is that the anti-revolutionary power was too great. It was suppressed not only by the internal armies but also the foreign armed interference of the foreign invaders. The subjective cause for it to fail is that the limitation of the leaders of the uprising and the mistakes caused by it. But the Heavenly Kingdom movement has its deep historical importance. First it resisted the invaders,

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which showed the spirit of Chinese people of not being afraid of strong enemies. It played an important part in the war in resistance the attempt of colonilization of China of the invaders. Second it stroke heavily the feudal power with the representation of the Qing government and sped up the downfall of the Qing government. The Heavenly Kingdom Rebellion is one of the cornerstones for the victory of the modern Chinese democratic revolution. The result of these rebellions was the clear evidence that the central government was further unable to control their vast empire. Instead, local governors and military commanders took over the responsibility for actual policy—a situation similar to the end of Han Dynasty, when generals could control the central government after subduing the Yellow Turban Rebellion, with the difference that the Later Han commanders tried to replace the emperor, while Li Hongzhang and his colleagues saw themselves as moral defenders of the Qing throne against rebels. Because the Qing government did not want to negotiate with the Western powers, the provincial governors had a free hand in the field of foreign politics.

The economical and demographical impact of these twenty years of internal war was deep enough to talk of a "restoration" under the Tongzhi Emperor: before building up a modern industry, the economy as a whole had to be reconstructed, especially the agriculture with the task of building dikes, waterways, water reservoirs, and granaries; the economical reconstruction required the increase of taxes and duties, a situation that did not help trade and commerce that had to encounter the foreign competition.

Westernization movement and the appearance of Chinese Capitalism: Westernization movement is a movement that was launched by the governors in the late Qing to save the country itself. It is the result that the capitalist invaders strengthened their control for the Qing Government and their further political influence on China. It is the result that the foreign capitalists strengthened their economic penetration and spread in China and yet the Chinese natural economic structure began to disintegrate. The guiding ideology of the westernization movement was "to apply the western systems in China". The principles of the activities included politics, military, economy and education etc. The activities had their different focuses according to the changes and development of the situations and the development of the movement itself. In general it focused on military and economy. The westernization had the first and the second periods. The first period focused on the construction of the munitions enterprises and the latter focused on the construction of

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the local business and the new navy.

Since 1860s and 1870s, the national capitalist business emerged gradually in China. The conditions for it to appear were the formation of outlets for goods and the market for labor forces and the stimulation of the foreign capitalism. The Chinese original natural economic structure changed rapidly and disintegrated with the occurrence that China became the market of the foreign products and the providing place of the raw materials step by step.

The Boxer Rebellion: The Boxer rebellion rose up in Shandong first in 1899. Then it spread to North China and Northeast China at a speed and marched to Beijing and Tianjin. The boxer rebellion developed greatly and stroked heavily the invading power of the capitalism. In order to suppress the Chinese movement against the capitalist invaders and for the love of the their country of the Chinese people, in June 1900, Britain, France, Japan, Russia, German, USA, Austria and Italy organized the international "Eight-Power Allied Forces" and began to invade China in large swarms. The Group of Justice and Peace fought with the capitalist invaders heroically. Certain patriotic officers and soldiers of the Qing army took part in the battle to resist the invasion of the capitalists. In Shangdong, the fist fighters focused on the fight against the foreign religions and the other invading powers. Meanwhile they were against the feudal power which protected the foreign religion and suppress the masses. In the year of 1896, Zhao Sanduo and the others gathered up the fist fighters for justice and peace at Liyuantun of Guan County in the Northwest of Shangdong near Zhili. In October 1898, Zhao Sanduo commanded more than three hundred fist fighters to siege the Hongtaoyuan church nearby. The church invited the Qing army to suppress. The fist fighters withdrew to Linqing in the east and continued to fight against the foreign religions at the common boundary of Zhili and Shandong. At the same time, the Fists for Justice and Peace rose up and fought against the foreign religions under the leadership of Zhu Hongdeng (the used name Zhu Fengming) and the Buddhist monk Xincheng (the used name Yang Zhaoshun) in the areas of Changqing, Zaiping, Gaotang and Yucheng. The local poor peasants and groups of homeless people responded and rose up. According to the statistics of historical data, there were more than eight hundred places that had the boxers in more than eight hundred and sixty villages in only Pingyi County in short three months. Almost every village had the boxers. At the beginning of movement that the Fists for Justice and Peace fought against the foreign religions, the Qing government ordered the provincial governor of Shandong

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Zhang Rumei to protect the churches. Zhang Rumei sent his armies to suppress many times and was defeated completely by the fist fighters.

At the beginning of the fight, the German invaders stationed in Shandong occupied Rizhao, Jimo and Gaomi and so on in spring of 1899 and required the Qing government to suppress the Group for Justice and Peace.

The Revolution of 1911: The weakness and inability of the Qing government made China lose large pieces of land. The Chinese masses organized spontaneously the movement to protect their motherland everywhere in the country. In the early years of the 20th century, the revolutionary organizations mushroomed constantly, taking it as the purpose to overthrow the corrupt control of the Qing government, one of which was the Tongmenghui led by Sun Zhongshan. It launched many armed rebellion and stroke heavily the control of the Qing government. Because of the influence of the Western capitalist thinking, the revolutionaries and the reform group required to realize the constitutional monarchy in China. But when the constitutional group realized the false constitution of the Qing government, they broke with the Qing government in the end and launched the revolution of 1911 to overthrow the Qing Empire.

The Revolution of 1911 overthrew the Qing government and founded their own temporary administration in Nanjing.

The Revolution of 1911 is an important historical event in the history of China. Politically, it overthrew the Qing empire, and ended the feudal centralized system which lasted for several thousand years in China. The first democratic republic regime was founded and the idea of democratic republic was deeply rooted in the heart of the masses. Economically, the Nanjing Temporary Government awarded the capitalist industry and commerce and promoted the civil enterprises. In 1912, the newly-founded factories in the country amounted to nine hundred and sixty-three, which increased to one time compared with that in 1911. The development of the national capitalist business continued for many years and the national capitalist economy entered its golden time because of the other factors together. That provided material qualifications for the continuous rise. Culturally, some feudal and backward rules and customs were casted aside and the pursuit for science and democracy became fashionable.

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清朝的灭亡
Destruction of the Qing Dynasty

清朝统治的腐朽：乾隆帝在位60年，继承前代的基业，注意发展农业，加强对边疆的统治，使统一多民族国家进一步发展，史称“乾隆盛世”。但这一时期也是清朝统治由盛到衰的转折点。乾隆时期资本主义萌芽进一步发展，封建社会的基本矛盾日益激化，封建制度日趋腐朽。乾隆帝晚年陶醉于“文治武功”，放松对官吏的整肃，出现统治衰败的征象。从乾隆后期到嘉庆、道光时期，吏治败坏、财政困难、武备废弛、土地高度集中，阶级矛盾日益激化。

城乡人民的反封建斗争：①农民抗租，饥民夺粮的斗争。从清初，农民为了反对高额地租和争取佃耕权，向地主和官府展开了激烈的抗租斗争。他们要求“除赋捐租”，提出“均田(佃)”、等斗争口号，反映了佃农对永佃权和土地所有权的要求。②手工业工人要求自由。③湘黔苗民起义。贵州、湖南、四川的苗族地区，汉族官僚地主和商人(即所谓“客民”，)不断侵占苗民土地，封建官府也加紧对苗民的剥削。1795年正月，贵州松桃苗民石柳邓首先发动起义，湖南苗民石兰保、吴八月也相继而起。起义军提出“逐客民，复故地”的口号。这次起义前后持续12年之久，到1896年才最后失败。④川楚白莲教大起义。乾隆晚年，湖北、四川、陕西等省白莲教盛行。清政府下令严惩白莲教教徒，被株连陷害者不可胜数。白莲教首领刘之协、王聪儿(女)、姚之富等提出“官逼民反”的口号，准备起义。因消息泄露，湖北宜川白莲教提前于1796年正月首先发难，接着湖北、四川、陕西许多地方白莲教徒都纷起响应。这次起义历时9年，波及5省，成为中国封建社会中最后一次规模较大的农民战争，给清朝统治者以沉重的打击。⑤北方天理教起义.813年，北方爆发了林清、李文成领导的天理教起义。林清串众潜入北京城，在入教太监导引下，进攻清宫，因寡不敌众而失败。李文成领导的起义军在河南滑县继续斗争，后清军攻破滑县，李文成自焚，壮烈牺牲。⑥ 太平天国起义。人口的增长和铜币的贬值，是19世纪清朝时期中国社会重大社会问题的主要根源。尽管清政府需要扩充政府官员，但是政府所需新吸收的官员数量的配额始终没有变化。贪污受贿是那些受教育阶级无所事事的结果，关于这方面，在清朝晚期小说家刘鄂的《老残游记》中作了极为详细的描写。地方官员有责任向清政府交纳特定数量的征税，至于征多少税那就是他们自己的事了。特别是在中国南部，很多农民种地但是并不拥有土地，如果他们不到城里去寻找好一点儿的工作，那么他们就得一直当佃农。有的人当了土匪或者流寇，女孩子则跑到长江下游的一些城市卖笑为生。为了逃避税监

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和人口压力，很多没有土地的农民逃进深山老林寻找新的土地。

1795 年，一部分农民起义反对抗清朝政府的统治，这次传统上的农民起义史称“白莲教”。规模巨大的“太平天国”起义与其他中国历史上的秘密社会团体和农民或者工人起义的性质是一样的，它只不过是清朝时期几次大的起义中能够威胁到统治阶级的根基的一次起义。太平天国运动的发起人是在科举考试中屡试不中的读书人洪秀全。洪秀全曾经和西方的基督教徒有过接触，于是就发展出了自己的伪基督教。他把自己看成是复国使者，到处宣讲他的平等主义和清教徒思想，而他的追随者都是些无业者、市井无赖和劳苦大众。1850 年，他们从广西省起兵反对清朝政府的统治。太平天国运动组织是一个不分军事、政治、宗教作用但有着严格等级制度的组织。1853 年，太平义军攻下南京并把南京定为国都。他们继续北上攻下天津并切断了南北的水路通道，占领了整个长江下游。清朝政府无力镇压义军，倒是地方官员和富商们招募士兵，镇压声势浩大的太平天国。地方统治者的三支部队（曾国藩、左宗棠和李鸿章）以及弗来德里科·T·华特和查里斯·G·格登领导下的西方势力“长胜军”相互勾结才逐步把太平军逐回南方，并在 1864 年在太平军首府南京惨杀太平军将士，天京陷落。

太平天国起义是 19 世纪唯一的一个规模大、持续时间长并动摇了清政府统治的起义，虽然失败了，它还是有其失败的原因和历史意义：客观原因是反动势力过于强大。太平天国起义不仅遭到国内封建势力的全力镇压，而且还受到外国侵略者的武装干涉。主观原因是领导太平天国起义的农民本身的局限性以及主要由此产生的种种错误。太平天国起义虽然失败了，其历史意义却是深远的。首先，对外抵抗了侵略者，显示了中国人民不畏强寇的斗争精神，在阻止侵略者企图使中国殖民地化的斗争中起到了重要作用；再者，对内沉重打击了清政府所代表的封建势力，加速了清政府的衰亡。太平天国起义是近代中国民主革命胜利的基石之一。清朝末年的农民起义说明中央政府已经无力控制他们的庞大的帝国了。相反，地方官员和军中要员接管了政治责任——这一情况和汉朝末年相同，当时，将领们镇压了黄巾军起义后，控制了中央政权，但不同的是，汉朝末年的将领试图取代皇帝，而李鸿章和他的同僚则只把自己看成是镇压起义、效忠皇帝的忠实卫士。因为清政府不愿和西方列强谈判，各省官员在对外政策上就可以放手行事。

20 年的内战在经济和人口上对政府的冲击如此之强以至于在同治皇帝时不得不改革：在建设现代化的工业之前，必须重建整个经济，尤其是农业要修建大坝、水路、水库和粮仓。经济的恢复需要增加赋税，这一情形无助于不得不面对来自国外竞争的商业和贸易的发展。

洋务运动和中国资本主义工业的产生：它是清末统治者掀起的一次自救活动。它是资本主义侵略者加强对清政府的控制，列强政治影响进一步深化的产物，又是外国资本主义经济对中国渗透的加深和扩散，中国社会自然经济结构逐步解体。

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洋务运动的指导思想是“中学为体,西学为用”,其活动则包括政治,军事、经济,文化教育等广泛的内容,这些活动随着形势的变化、发展和运动本身的发展,其着重点也有不同,总的是以军事和经济活动为主。洋务运动可分为前后两个时期,前期以创办新式军事工业为主,后期则以创办民用企业和创建新式海军为主。

从19世纪六七十年代开始,中国逐渐出现民族资本主义企业。中国民族资本主义企业产生的条件主要是商品市场、劳动力市场的形成和外国资本主义的刺激。

随着中国一步步成为外国的商品市场和原料供应地,中国社会原先的自然经济结构迅速变化,逐步瓦解。

义和团运动:义和团运动于1899年首先在山东兴起,迅速扩展到华北、东北地区,并直逼京津。义和团运动蓬勃发展,沉重打击了帝国主义侵华势力。为了镇压中国人民的反帝爱国运动,1900年6月,英、法、日、俄,德、美、意、奥八国组成侵略联军,大举入侵中国。义和团与帝国主义侵略者进行了英勇斗争。一部分清政府的爱国官兵也参加了抗击侵略者的战斗。

义和团在山东主要是反抗洋教和其他外国侵略势力。同时也打击庇护洋教而压制百姓的地方封建势力。1896年,毗邻直隶的鲁西北冠县梨园屯赵三多等人,在当地聚集义和拳众。1898年10月,赵三多率拳众300多人围攻附近的红桃园教堂,教会请来清军镇压,拳众东撤到临清,继续在直隶和山东交界之处进行反洋教斗争。与此同时,长清、在平、高唐、禹城一带的义和拳,在朱红灯(原名朱逢明)与心诚和尚(原名杨照顺)率领下,也掀起反洋教斗争,当地贫苦农民和大批流民群众纷纷响应。根据史料统计,在短短3个月里,仅在平一县860余庄中,习拳者多至800余处,几乎村村皆有。义和拳掀起反洋教斗争时,清政府接连下令山东巡抚张汝梅“实力保护”教堂教士。张汝梅多次派兵前往镇压,皆被拳民打败。

义和团运动在山东兴起之初,盘踞山东的德国侵略军便于1899年春占领日照、即墨、高密等地,并要求清政府镇压义和团。

辛亥革命:清政府的无能致使中国领土大面积沦丧,中国民众在全国各地自发组织了保国运动。20世纪初,以推翻清政府的腐朽统治作为奋斗目标的革命团体不断涌现。其中,以孙中山为首的中国同盟会多次发动武装起义,沉重打击了清王朝的统治。受西方资产阶级思想的影响,革命党人和资产阶级维新派要求在中国实行君主立宪制度。当立宪派觉悟到清政府的假立宪面目后终于同清政府决裂。发动了推翻清王朝的辛亥革命。

1911年的辛亥革命推翻了清政府的统治,并成立了南京临时政府。

辛亥革命是中国历史上具有伟大意义的历史事件。在政治上,推翻了清王朝,结束了在中国延续了几千年之久的封建专制政体,第一次建立起民主共和政权,并使民主共和的观念深入人心;在经济上,南京临时政府奖励资本主义工商业,促进了民营企业的发展。1912年全国新创办的工厂达963家,较之1911年增加了一

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倍。民族资本企业的这个发展势头持续了多年，加上其他因素，使民族资本主义经济的发展进入了“黄金时代”，为民主运动的继续高涨提供了物质条件；在思想文化上，一些封建的、落后的陈规陋习被唾弃，追求科学和民主成为社会时尚。

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Chapter 19 中华民国 China Republic



国民政府统治和国共合作共同抗日

The Rule of the National Republic Government and Cooperation of Kuomindang and the CCP to Fight Against the Japanese Invaders

The foundation of the rule of the national republic government: After the failure of the Great Revolution, the political situation was terribly confused. The warlord Zhang Zuolin of Feng Faction monopolized the Beijing government and formed the antagonism between the old and the new warlords. The Kuomindang split into different parties and factions. Besides, the conflicts among the factions were serious.

The most two powerful factions among them were the Ning and Han. The two factions had the relationship with the swords drawn and bows bent for the supreme authority of the Kuomindang. Feng Yuxiang appealed for the cooperation of the Ning and Han for the reason to discard the threat coming from the Feng Faction. Then the two sides Ning and Han agreed to conciliate. But the Han Faction put forward a requirement that Jiang Jieshi should leave his office in the government of the Kuomindang. At that time, the imperialism of the Great Britain and the United States of America hoped to bring about the cooperation of the Ning and Han fac-

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tions in order to attack the warlord Zhang Zuolin of Feng Faction which was supported by the Japanese imperialism. But Jiang Jieshi hoped to attack Wuhan, which was consistent with the plan of the Japanese imperialism. The position of Jiang Jieshi declined among the new warlords. In order to stabilize and improve his position, he thought he must find more help from the foreign imperialism so he employed the tactics to retreat in order to advance. Then in August 1927, he declared to leave his office. In autumn 1927, the Wuhan National Republic government moved to Nanjing and merged with the Nanjing National Republic government, which is called the "Ning-Han Collaboration" in the history of China. The National Republic government represented the interests of the landlord and the big bourgeoisie. Its foundation symbolized the set-up of the solo-party autocracy of the Kuomindang.

After the Ning-Han Collaboration, the conflicts among the factions of Kuomindang did not cease at all. On the contrary, they became more and more serious. The warlord of Feng Faction took of the advantage to attack the Nanjing National Republic government in the south. The factions of Kuomindang asked Jiang Jieshi to return to his office with different incentives. In the early 1928, Jiang Jieshi returned to his office and reorganized the Nanjing National Republic government.

In the early 1928, the National Republic government appointed Jiang Jieshi the General Commander of the National Revolutionary army in particular. It was followed that the Fourth Plenary Session of the Second Central Committee of the Kuomindang was held in Nanjing. The committee carried out the stand put forward by Jiang Jieshi to "be united to fight against the Chinese Communist Party". Still it stipulated that "the General Commander of the National Revolutionary Army should be responsible for the Central Executive Committee of the Chinese people and the National Republic government in military." In this way, Jiang Jieshi gained the positions of the member of the standing committee of the Kuomindang Executive Committee, the Minister of the Central Organization Department and the Chairman of the Military Committee.

Tangled warfare among the new Kuomindang warlords: After the northeast warlord changed its banner, the factions of the new Kuomindang warlords had been jockeying for positions. They scrambled for authorities and interests and fought year after year. In the spring of 1930, the three factions of Yan, Feng and Gui were united to fight against Jiang. Then the central Great War broke out. The two sides threw millions of soldiers into the war and had the fiery war on the front-

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line of thousands of *li*. In September, Zhang Xueliang, who had the wait-and-see attitude and the critical function in the situation, published an open telegram to the nation to support Jiang Jieshi because of the roping in of Jiang. Right after that he entered the Pass together with his forces and occupied Tianjin and Beiping (the modern Beijing), which made the whole war situation take a sudden turn and then developed rapidly. Very soon the anti-Jiang front collapsed. This was the most large-scaled tangled warfare among the warlords in the modern history of China.

With the support of the imperialism of Great Britain and the USA and also the support of the financial magnates in Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces, with the application of the conflicts among the factions of the warlords, the methods to bribe and disintegrate the warlords, Jiang Jieshi licked all his opponents who dared to contend with him and gained the obvious advantage in the powers of the new Kuomindang warlords. This laid foundation for him to establish his military autocratic rule.

Economy in the early rule of the Kuomindang: After the foundation of the National Republic government, a series of economic policies and measures were adopted to stabilize the economy, increase the income and strengthen the management of the country.

In the year of 1929, the National Republic government carried out the tax rules but it was afraid of increasing the import tax by a big margin.



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国民政府在全国统治的建立：大革命失败以后，中国政局极为混乱。奉系军阀

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张作霖仍然把持北京政府，形成新旧军阀的对立。国民党分裂为众多派系，内部派系斗争十分激烈。

宁汉两派在国民党内部最有实力。为争夺国民党最高领导权，宁汉两派剑拔弩张。冯玉祥以消除奉系军阀的威胁为理由，呼吁宁汉合作。宁汉双方同意和解，但汉方提出一个条件，就是蒋介石下野。那时候，英美帝国主义希望促成宁汉合作，以进攻日本帝国主义支持的奉系军阀张作霖。而蒋介石希望先攻打武汉，与日本帝国主义的打算一致。蒋介石在新军阀中的地位下降。为了稳定和提高自己的地位，他感到必须到国外去寻找帝国主义更多的支持，就采取以退为进的策略，于1927年8月宣布下野。1927年秋武汉国民政府迁往南京，与南京国民政府合并，史称“宁汉合流”。国民政府代表大地主大资产阶级的利益，它的成立，标志着国民党一党专政统治的建立。

宁汉合流以后，国民党各派斗争并没止息，反而愈演愈烈。奉系军阀趁机南下进攻国民党。国民党各派怀着不同动机，要求蒋介石复职。1928年初，蒋介石重新上台，重组了南京国民政府。

1928年初，国民政府特任蒋介石为国民革命军总司令。接着，国民党二届四中全会在南京召开。会议贯彻了蒋介石提出的“共同一致反对共产党”的主张，还规定“国民革命军总司令对中国国民的中央执行委员会及国民政府在军事上负其责任”。这样，蒋介石取得了国民党执行委员会常务委员、中央组织部长和军事委员会主席的职务。

国民党新军阀的混战：东北易帜后，国民党各派新军阀勾心斗角，争权夺利，连年混战。1930年春，阎、冯、桂三派军阀联合反蒋，中原大战爆发。双方投入兵力上百万，在绵延数千里的战线上，打得难分难解。9月，持观望态度而有举足轻重作用的张学良，在蒋介石拉拢下，通电拥蒋，随即率兵入关，占领天津、北平，整个战局急转直下。不久，反蒋战线土崩瓦解。这是中国近代史上规模最大的一次军阀混战。

蒋介石依靠英美帝国主义和江浙财阀的支持，利用各派系军阀之间的矛盾，采取金钱收买、分化瓦解的计谋，打败所有同他抗衡的对手，在国民党新军阀势力中，取得明显优势。这就为蒋介石建立军事独裁统治奠定了基础。

国民政府统治前期的经济：国民政府建立以后，采取了一些经济政策和措施，以便稳定财政，增加收入，巩固统治。

1929年，国民政府实施新税则，但不敢大幅度提高进口税。

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国共对峙的形成
Formation of Confrontation of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party

The peasants and workers armed uprising: From the distressingly grievous lessons of the failure of the Great Revolution, the Chinese Communist Party began to realize the importance of taking hold of the armed forces. In order to save the revolution, the Chinese Communist Party decided to answer the massacring policy of the Kuomindang reactionaries with the armed uprising.

On August 1, 1927, Zhou Enlai, Ye Ting, He Long, Zhu De and Liu Bocheng commanded the revolutionaries to rise up in Nanchang. The revolutionaries went to the south to Guangdong very soon and were blocked on the way by the enemies and suffered great loss. A part of the revolutionaries fought in different places in the south of Hunan and stuck to the fight with Zhu De and Chen Yi as the commanders. The other part of the revolutionaries entered Hailufeng and united with the local peasant forces. The Nanchang Uprising shot the first crack to fight against the Kuomindang reactionaries with arms. The People's Army with the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party came into being in the Nanchang Uprising.

On August 7, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party held a meeting in secret in Hankou and this was the "August 7th Meeting". The August 7th Meeting pointed out the new outlet for the Chinese Communist Party who were in confusion and slack organization and made its great contribution to the salvage of the party and the revolution.

After the meeting, Mao Tsedong returned to Hunan to organize the peasant and worker army and commanded the Autumn Harvest Uprising on the border of Hunan and Jiangxi. And they flagged the Workers' and Peasants' Revolutionary Army. The Nanchang uprising and the Autumn Harvest uprising etc. created a new situation for the Chinese Communist Party to lead the armed struggle for the scrambling for the regime. It raised the curtain for the Chinese revolution to create its own forces, transfer to the country from the cities and set up the countryside revolutionary bases.

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Sparks in Jinggangshan Mountains: In October 1927, Mao Tsedong commanded the revolutionary army and arrived in Jinggangshan area. The soldiers and peasants started the guerrilla war and practiced the Agrarian Revolutionary War and set up the Worker and Peasant Revolutionary Regime. Through about half a year's hard and great efforts, they established the Jinggangshan Revolutionary Base and lit the spark up of "the Worker and Peasant Armed Separatist Regime". In April 1928, Zhu De and Chen Yi led part of forces of the Nanchang Uprising and the Worker and Peasant Armed forces of the south Hunan arrived in Jinggangshan and joined the forces with the Worker and Peasant Revolutionary army led by Mao Tsedong. They merged into the Fourth Army of the Chinese Workers' and Peasants' Red Army. The whole army had more than ten thousand soldiers, Zhu De being the army commander, Mao Tsedong the Party representative. Then the Jinggangshan Revolutionary Base developed constantly.

The foundation of Chinese Soviet Republic: The development of the Red Army and the revolutionary base shocked the Kuomindang greatly. From the end of 1930 to the autumn of 1931, the Kuomindang reactionaries launched three times of anti-revolutionary "encircling and suppressing" constantly to the central revolutionary base. As far as the situation was concerned that the enemy was stronger and the Red Army was weaker, Mao Tsedong adopted the policy to "avoid the enemy's main force, lure the enemy in deep, concentrate the superior force and destroy the enemies respectively." The Red Army crushed the enemies' three anti-revolutionary "encirclings and suppressings" completely and dexterously. The Red government stood lofty and firm on the land of China and stood facing each other with the Kuomindang government.

In order to promote the revolutionary struggle, in winter of 1931, the Chinese Soviet had the First National People's Congress in Ruijin, Jiangxi province. On the meeting it was declared that the Temporary Central Committee of the Chinese Soviet Republic and decided the outline constitution and Ruijin was taken as the capital of the government. Mao Tsedong was elected Chairman of the Temporary Central government and Zhu De the Military Chairman of the Central Revolutionary Military Committee.

The Long March of the Red Army: (a major strategic movement of the Chinese Workers' and Peasants' Red Army which succeeded in reaching the revolutionary base in northern Shaanxi after traversing eleven provinces and covering 25 000 *li*, from 1934 to 1936): After the September 18th Incident (the seizure of Shengyang

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in 1931 by the Japanese invaders, as a step towards their occupation of the entire Northeast), the people of the whole country indignantly denounced the non-resistant policy that brought calamity to the country and the people and required strongly the Kuomindang to stop the civil war and fight against the foreign invaders together. Faced up the great pressure of the social public opinion, Jiang Jieshi produced another policy "to settle down the civil affairs first in order to resist the foreigners" and continued carrying out his reactionary policies to compromise with the Japanese imperialism and encircle and suppress the Red Army. In February 1933, Jiang Jieshi concentrated more than thirty divisions to encircle and suppress the Central Revolutionary base the fourth time along the left, the middle and the right routes. At that time, Wang Ming and Bo Gu had been in charge of the central administration of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party and the mistakes of the "left" deviation had been in the superior position in Chinese Communist Party. Mao Tsedong was deprived of the authority of the Central Soviet areas. The leaders of the "left" mistakes forced the Red Army in the Central Soviet areas to attack actively the places where the enemy placed the massive forces on garrison duty. But Zhou Enlai and Zhu De resisted the wrong orders from Wang Ming and the others and smashed the fourth "encircling and suppressing" to the Central Soviet areas of the Kuomindang in spring of 1933.

In the early of 1933, the Temporary Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party in Shanghai moved to the Central Soviet areas. The "left" mistakes, especially, in the military command, had been carried out completely in the revolutionary base. In October 1933, Jiang Jieshi concentrated a million soldiers to launch the fifth reactionary "encircling and suppressing" battle, which was the most large-scaled, focusing the attack on the Central Soviet areas with half a million of the soldiers.

When the fifth "encircling and suppressing" started, Bo Gu and Li De had a wrong judgment that "it is the decisive engagement between the red political power and the white political power, the revolutionary route and the colonial route to decide who will conquer the other". So they carried out the policy of the "left" adventurism and raised the calls to "refuse the enemies outside of the gate" and "lose none of the land" and ordered the Red Army to launch an attack on all fronts and attack the enemies' strong positions. When the attack suffered setback, they turned to the conservatism in defence and advocated "to divide the forces for defence", setting up defences everywhere and resisting step by step, fighting the po-

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sitional warfare with the enemies and standing up to the enemies the war of attrition with "the suddenly and violently close combat". As a result, the Red Army had fought hard for a year and suffered heavy loss but couldn't repulse the enemies' "encircling and suppressing". On the contrary they made the Red Army fall into the terribly dangerous situation.

In October 1934, the Temporary Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and more than eighty thousand central Red Army soldiers had the strategic movement and the Long March started. Part of the Red Army and the guerrillas continued staying in the Central Revolutionary bases to stick to the guerrilla war and cover the main force of the Red Army to break through under the leadership of the Xiang Ying and Chen Yi.

In January 1935, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China had the enlarged meeting of the Political Bureau in Zunyi. The meeting corrected the "left" mistakes in military and organization of Bo Gu and the others, affirmed Mao Tsedong's correct opinions, elected Mao Tsedong the member of the Standing Committee of the Central Political Bureau and deprived the supreme military commanding rights of Bo Gu and Li De.

The Zunyi Meeting ended the control of Wang Ming's "left" mistakes in the Central Committee and established the correct leadership of the new Central Committee of the Party with Mao Tsedong as the core in reality. It was the first time that the Chinese Communist Party settled his own problems in the route and policies independently and with the initiative in their own hands with the application of the theory of Marxism. It solved properly the disagreement and contradictions that had existed in the Party for a long time. It symbolized that the Party marched from the innocence to the maturity. The meeting saved the Party, the Red Army and the Revolution in the great dangerous situation. It was the critical turning point in the history of the Party.

In October 1935, the Central Red Army joined forces with the Red Army in northern Shaanxi. In October of the following year, the three main forces of the Red Army—the Second Red Army, the Fourth Red Army joined forces with the First Red Army in Huining, Gansu province, which announced that the twenty-five-thousand *li* Long March of the Red Army ended in success.

The success of the Long March has its great historical importance: First, it smashed the attempt of the Kuomindang reactionaries to "encircle and suppress" the Red Army and strangle the Chinese revolution. It made the Chinese revolution

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turn to safety from the danger. Second, the Red Army broke through the siege, pursuit and interception of the Kuomindang reactionaries, overcame the natural dangers and difficulties in the snowmountains and the meadows and vanquished the crisis of separatism in the Party. In the end they arrived in northern Shaanxi with no more than thirty thousand soldiers. But they were the essence of the Chinese Communist Party maintained after being toughened by working and fighting under difficult conditions. They were the main forces to lead the Chinese people to have the Anti-Japanese war and the People's Revolutionary war later. Third, on the way of the Long March, the Red Army propagandized his political opinions and sew widely the seeds of revolution.



国共对峙的形成
Formation of Confrontation of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party

工农武装起义:从大革命失败的惨痛教训里,中国共产党开始认识到掌握武装力量的重要性。为了挽救革命,中国共产党决定用武装起义来回答国民党反动派的屠杀政策。

1927 年 8 月 1 日,周恩来、叶挺、贺龙、朱德、刘伯承率领革命军在南昌起义。不久,革命军南下广东,途中遭到敌人封堵,损失严重。革命军一部分由朱德、陈毅率领,转战湘南,坚持斗争;另一部分进入海陆丰,与当地农民军汇合。南昌起义打响了武装反抗国民党反动派的第一枪。中国共产党领导的人民军队在南昌起义中诞生了。

8 月 7 日,中共中央在汉口秘密召开会议,即"八七会议"。八七会议给正处于思想混乱和组织涣散的中国共产党指明了新的出路,为挽救党和革命作出了巨大贡献。

会后,毛泽东回湖南,组织工农武装,领导了湘赣边秋收起义,公开打出工农革命军的旗号。南昌起义、秋收起义等开创了中国共产党独立领导武装斗争夺取政权的新局面;为中国革命创建人民军队,从城市转入农村,建立农村革命根据地揭开了序幕。

井冈山的星火:1927 年 10 月,毛泽东率领革命军到达井冈山地区。井冈山军

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民，开展游击战争，进行土地革命，建立工农革命政权。经过近半年的艰苦努力，创建了井冈山革命根据地，点燃了“工农武装割据”的星星之火。1928 年 4 月，朱德、陈毅率领南昌起义的部分军队和湘南的工农武装来到井冈山，与毛泽东领导的工农革命军会师，合编为中国工农红军第四军。全军一万余人，朱德任军长，毛泽东任党代表。井冈山根据地不断扩大。

中华苏维埃共和国的建立：红军和革命根据地的发展，使国民党大为震骇。从 1930 年底到 1931 年秋，国民党反动派对中央革命根据地连续发动三次反革命“围剿”。毛泽东根据敌强我弱的情况，采取“避敌主力，诱敌深入，集中优势兵力，各个歼灭敌人”的方针，干净、利落地粉碎了敌人的三次反革命“围剿”。红色政权巍然屹立在中华大地上，同国民党政权对峙。

为了推动革命斗争，1931 年冬，中华苏维埃第一次全国代表大会，在江西瑞金召开。会议宣布中华苏维埃共和国临时中央成立，制定了宪法大纲，定都瑞金；选举毛泽东为临时中央政府主席，朱德为中央革命军事委员会主席。

红军的长征（是中国工农红军的一次重大战略转移，从 1934 到 1936 年间转战 11 个省、行军 25 000 里后成功到达陕北革命根据地）：九一八事变以后，全国人民愤怒声讨祸国殃民的不抵抗政策，强烈要求国民党停止内战，一致对外。而对社会舆论的强大压力，蒋介石又提出“攘外必先安内”的政策，继续推行向日本帝国主义妥协、对红军“围剿”的反动方针。1933 年 2 月蒋介石调集 30 多个师的兵力，分左、中、右三路，对中央革命根据地发动第四次“围剿”。那时候，王明、博古已掌握了中共中央领导权，“左”倾错误在中国共产党内占据统治地位。毛泽东被剥夺了中央苏区军队的领导权。“左”倾错误领导人强令中央苏区红军主动出击，攻打敌人重兵布防的地方。但是，周恩来、朱德抵制了王明等人的错误指令，于 1933 年春，打破了国民党对中央苏区的第四次“围剿”。

1933 年初，在上海的临时党中央迁入中央苏区，“左”倾错误，特别是军事指挥方针上的错误，在革命根据地得到全面贯彻。1933 年 10 月，蒋介石调集百万军队，对革命根据地发动了规模空前的第五次反革命“围剿”，以 50 万军队重点进攻中央苏区。

第五次反“围剿”一开始，博古、李德就错误地判断，这是“红色政权与白色政权、革命道路与殖民地道路之间谁战胜谁的决战”。他们实行冒险主义方针，提出“御敌于国门之外”、“不丧失寸土”的口号，命令红军全线出击，攻打敌人的坚固阵地。进攻受挫之后，他们又转而采取防御中的保守主义，主张“分兵把守”，处处设防，节节抵抗，同敌人打阵地战，以“短促突击”跟敌人拼消耗。结果，红军奋战一年，伤亡惨重，却没能打退敌人的“围剿”，反而使自己陷入极其危险的境地。

1934 年 10 月，临时党中央被迫决定中共中央和中央红军 8 万余人实行战略转移，开始长征。由项英、陈毅率领一部分红军和游击队，留在中央革命根据地坚持

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游击战争，掩护红军主力突围。

1935 年 1 月，中共中央在遵义召开政治局扩大会议。会议集中纠正了博古等人在军事上和组织上的“左”倾错误；肯定了毛泽东的正确主张；选举毛泽东为中央政治局常委；取消博古、李德的军事最高指挥权。

遵义会议结束了王明“左”倾错误在中央的统治，在事实上确立了以毛泽东为核心的新的党中央的正确领导。这是中国共产党第一次独立自主地运用马克思主义原理解决自己的路线、方针和政策问题，妥善处理了党内长期存在的分歧和矛盾，是中国共产党从幼稚走向成熟的标志。这次会议在及其危急的情况下，挽救了党，挽救了红军，挽救了革命，成为党的历史上一个生死攸关的转折点。

1935 年 10 月，中央红军同在陕北的红军胜利会师。第二年 10 月，红军三大主力——红二方面军、红四方面军同红一方面军在甘肃会宁地区会师，宣告红军 25 000 里长征的胜利结束。

长征的胜利具有伟大的历史意义：

第一，粉碎了国民党反动派“围剿”红军、扼杀中国革命的企图，使中国革命转危为安。

第二，红军冲破了国民党反动派的围追堵截，克服雪山草地的自然险阻，战胜党内的分裂危机，最后到达陕北不足 3 万人。但这是经过千锤百炼保存下来的中国共产党和红军的精华。他们构成了以后领导抗日战争和人民解放战争的主干。

第三，在长征途中，中国共产党宣传了自己的政治主张，广泛的播下了革命的火种。



抗日民族统一战线的初步形成

Tentative Formation of the National Anti-Japanese Integrated Line

The “September 18th” Incident: Japan had drooled for the land of China for a long time. On the night of September 18, 1931, the Japanese army of East of the Pass exploded the rails of the Liutiaohu section of Nan-Man railway. Instead, they lodged a false accusation that the Chinese army destroyed the tracks and canoed the station of the Northern Army, stormed and captured Shenyang and created the

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"September 18th" Incident. Jiang Jieshi telegrammed Zhang Xueliang in secret: "The military action of the Japanese army in Shenyang can be considered as a local incident. Hope that the conflict be avoided lest the situation be more serious. All the negotiation will be done by the Central Committee." Two hundred thousand of the Army of Northeast executed the non-resistant order of Jiang Jieshi and withdrew with no fight at all. Within less than half a year, the three provinces of the northeast had fallen into the hands of the Japanese and become the colony of Japan.

The rising up of the Anti-Japanese War and the National Salvation Movement: After the occurrence of the "September 18th Incident", the Communist Party of China made a declaration immediately to blame the invasion of the Japanese imperialism, disclose the non-resistant policy of Jiang Jieshi and raised a call to "arouse the masses to fight··· and strike the enemy directly", which expressed the just voice of the whole nation.

The northeast people who did not want to be the conquered ones and the Army of the northeast that had not withdrawn organized the anti-Japanese volunteers and they gave the Japanese imperialism a heavy strike. The Communist Party of China sent a large group of excellent leaders to the Northeast to organize the anti-Japanese guerrillas. In 1936, the Manchou Provincial Committee of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party united all the anti-Japanese organizations into the Anti-Japanese Amalgamated Army of the Northeast. The Anti-Japanese Amalgamated "Army of the Northeast became the core of the Northeast anti-Japanese armed forces and the chief leaders of it were Yang Jingyu, Zhou Baozhong and Li Zhaolin".

The Japanese imperialism closed in on step by step and the Kuomindang government retreated in concession again and again, which aroused the great discontent of the patriotists and the patriotist power inside the Kuomindang and they flagged to contend against Jiang one by one.

At the end of 1932, the Chinese United League of Guaranteering on Civil Rights was founded in Shanghai and Song Qingling was appointed the Chairman, Cai Yuanpei the vice Chairman and Yang Xingfo the General Secretary. The Chinese United League of Guaranteeing on Civil Rights asked the China National Republic government to release the political prisoners and guarantee the civil rights for the masses to fight against the Japanese invaders. This contributed a lot to the development of the anti-Japanese democratic movement.

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In the spring of 1933, the Chaha'er Anti-Japanese People's Allied Forces organized by the Kuomindang patriotistic general Feng Yuxiang and the Communist Party member Ji Hongchang had fought for five days and nights with the Japanese army, recovered the lost Duolun and drove the Japanese army and the puppet soldiers out of Chaha'er province. The victory encouraged the anti-Japanese fighting will of the whole nation. But Jiang Jieshi slandered that the Allied forces "had blocked the consensus of policy" and sent the army to attack the Allied forces from both sides colluding with the Japanese and the puppet army. Then the Allied Army had run out of ammunition and provisions and failed in the end.

In November 1933, the patriotic general Cai Tingkai and someone else of the 19th Route Army of the Kuomindang, united Li Jishen and the others who were against Jiang inside the Kuomingdang, founded "the People's Government of the Chinese Republic" in Fujian and Li Jishen was in the seat of chairman. The People' Government of the Chinese Republic declared to contend with Jiang and fight against the Japanese invaders. It signed "The Agreement To Fight Against the Japanese Invaders and Stop the Civil War" with the Red Army and had won the support and sympathy of the public opinions. But Jiang Jieshi colluded with the Japanese invaders to attack the 19th Route Army from both sides. The People's Government of the Chinese Republic failed in the end with the persistence of less than two months.

Incidents in North China (including Hebei, Shaanxi and the municipalities of Beijing and Tianjing): In the year of 1935, the Japanese imperialism made a series of incidents on purpose which were called the "Incidents in North China" in order to occupy North China. At that time large groups of Japanese Army of East of the Pass entered the pass, approaching and threatening Beijing and Tianjin. The National Republic government sent He Yingqin to negotiate with the general commander of the Japanese garrison in North China and reached an agreement "He-Mei Agreement". The main contents are the Central Army of the Kuomindang must withdraw out of Hebei province and stop all the anti-Japanese activities. This made the North China crisis more and more serious.

The Japanese invaders were insatiable. They hatched actively the so-called "defending the Communist Party of China and autonomy movement of the five provinces in North China" and attempted to change North China into the second Manchou state. But the National Republic government applied the policy to fit for the need of the Japanese that "the North China Administration" should be special-

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ized, which made the politics, economy in the North China more and more colonialization and the national crisis was deepened.

Wayaobao Congress: After the Incidents in North China, the Chinese nationality was facing the crisis of extinction. In the year of 1935, the delegation of China in the Communist International declared the "August 1st Manifesto" and called on people to stop the civil war and fight against the Japanese. In the end of the same year, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China held the meeting in Wayaobao in North Shaanxi. At the meeting the policy to set up the integrated anti-Japanese invaders front line of the Chinese nationality was decided. The policy gained the support of the patriotists in different fields in the country.

After the congress in Wayaobao, Mao Tsedong made a report about "The Strategy to Contend with the Japanese Imperialism" at the active members of the Party. He pointed out: the essential characteristic of the present political situation was that the Japanese Imperialism attempted to change China into its colony. The national contradiction in China had become the main one and the class contradictions inside the country had become the minor ones. Then the task of the Communist Party of China was to unite the movements of the Red Army with the movements of the workers, the peasants, students, petty bourgeoisie and the national bourgeoisie and form the integrated national line. And the integrated line should be under the charge of the Communist Party of China. The Communist Party of China and the Red Army were the starters of the national anti-Japanese integrated line and should be the firm crops of the anti-Japanese government and the anti-Japanese forces. The report laid the theoretical foundation for the national anti-Japanese integrated line of the Communist Party of China and promoted the anti-Japanese invaders and the national salvation movement of the patriotists of different levels to its summit.

"December 9th Movement": "The ears are full of the lamenting of the nation, and land is losing in years". Facing with the kind of fact, the students in Beiping then launched the fight first to contend with Japan and save the country from salvation under the leadership the Communist Party of China. On December 9, 1935, thousands of students in Beiping demonstrated and shouted "Down with the Japanese imperialism!", "Stop the civil war and fight against the foreigners together!" and "Against the autonomy of North China!" The Kuomindang authority sent the forces and the police to suppress the demonstration. The demonstration happened on the December 9th, 1935 was the "December 9th Movement".

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The patriotic activities of the students hit the traitorous policy of the Kuomindang, disclosed the plot of Japan to attempt to gobble up China, propagandized the Chinese Communist Party's political opinions to "stop the civil war and fight against the foreigners together" and encouraged the new wakeup of the Chinese nationality.

After the "December 9th Movement", the students in Beiping and Tianjin responded to the call of the Party and organized the groups to the South to the factories, countryside and the army and propagandized the fight against the Japanese invaders and the salvation of the nation by following the way to unite with the workers and the peasants. Then the movement to fight against the Japanese invaders and to save the nation from extinct came to its new summit.

"**Xi'an Incident**": Moved and inspired by the National anti-Japanese Integrated Line of the Chinese Communist Party, the patriotic generals Zhang Xueliang and Yang Hucheng reached the peaceful resolution with the Red Army and asked Jiang Jieshi to stop the civil war and fight against the Japanese invaders together with the Chinese Communist Party and were rebuked with no reasons at all. They had to detain Jiang Jieshi on December 12th and decided to have the armed expostulation and forced Jiang Jieshi to fight against the Japanese invaders. This matter was "Xi'an Incident" or "The Double 12 Incident" which shocked the world.

After "Xi'an Incident", the leader of the close-to-Japan group, He Yingqin planned actively to suppress Zhang and Yang. Song Meiling and Song Ziwen and the others of the close-to-Britain-and-USA group mediated actively in order to solve Xi'an Incident peacefully and rescue Jiang Jieshi. Faced up the extremely complex political situations and showing great foresight, the Chinese Communist Party offered to solve the incident in Xi'an peacefully from the consideration of the interests of the whole nationality and sent Zhou Enlai and the others to Xi'an to attend the negotiation. With the efforts from different sides, Jiang Jieshi was forced to accept the suggestions to stop the civil war and fight against the Japanese invaders together with the Chinese Communist Party. Then Xi'an Incident was solved in peace.

The peaceful settlement of Xi'an Incident expressed clearly the strong desires of that people in different classes of China, including the patriotists in the Kuomindang who required to be united together as one to fight against the Japanese invaders. The Chinese Communist Party stuck to solving the incident in peace, which showed the honesty of the Party to unite with the other parties to fight against the Japanese invaders. The peaceful settlement of Xi'an Incident opened up the prologue of the

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two parties from civil war to peace, from separation to cooperation and it became the key event to turn the tide.



抗日民族统一战线的初步形成

Tentative Formation of the National Anti-Japanese Integrated Line

九一八事变：日本对中国领土垂涎已久。1931 年 9 月 18 日夜，日本关东军炸毁南满铁路柳条湖段轨道，反诬中国军队破坏，炮轰东北军驻地，攻占沈阳，制造了“九一八事变”。蒋介石密电张学良：“沈阳日军行动，可作为地方事件，望力避冲突，以免事态扩大。一切对日交涉，听候中央处理可也。”20 万东北军执行蒋介石不抵抗命令，不战自退。不到半年，东北三省全部落入日军之手，沦为日本帝国主义的殖民地。

抗日救亡运动的兴起：九一八事变爆发以后，中国共产党立即发表宣言，谴责日本帝国主义的侵略，揭露蒋介石的不抵抗政策，提出“发动群众斗争……直接给日本帝国主义以打击”的号召，表达了全国人民的正义呼声。

不愿做亡国奴的东北人民和未撤走的东北军，纷纷组织抗日义勇军。东北义勇军给日伪军以沉重打击。

中国共产党派大批优秀干部，到东北组织抗日游击队。1936 年，中共满洲省委将各路抗日武装组织组成抗日联军。抗日联军成为东北抗日武装力量的核心，杨靖宇、周保中、李兆麟是抗日联军的主要领导人。

日本帝国主义步步进逼，国民政府节节退让，引起爱国主义人士和国民党内爱国力量的不满。他们纷纷举起抗日反蒋的旗帜。

1932 年底，中国民权保障同盟在上海成立，宋庆龄任主席，蔡元培任副主席，杨杏佛任总干事。中国民权保障同盟要求国民政府释放政治犯，保障人民抗日的民主权利，对抗日民主运动的发展作出了重要贡献。

1933 年春，国民党爱国将领冯玉祥同共产党员吉鸿昌组织的察哈尔民众抗日同盟军，与日军血战五昼夜，收复多伦，将日伪军赶出察哈尔省。这个胜利鼓舞了全国人民的抗日斗志，但蒋介石却诬蔑同盟军“妨碍统一政令”，派兵勾结日伪军夹击同盟军。同盟军弹尽粮绝，宣告失败。

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1933年11月，国民党第十九路军爱国将领蔡廷锴等联合国民党内反蒋势力李济深等，在福建成立“中华共和国人民政府”，由李济深任主席。中华共和国人民政府宣布反蒋抗日，同红军签订《抗日停止协定》，得到国内舆论的支持和同情。蒋介石勾结日军，夹击十九路军。中华共和国人民革命政府坚持不到两个月，最后失败了。

华北事变：1935年，日本帝国主义为侵占华北而蓄意制造了一连串事件，总称“华北事变”。那时，大批日本关东军入关威逼平津。国民政府派何应钦同日本华北驻屯军司令梅津美治郎谈判，达成“何梅协定”。其主要内容是中央军队撤出河北境内，取缔一切抗日活动。华北危机日益严重。

日本得寸进尺，又积极策划所谓“华北五省防共自治运动”，妄图把华北变成第二个满洲国。国民政府采取适应日本“华北政权特殊化”要求的方针使华北地区的政治、经济日趋殖民地化，民族危机加深了。

瓦窑堡会议：华北事变以后，中华民族面临亡国灭种的危机。1935年，中国驻共产国际代表团发表“八一宣言”，号召停止内战，一致抗日。同年底，中共中央在陕北瓦窑堡召开会议，确定了抗日民族统一战线的方针。这一方针，得到全国各界爱国人士的拥护。

瓦窑堡会议结束以后，毛泽东在党的活动分子会议上，作了《论反对日本帝国主义的策略》的报告。他指出：目前政治形式的基本特点是日本帝国主义要变中国为他的殖民地。中日民族矛盾上升为主要矛盾，国内阶级矛盾下降到次要地位。中国共产党的任务，就是把红军的活动同全国的工人、农民、学生、小资产阶级和民族资产阶级的一切活动汇合起来，形成一个统一的民族战线。这个统一战线必须由中国共产党来领导。共产党和红军是抗日民族统一战线的发起人，要成为抗日政府和抗日军队坚强的台柱子。这个报告奠定了中国共产党抗日民族统一战线的理论基础，推动了全国各阶层爱国人士抗日救亡运动的高涨。

“一二·九”运动：“满耳是大众的嗟伤，一年年国土的沦丧”。面对这样的现实，在中国共产党领导下，北平学生率先开展抗日救亡斗争。1935年12月9日，北平学生数千人举行示威游行，高呼：“打倒日本帝国主义！”“停止内战，一致对外！”“反对华北自制！”国民党当局出动军警镇压游行队伍。这就是著名的“一二·九”运动。

学生的爱国行为，打击了国民党的卖国政策，揭露了日本企图吞灭中国的阴谋，宣传了中国共产党“停止内战，一致对外”的抗日救国主张，促进了中华民族的新觉醒。

“一二·九”运动以后，平津学生响应中国共产党的号召，走同工农相结合的道路，纷纷组织南下宣传团，到工厂、农村和军队中，宣传抗日救国。全国抗日救亡运动掀起了新高潮。

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西安事变:在中国共产党民族统一战线政策的感召下,爱国将领张学良、杨虎成,同红军和解停战,要求蒋介石停止内战,联共抗日,都遭到无理训斥。他们于12月12日扣押了蒋介石,实行“兵谏”,逼蒋介石抗日。这就是震惊中外的“西安事变”,又称“双十二事变”。

西安事变发生以后,国民党内亲日派头子何应钦积极部署讨伐张杨。国民党内亲英美派的宋美龄、宋子文等为和平解决西安事变、营救蒋介石,积极奔走。面对极其复杂的政治形式,中国共产党高瞻远瞩,从全民族利益出发,提出和平解决西安事变的主张,派周恩来等赴西安参加谈判。经过各方面的努力,蒋介石被迫接受停止内战、联共抗日的主张。西安事变得到和平解决。

西安事变显示出中国各个阶层,包括国民党内部的爱国人士,要求实现团结抗日的强烈愿望。中国共产党力主和平解决西安事变,充分表明了团结抗日的诚意。西安事变的和平解决,揭开了国共两党由内战到和平,由分裂到合作抗日的序幕,成为扭转时局的关键。



抗日战争的爆发
The Eruption of the Anti-Japanese War

The Double Seven Incident and the realization of the second cooperation between the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party: In the night of July 7, 1937, the Japanese army had the excuse that they had lost a soldier and required to go into the city of Wanping to search and was refused by the Chinese garrison. Then the Japanese army immediately attacked the city of Wanping and Lugouqiao. The Chinese garrison rose up and fought back. This is the “Lugouqiao Incident” or “The Double Seven Incident”. Then the national anti-Japanese broke out.

The following day after the “Double Seven Incident”, the Chinese Communist Party published the anti-Japanese telegram to call on people in the country to be united up, build up the firm great wall of the national integrated line with the close cooperation of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party to drive the Japanese invaders out of China. A few days later, Jiang Jieshi made the Lushan Speech and “have decided the policy to fight against the Japanese invaders”.

In order to force the Chinese National Republic government to give in, the Jap-

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anese army attacked Shanghai in force and threatened Nanjing on August 13. This is the "August 13th Incident" in the history. The following day the National Republic government declared the self-defence declaration to express to "resist the violence".

After the "August 13th Incident", according to the agreement of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party, the main forces in the Northwest were redesignated as the Eighth Route Army of the national revolutionary forces, Zhu De and Peng Dehai being appointed the chief and vice chief commanders. Later the Red Army and the guerrillas in the South were redesignated as the New Fouth Army of the national revolutionary forces, and Ye Ting and Xiang Ying were appointed the army commander and the vice army commander. In September, the Kuomindang announced the cooperation declaration of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party submitted by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party. Up to now, the National Anti-Japanese Integrated Line was founded.

In order to repulse the Japanese invaders' attack on Shanghai, the Chinese army had fought seriously for three months with the Japanese invaders in Shanghai and the areas around, which is the "Songhu Decisive Battle" in the history of China. But Shanghai fell in November 1937.

During the Songhu Decisive Battle, the Japanese army in North China entered Shanxi and attempted to conquer Taiyuan. And the National Republic government organized the Taiyuan Decisive Battle. The Eighth Route Army marched to Shanxi to attend the decisive battle. Zhu De and Peng Dehai ordered Lin Biao to command the Division 115 to ambush the enemy in Pingxingguan and won the Pingxingguan Great Victory. This was the first great victory after the War of Resistance Against Japan. The army of the Kuomindang blocked the Japanese army in Xinkou Shanxi province. It was a hard war. Then the Japanese army occupied Taiyuan very soon.

In December 1937, the Japanese army captured Nanjing. Then the National Republic government moved to Chongqing. The Japanese army had the unparalleled slaughter in Nanjing and more than three hundred thousand people were killed.

In spring 1938, the Japanese army invaded Xuzhou in two routes from Shandong. The chief commander Li Zongren of the Fifth War Zone of the National Republic government commanded the Chinese army to block respectively in two routes in Linyi and Tai'erzhuang of Shandong. They wiped out more than ten thousand Japanese in Tai'erzhuang. And they had won the greatest victory after the start of

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the War of Resistance Against Japan.

However, the National Republic government was only dependent on the one-sided policy of the government and the army and had no power to block the frenzied attack of the superious enemy. Xuzhou and the other places fell continuously. In October, Guangzhou, and Wuhan were occupied by the Japanese army. Then China had lost most of North China, Central China, and South China.

The opening of the Anti-Japanese base in the rear of the enemy: In Autumn 1937, the Chinese Communist Party had the Luochuan Congress in Northern Shaanxi. At the meeting the policy to mobilize all the forces of the whole nationality to manage the victory of the anti-Japanese invaders war, which is called the Full-sided anti-Japanese Policy, was decided. After that the Eighth Route Army and the New Fourth Army boldly drove on the rear of the enemy to develop the widely independent and initiative guerrilla war, setting up anti-Japanese bases and changing the enemy's rear into the anti-Japanese frontline.

At that time, the Shan-Gan-Ning border areas where the Central Committee and Mao Tsedong lived were the commanding centre and the general rear of the national anti-Japanese bases and Yan'an was the location of Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party.

The publication of "On the Protracted War" by Mao Tsedong: At the beginning of the War of Resistance Against Japan, the close-to-Japan group spread the "saying of national extinction". They stressed on one-sidedly that the weapons and technology of China were inferior to Japan and said that "China must extinct if it continues fighting". On the contrary, the close-to-Britain-and-USA group encouraged the "quick decision" and imagined to defeat the Japanese army at speed with the force of Great Britain and USA. In order to point out the correct route to the people in the country for the Anti-Japanese War Mao Tsedong published "On the Protracted War" in 1938, refuting the "saying of national extinction" and the "saying of quick decision", and pointing out the Anti-Japanese War was a protracted war and the deepest source of the power of the war was in the masses. So the Chinese should carry on the policy of the people's war. In this way the victory must belong to the Chinese.

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抗日战争的爆发
The Eruption of the Anti-Japanese War

七七事变和第二次国共合作的实现:1937 年 7 月 7 日夜间,日军借口一个士兵失踪,要求进入宛平城搜查,遭到中国守军拒绝。日军随即进攻宛平城和卢沟桥。中国军队奋起抵抗。这就是"卢沟桥事变",又称"七七事变"。全国的抗日战争由此开始。

"七七事变"的第二天,中国共产党发表抗日通电,号召全国人民团结起来,国共两党亲密合作,筑成民族统一战线的坚固长城,把日本侵略者驱逐出中国。几天以后,蒋介石也发表庐山谈话,"确定了准备抗战的方针"。

为了迫使中国国民政府投降,8 月 13 日,日军大举进攻上海,威胁南京。史称"八一三事变"。第二天,国民政府发表自卫宣言,表示要"抵抗暴力"。

"八一三事变"以后,根据国共两党协议,在西北的中国工农红军主力改编为国民革命军第八路军,朱德、彭德怀为正副总指挥;后来,又把南方 8 省的红军游击队改编为国民革命军陆军新编第四军,叶挺、项英为正副军长。9 月,国民党公布了中共中央提交的国共合作宣言。至此,抗日民族统一战线正式建立。

为了打退日军对上海的进攻,中国军队同日本侵略者在上海及其周围地区激战 3 个月,史称"淞沪会战"。1937 年 11 月,上海失守。

淞沪会战期间,华北日军侵入山西,企图夺取太原。国民政府组织太原会战。八路军开赴山西,参加会战。朱德,彭德怀命令林彪率领一一五师在平型关伏击日军,取得平型关大捷。这是抗战以来的首次大捷。国民党军队在山西忻口阻击日军,战斗十分艰苦。不久,日军侵占太原。

1937 年 12 月,日军攻陷南京。国民政府迁往重庆。日军在南京进行了惨绝人寰的大屠杀,南京 30 多万人被害。

1938 年春,日军从山东分两路进犯徐州。国民政府第五战区司令长官李宗仁,指挥中国军队,将两路日军分别阻击在山东临沂和台儿庄。在台儿庄消灭日军 10 000 余人。取得了抗战以来最大的胜利。

但是,国民政府单纯依靠政府和军队的片面抗战路线,无力阻止优势敌人的疯狂进攻。徐州等地相继失守。10 月,广州、武汉也被日军占领。中国失去了华北、华中和华南大片领土。

敌后抗日根据地的开辟:1937 年秋,中国共产党在陕北召开洛川会议,制定了

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动员全民族一切力量,争取抗战胜利的人民战争路线,即全面抗战路线。此后,八路军、新四军挺进敌后,广泛开展独立自主的游击战争,建立抗日根据地,把敌人的后方变成抗日的前线。

那时候,中共中央和毛泽东所在的陕甘宁边区是全国抗日根据地的指挥中枢和总后方。延安是中共中央所在地。

毛泽东《论持久战》的发表:抗战初期,国民党内的亲日派散布"亡国论",他们片面强调中国武器和技术不如日本,鼓吹"再战必亡",国民党的亲英美派,宣扬"速胜论",幻想依靠英美的力量,迅速战胜日本。为了向全国人民指出抗日战争的正确道路,1938 年,毛泽东发表了《论持久战》,驳斥了"亡国论"和"速胜论",指出抗日战争是持久战,战争的伟力之最深厚的根源,存在于民众之中,实行人民战争的路线,最后胜利一定属于中国。

日本帝国主义在沦陷区的殖民统治

The Colonial Management of the Japanese Imperialism in the Enemy-occupied Areas

The Puppet government founded by Wang Jingwei Group: In autumn 1938, after the occupation of Guangzhou and Wuhan, the Japanese almost stopped its large-scaled frontal attack because of the pressure of shortage of forces, and supplies on the long frontline and the threat of the anti-Japanese bases. As far as the Chinese was concerned, the Chinese army withdrew from one place after another on the frontal line. The anti-Japanese forces of the people could defeat the invaders through long-term and hard fight. Therefore, the Anti-Japanese Invaders War went into a stage of stalemate. The coming of stage of the stalemate of the anti-Japanese war announced the abolishment of the plan that the Japanese invaders attempted to destroy China with the "quick battle to force a quick decision". The Japanese imperialism changed its strategic policies because of this—to attack the anti-Japanese bases led by the Chinese Communist Party with the concentration of its main forces. As for the National Republic government they decided to focuse on luring into surrender while making the military hit subsidiary.

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In this situation, in December 1938, the close-to-Japan Group taking the vice President of the Kuomindang Wang Jingwei as the leader betrayed the country and defected to the enemy publicly. The puppet government of Wang was the product and tool for the Japanese imperialism to carry out its invading China policies.

Barbarous robbery in economy: The Japanese invaders had various kinds of robbery in the enemy-occupied areas (the areas occupied by the Japanese during the War of Resistance Against Japan) in agriculture, mining industry, communication, finance and labour forces and extorted money heavily in China and the labor forces. The general policy of the Japanese invaders was to change the Chinese economy into its appendage economy.

In agriculture, the Japanese invaders occupied a great amount of land in the enemy-occupied areas to build roads, blockade ditches and airports etc or to deliver the land to the Japanese immigrants. Another robbery method was to buy the agricultural products at low prices. In the private industry and communication, the Japanese invaders decided the mining industry, steel and communication and the others the "control enterprises", which were the monopoly of the Japanese businessmen and the right of the enterprises were in the hands of the Japanese. In this way, Japan had changed the enemy-occupied areas into his raw materials bases to meet its need for the invading war and raked in exorbitant profits. In finance, the Japanese army took over the bank with force whenever they captured a city and seized the money and jewelry. The Japanese army and the puppet army also set up more than twenty financial organizations such as the Manchou Central Bank and the Chinese Allied Reserve Bank, issuing the banknotes with no reserve at all, forcing people in the enemy-occupied areas to exchange the counterfeit bank notes with the governmental paper currency in order to rake money of the Chinese. Besides, they printed a great deal of military banknotes (used by the Japanese army in the enemy-occupied areas) to circulate in the enemy-occupied areas. The Japanese and the puppet armies increased the taxes constantly. There were more than one hundred taxes in Hebei.

The pursuit of the education of enslavement: The Japanese invaders carried out a kind of education of enslavement. In education, the puppet government of Japan stressed more on and lengthened the primary education in the whole educational years of the children in the Northeast enemy-occupied area with the purpose to instill the thought of enslavement into the juveniles when they were young. The textbooks published by the Japanese army had the central and essential idea of

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"good will between China and Japan", "coexistence and prosperity" and the "new order of the great East Asia" and so on in order to extinct the national sense of the Chinese and cultivate the students "docile citizens" under their alien ruler. Japanese was the required course. The map of China should not be hung at school and the character like "China" was not allowed to be used. In this way they attempted to sap and destroy the national will and sense of the Chinese and the sense to fight against the invaders and realize their policy of coexistence.

The brutal control of the Japanese and the puppet army and the resistance of the people in the enemy-occupied areas: The people in the enemy-occupied areas had lost freedom completely and had lived a life of the conquered people. The Japanese army practiced "the movement to strengthen security" in Northeast. In order to wipe out the anti-Japanese power, they adopted the policies to join the villages, check on household occupants, deliver "credits of docile citizens" and have the Bao-Jia system. In Central China, the puppet government of Japan launched the "movement to clear the villages" and practices the terrible policies on the anti-Japanese and patriotic personages.

The Chinese Communist Party led the Chinese to contend with the colonial control in different ways of fighting. The workers in coal mine in Kailuan, the postmen in Shanghai, and the workers in the tap water factory and the trolley-bus drivers went on strike one by one. More than one hundred thousand peasants in the south of the Yangtze River rose up and wiped out the grain-collecting team of the Japanese and the puppet armies. These struggles had their great function in getting the enemy and shaking the control of Japan and the puppet government.

日本帝国主义在沦陷区的殖民统治

The Colonial Management of the Japanese Imperialism in the Enemy-occupied Areas

汪精卫集团建立伪政权:1938 年秋,日军占领广州、武汉以后,迫于战线太长,兵力、财力、物力的不足和抗日根据地的威胁,基本上停止对正面战场大规模的进

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攻。就中国方面看，正面战场连续败退，抗日人民力量还需要经过长期的艰苦斗争才能打败侵略者。于是，抗日战争进入了战略相持阶段。抗战相持阶段的到来，宣告了日本侵略者妄图“速站速决”灭亡中国的计划的破产。日本帝国主义因而改变了战略方针——集中主要兵力进攻共产党领导的抗日根据地；对国民政府则以诱降为主，军事打击为辅。

在这种形式下，1938 年 12 月，以国民党副总统汪精卫为首的亲日派集团公开叛国投敌。汪伪政权是日本帝国主义推行侵华政策的产物和工具。

野蛮的经济掠夺：日本侵略者在农业、工矿、交通运输业、金融业、劳动力等方面，对沦陷区进行不同形式的掠夺，大肆榨取中国的资财和劳动力，他们的总方针是把沦陷地区的经济变为其附庸经济。

在农业方面，日本侵略者强占沦陷区的大量耕地，用于修建公路、封锁沟和飞机场等，或者分配给日本移民使用。低价收购农产品也是掠夺的方式之一。工矿交通运输业方面，日本侵略者将矿业、钢铁业和交通运输业等定为“统制事业”，由日本公司专营，企业的经营权由日方掌握。这样，日本就将沦陷区变为日本工业的原料基地，用以满足侵略战争的需要，并且从中国攫取巨额利润。金融方面，日军每占领一个地区就强占银行，掠夺金银和现款。日伪军还在沦陷区开设满洲中央银行、中国联合准备银行等 20 多家金融机构，滥发没有储备基金的伪币，强制沦陷区人民用法币兑换伪币，攫取中国的资财。此外，还印制大量军用票（供日军在沦陷区使用的纸币）在沦陷区流通。日伪军不断增加苛捐杂税，仅河北人民缴税就有 100 多种。

推行奴化教育：日本侵略者在占领区推行奴化教育。在学校教育方面，日伪政权在东北沦陷区加大初等教育阶段在整个学习年限中的比重，目的在于从小就向青少年灌输奴化思想。日伪军出版的教科书以“中日亲善”、“共存共荣”、“大东亚新秩序”等舆论为基本思想，企图泯灭中国人的国家意识，把学生培养成为他们统治下的“顺民”。日语被定为必修课。学校不得悬挂中国地图，不得使用“中国”字样，企图以此消磨、摧残中国人民的民族意识和反抗意志，实现共同化政策。

日伪的残暴统治和沦陷区人民的反抗斗争：沦陷区的人民完全失去人身自由，过着亡国奴的生活。日军在华北推行“治安强化运动”，采取并村、清查户口、发放“良民证”、实施保甲连坐制度等办法，企图肃清沦陷区的抗日力量。在华中，日伪政权发动“清乡运动”，对抗日爱国人士实行恐怖政策。

中国共产党领导群众以各种形式的斗争反对殖民统治。开滦煤矿工人、上海邮电、自来水厂工人和电车司机相继罢工。江南十多万农民举行暴动，消灭了日伪军的征粮队。这些反抗斗争对打击和动摇日伪的统治起到一定作用。

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国民政府的内外政策
Policies of the National Republic Government

The policies of the Kuomindang turned to the reactionary side: After Wuhan fell, the Kuomindang group continued fighting against the Japanese invaders, but they had the great vacillation and the tendency to be against the Chinese Communist Party and to surrender to the Japanese army was rising up. In early 1939, the Fifth Plenary Session of the Fifth Central Congress of the Kuomindang decided the reactionary policy to "dissolve the Chinese Communist Party, guard against the Chinese Communist Party, confine the Chinese Communist Party and fight against the Chinese Communist Party". The decision of the policy symbolized the important changes of the policies of the Kuomindang since the start of the War of Resistance Against Japan. Jiang Jieshi group had changed the center of its policy from the outside to the inside and began to carry out a policy to fight against the Japanese invaders passively and fight against the Chinese Communist Party actively.

Before the diehards of the Kuomindang launched the military attack to the Chinese Communist Party, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party produced "to persist in the fight against Japan and oppose the surrendering; persist in the unity and oppose the separation; persist in progress and oppose retrogression" and continued maintaining the cooperation with Jiang Jieshi group between the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party, strengthening and developing the National Anti-Japanese Integrated Line. Faced up with the military attack launched by the diehards of the Kuomindang, the anti-Japanese army and the masses hit back firmly led by the Chinese Communist Party and beat back the first summit of the fight against the Chinese Communist Party of the Kuomindang.

Incident in the south of Anhui: In the autumn of 1940, Jiang Jieshi forced the Eighth Route Army and the New Fourth Army in the south bank of the Yellow River to move to the north of the Yellow River within a month. In the early of the following year, followed the order of the Military Authority of the Kuomindang and permitted by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, more than nine thousand soldiers of the New Fourth Army moved to the north from Yunling, Jing Coun-

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ty, Anhui province. On the way to the north they were seiged and attacked surprisingly by more than eighty thousand soldiers of the Kuomindang who waited in ambush in the area of Maolin. The New Fourth Army had fought seven days and nights bitterly. Most of them heroically gave their lives except for that part of them broke through. The Army commander, Ye Ting was retained in the negotiation and the vice Army commander Xiang Ying was killed by the betraytor. This was the world-shocked "Incident in the South of Anhui". As followed Jiang Jieshi declared the New Fourth Army the rebel army, canceled the designation of the New Fourth Army and said Ye Ting would be given to the military court to be court-martialed.

After the Incident in the South of Anhui, the Chinese Communist Party adopted the policy to fight back firmly to the crime of doing great damage to the anti-Japanese war of the diehards of the Kuomindang. The Revolutionary Military Committee of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party announced to rebuild the military headquarters of the New Fourth Army. The New Fourth Army continued the fight against the Japanese invaders on the both sides of the Yangtze River. Meanwhile, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party stated publicly a great number of facts to disclose the plots of the Kuomindang who attempted to damage the anti-Japanese war.

Seriousness of the situations on the head-on front: While the Japanese army attacked in forces to the anti-Japanese base in the rear of the enemy, they had the partial attack to the head-on front of the Kuomindang in Central China and South China in order to force the National Republic government to give in in the early 1939 to 1940. In May 1940, the general commander Zhang Zizhong of the thirty-three Group Army of the Kuomindang commanded his soldiers to have fought nine days and nights in Zao-Yi Decisive battle and contributed his life to the country. Then the Japanese Army occupied Yichang.

In early 1944, Japan lost its advantage in the Pacific Ocean front and its communicating route to the South Asia was cut off by the USA army. So it was urgent to open the land communication lines in China. Then the Japanese army launched the Yu-Xiang-Gui battle.

The Yu-Xiang-Gui battle was the most large-scaled one that the Japanese army launched on the head-on front of the Kuomindang in the Anti-Japanese War and it had lasted eight months. The Kuomindang had lost a force of five or six hundred thousand and abandoned most of Yu, Xiang, Gui, Min and Yue and so on and part of Guizhou province with a total amount of the land of two hundred thou-

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sand square kilometers. That the Kuomindang was defeated was the evil consequence of the policy that the National Republic government carried out to fight against the Japanese invaders passively and fight against the Chinese Communist Party actively.

Highly-centralized administration and economic robbery: After the start of the War of Resistance Against Japan, the National Republic government continued sticking to the side of one-party administration in the policy to the inside. Jiang Jieshi became the dictator with the excuse to meet the need of the war, acting arbitrarily and dealing with all the affairs in the form of order. The Kuomindang developed its organization with special tasks, doing special evil activities to kill the Chinese Communist Party, the anti-Japanese masses and the democratic personages. Shangrao Concentration camp, Xifeng Concentration camp and the Chinese-American Cooperation Bureau in Chongqing and so on were the den of the monsters that the Kuomindang killed people. The National Republic government practices the Bao-Jia system to control people seriously. The joint and permeation of the three aspects of one-party administration, spies control and the Bao-Jia system constituted the characteristic of the centralized administration of the Kuomindang.

In the War of Resistance Against Japan, the National Republic government carried out the control economy policy and strengthened further the position of the economy monopoly. The bureaucratic capital inflated rapidly.



国民政府的内外政策
Policies of the National Republic Government

国民党政策转向反动：武汉失守以后，国民党领导集团虽然继续抗战，但表现出很大的动摇性，反共投降倾向日益滋长。1939 年初，国民党五届五中全会确定了“溶共，防共，限共，反共”的反动方针。这一方针的确定，标志着国民政府自抗战以来在政策上的重要转变。蒋介石集团把政策的重心由外转向对内，国民党开始执行一条消极抗日、积极反共的路线。

在国民党顽固派发动军事进攻以前，中共中央提出“坚持抗战，反对投降；坚持团结，反对分裂；坚持进步，反对倒退”的方针，继续争取同蒋介石集团维持国共合

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作,巩固并扩大抗日民族统一战线。面对国民党顽固派发动的军事进攻,中国共产党领导抗日军民坚决予以回击,打退了第一次反共高潮。

皖南事变:1940 年秋,蒋介石强令黄河以南的八路军和新四军在一个月内开到黄河以北。第二年初,遵照国民党军事当局的命令并经中共中央同意,新四军九千余人从安徽泾县云岭出发,移师北上,在茂林地区遭到预先埋伏的国民党军队八万余人的包围袭击。新四军血战七昼夜,除少部分人突围外,大部分壮烈牺牲。军长叶挺在谈判中被扣押,副军长项英被叛徒杀害。这就是震惊中外的"皖南事变"。接着,蒋介石宣布新四军为"叛军",取消新四军番号,并声称将叶挺交军事法庭审判。

皖南事变发生以后,中国共产党对国民党顽固派破坏抗战的罪行,采取了坚决回击的方针。中共中央革命军事委员会宣布重建新四军军部的命令,新四军在大江南北继续坚持抗日战争。同时,中共中央公布大量事实,揭露国民党破坏抗战的阴谋。

正面战场形势的恶化:日军向敌后抗日根据地大举进攻的同时,在 1939 年初到 1940 年期间,为逼迫国民政府投降,向华中,华南的国民党正面战场发动了局部进攻。1940 年 5 月,在枣宜(湖北枣阳和宜昌地区)会战中,国民党第三十三集团军总司令张自忠,率军与敌人奋战九昼夜壮烈殉国。日军占领宜昌。

1944 年初,日本在太平洋战场逐渐失利,其与南洋的海上交通线被美军切断,迫切需要打通中国的大陆交通线。于是,日军发动了豫湘桂战役。

豫湘桂战役是抗日战争时期日军向国民党正面战场发动的规模最大的一次战役,历时 8 个月。国民党损失兵力五六十万人,放弃了豫、湘、桂、闽、粤等省的大部分和贵州省的一部分,丧失国土达 20 万平方公里。国民党战场的溃败,是国民政府实行消极抗日,积极反共政策造成的恶果。

独裁统治和经济掠夺:抗战开始以后,国民政府在对内政策上仍然坚持一党专政的基本立场。蒋介石借口适应抗战需要,独断专行,以命令形式处理党政军的一切事务,成为中国的大独裁者。国民党大力发展特务组织,专门从事残害共产党员、抗日群众和民主人士的罪恶活动。上饶集中营、息烽集中营、重庆中美合作所等,都是国民党特务的杀人魔窟。国民政府还强化保甲制度,严格控制人民。一党专政、特务统治、保甲制度三者互相结合、渗透,是国民党反动独裁统治的特征。

抗战时期,国民政府实行统制经济政策,进一步加强了经济垄断地位,官僚资本急剧膨胀起来。

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共产党坚持抗战和抗日战争的伟大胜利

The Chinese Communist Party's Persistence in the Anti-Japanese Invaders War and the Victory of the War

The one hundred regiments battle: In order to inspire the anti-Japanese spirit of the nation, overcome the danger of surrender and try to win the turn of the war for the better, Peng Dehuai commanded more than one hundred regiments of the Eighth Route Army to launch a large-scale fight against Japan in North China in the second half of 1940, which is the "One Hundred Rigements Battle" in the history of China. The one hundred regiments battle stroke the invading arrogance of the Japanese army, improved the prestige greatly of the Chinese Communist Party and the Eighth Route Army and made the confidence firm of the nation to win the Anti-Japanese Invaders War.

The bitter fight of the masses and the armies in the rear of the enemy: From the year of 1941, Japan had concentrated more than half of the invading army in China to have the "the great mopping-up operations" to the anti-Japanese bases in the rear of the enemy. In the "mopping-up operations", the Japanese army carried out the brutal "three all-gone policies" to burn everything, kill everybody and rob everything, and even laid the poisonous gas and the bacteriological warfare. They made the non-existence area with the attempt to wipe out the anti-Japanese bases.

The soldiers and the masses in the bases used the policy "to have the basic guerrilla war and not to give up the mobile war in the advantageous situations" to have the war against the "mopping-up operations". The militia had the active cooperation with the regular army and the guerrillas and created various guerrilla war methods such as mine warfare, tunnel warfare, and sparrow warfare and sabotage operations and so on. In the battles against the mopping-up operations, the

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anti-Japanese forces of the minority such as the Mongol anti-Japanese Guerrilla and the Hui Detachment fought very heroically.

The construction of the anti-Japanese bases: In order to strengthen the bases and win the anti-Japanese War in the end, the Chinese Communist Party had made different policies and measures.

In the government of the bases the policy "three-three system" was practiced. The Anti-Japanese Democratic government was founded on the base of the system, which strengthened the unity of different levels of the people and the National Anti-Japanese United Line.

In the bases, the policy was carried out that the landlords reduced the rent and interest of the loans and the peasants should hand in rent and interests of the loans. This had decreased the exploitation of the landlords and improved the material life of the peasants, inspired the initiative of the peasants to fight against Japan and take part in production. Meanwhile it was helpful to unite the class of the landlords to fight against the Japanese invaders together. In order to overcome the difficulties in economy, the soldiers and the masses in the bases had launched the great production movement vigorously. The 359 Brigade of the Eighth Route Army moved to Nanniwan to open up the wasteland and became the model of the great production movement. The great production movement made the bases overcome the seriously difficult period and laid the material foundation for the victory of the Anti-Japanese Invaders War.

In 1942, the Chinese Communist Party launched the rectification movement. The contents of the rectification movement are: to be against the subjectivism, to be against the factionalism and to be against the Party jargon. Throughout the rectification movement, the Chinese Communist Party had exposed and criticized the "left" and the "right" mistakes in the thinking and reached the unparalleled unity and integration and laid the mental foundation for the final victory of the Anti-Japanese Invaders War and the victory of the new-democratic revolution in the nation.

The convening of the Seventh National Congress of the Chinese Communist Party: On the eve of the victory of the World Anti-fascist War and the eve of the Chinese Anti-Japanese Invaders War, in spring of 1945, the Chinese Communist Party held the Seventh National Congress in Yan'an. Mao Tsedong made the political re-

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port "About the Coalition Government". The congress put forward the task of the Party in the situation that the Anti-Japanese Invaders War was about to win was to go all out to mobilize the masses, expand the power of the people, lead the people to defeat the Japanese invaders, liberate the whole nation and build an independent, free, democratic, united, wealthy and strong new-democratic country. At the meeting Mao Tsedong thought was decided as the guiding ideology of the Party and the Central Committee was produced through election with Mao Tsedong as the head. The meeting made the important preparation for the final victory of the Anti-Japanese Invaders War and the victory of the new-democratic revolution in the nation

Surrender without preconditions of Japan: In May 1945, the anti-fascist war in European front ended in victory. In August, the Soviet declared its war against Japan, and marched to Northeast of China and destroyed the crack troop of Japan, the Army of East of the Pass. Then Mao Tsedong made the announcement "The Last Battle to the Japanese Invaders" and called on all the forces in China launch the national-scaled counterattack. Following the order of the general commander Zhu De the Eighth Route Army, the New Fourth Army and the other people's forces would wipe out the enemies who refused to surrender. On August 15, Japanese government announced the surrender without preconditions. On September 2, Japan signed on the letter officially. Up to now the Anti-Japanese Invaders War of the Chinese people won the final victory.

The victory of the Anti-Japanese Invaders War is the first complete victory of the Chinese people to fight against the foreign invaders in more than a century. It increased greatly the national pride and confidence of the whole nation and laid a firm foundation for the victory of the democratic revolution in the country. The Anti-Japanese Invaders War of the Chinese people is an important component of the world anti-fascist war. The war of resistance against aggression of the Chinese people made its great contribution to the victory of the world anti-fascist war and the international position of China had been improved.

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共产党坚持抗战和抗日战争的伟大胜利

The Chinese Communist Party's Persistence in the Anti-Japanese Invaders War and the Victory of the War

百团大战：为了振奋全国人民的抗日精神，克服投降危险，争取抗战形势的好转，1940 年下半年，彭德怀指挥八路军 100 多个团，在华北发动一次大规模对日作战，称为百团大战。百团大战打击了日军的侵略气焰，大大提高了共产党和八路军的威望，坚定了全国人民抗战胜利的信心。

敌后军民的艰苦斗争：从 1941 年开始，日本集中一半以上的侵华兵力，对敌后抗日根据地进行大“扫荡”。在“扫荡”中，日军实行野蛮的烧光、杀光、抢光的“三光政策”，甚至施放毒气和进行细菌战，制造无人区，妄图消灭抗日根据地。

根据地军民执行“基本的游击战，不放松有利条件的运动战”的方针，积极开展了反“扫荡”斗争。民兵积极配合正规军、地方游击队作战，创造出地雷战、地道战、麻雀战、破袭战等游击战法。在反扫荡斗争中，蒙古抗日游击队、回民支队等少数民族的抗日武装，也表现得十分英勇。

抗日根据地的建设：为了巩固根据地和争取抗战胜利，中国共产党制定了各项政策和措施。

根据地政权中实行“三三制”原则，按照这一原则建立抗日民主政权，加强了各阶层人民的团结，巩固了抗日民族统一战线。

根据地实行地主减租减息、农民交租交息的土地政策，这就减轻了地主的剥削，改善了农民的物质生活，提高了农民抗日和生产的积极性，同时也有利于联合地主阶级一致抗日。为了克服经济上的困难，根据地军民开展了轰轰烈烈的大生产运动。八路军三五九旅进驻南泥湾开荒，成为大生产运动的模范。大生产运动使根据地度过了严重的困难时期，为争取抗战胜利奠定了物质基础。

1942 年，中国共产党开展了整风运动。整风运动的内容是：反对主观主义、反对宗派主义、反对党八股。通过整风，党从思想上清算了左的和右的错误，达到空

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前的团结和统一，为争取抗日战争的最后胜利和新民主主义革命在全国的胜利，奠定了思想基础。

中共七大的召开：在世界反法西斯战争和中国抗日战争胜利的前夕，1945 年春，中国共产党在延安召开了第七次全国代表大会。毛泽东在会上作了《论联合政府》的政治报告。大会提出，在抗日战争即将胜利的形势下，党的任务是：放手发动群众，壮大人民力量，领导人民打败日本侵略者，解放全国人民，建立一个独立、自由、民主、统一、富强的新民主主义国家。大会确立毛泽东思想为党的指导思想，选举产生以毛泽东为首的中央委员会。这次大会为争取抗日战争的最后胜利和新民主主义革命在全国的胜利作了重要准备。

日本无条件投降：1945 年 5 月，欧洲战场的反法西斯战争胜利结束。8 月，苏联政府对日宣战，出兵中国东北，摧毁日本的精锐部队关东军。毛泽东发表《对日寇的最后一战》的声明，号召中国一切力量举行全国规模的反攻。八路军、新四军以及其他人民军队，遵照朱德总司令的命令，坚决消灭拒绝投向的敌人。8 月 15 日，日本政府被迫宣布无条件投降，9 月 2 日正式签署投降书。至此，中国人民的抗日战争最后取得胜利。

抗日战争的胜利，是中国人民 100 多年以来第一次反对外来侵略斗争的完全胜利，它大大增强了全国人民的民族自尊心和自信心，为民主革命在全国的胜利奠定了坚实的基础。中国的抗日战争是全世界反法西斯战争的重要组成部分，中国人民的抗战对世界反法西斯战争的胜利做出了重大贡献。中国的国际地位得到提高。

争取和平民主的斗争和内战的爆发

The Struggle for Peace and Democracy and the Opening of the Civil War

The plot of the Kuomindang to launch the civil war: After the victory of the Anti-Japanese Invaders War, the contradiction between the Chinese people and the

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Kuomindang reactionaries supported by American imperialism had become the main conflict with the basic solution of the conflict of the Chinese and Japanese nationalities.

The main policy of United States of America after World War II was to support Jiang and oppose the Chinese Communist Party. After the surrender of Japan, the USA sent its planes, naval vessels to send the Kuomindang armies to the important strategic points and rails and the communication routes and helped Jiang Jieshi to scramble for the fruits of the victory of the war of resistance against aggression. Jiang Jieshi flaunted the banner of "building the country in peace" but continued his policies of centralization and civil war, wiping out the people's revolutionary power and maintaining the control of the class of the landlords and the bourgeoisie.

Chongqing Negotiation and the Double Ten Agreement: On one hand Jiang Jieshi was busy preparing for the civil war and on the other hand he had the pressure of the opinions inside the country of requiring peace and opposing the civil war, especially that the preparation for the civil war had not been completed and he had difficulties to launch the civil war, then Jiang Jieshi adopted the reactionary policy of "false peace and true civil war". In August 1945, he telegrammed Mao Tsedong three times and invited Mao to "talk about" the peace of the country.

In order to win over peace and disclose the plots of the American and Jiang reactionaries to unit and instruct the people, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party raised three calls of peace, democracy and unity and decided to send Mao Tsedong, Zhou Enlai and Wang Ruofei to Chongqing and have the negotiation about peace with the Kuomindang authority. At the end of August, companied by the American Ambassedor in China Helly and the representative of the National Republic government Zhang Zhizhong, Mao Tsedong and the others flew to Chongqing from Yan'an. After a negotiation of forty-three days, the Kuomindang authority said they agreed with the basic policies to set up the country in peace. On October 10, the presentatives of both sides of the Kuomindang and the Chinese Communist Party signed the "Summary of Talks of the Presentatives of the Government and China", which is the "Double Ten Agreement". The agreement stipulated to resolutely avoid the civil war and set up a new, independent, free, rich, and

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powerful China; to ensure the people to have the rights to enjoy democracy and freedom. But the two sides did not reach an agreement on the legal position of the administration of the people's army and the liberated areas though the Chinese Communist Party had made great concession.

The Political Consultative Conference: According to the principles in the "Double Ten Agreement", the Political Consultative Conference was held in Chongqing in early 1946. The struggle of the conference circled around the administration and the armies, so democracy in politics and nationalization of the armies were the problems in dispute.

Due to the pressure from the whole nation and the efforts of the Chinese Communist Party, and also the cooperation of Democratic Party and the nonparty personages, the conference passed through an agreement of the political consultation which was helpful to the people. The agreement included the reorganization of the National Republic government, the opening of the people's congress, and the carrying out of the "Set up the Country in Peace", reorganize the armies and enact the constitution.

The eruption of the Civil War: In summer of 1946, with the help of the American imperialism, the Kuomindang troops launched attack in forces to the liberated areas such as the Central Plain, East China, Jin-Ji-Lu-Yu and Jinsui and so on. Then the Civil War broke out.

At the beginning of the Civil War, the Kuomindang had its clear advantages in military and economy. Faced up the serious situation, Mao Tsedong pointed out the famous thesis that "Every imperialism is paper-tiger" in the conversation with the American journalist Anna · Luise · Strong. The armies and the masses in the liberated areas took it as the main purpose to wipe out the enemy's effective strength and the important fighting methods to have the mobile warfare. After they had fought for more than eight months, the people's army had annihilated more than seven hundred thousand enemy troops. The reserve forces of the enemy had decreased greatly and the plan of the Kuomindang was destroyed completely.

After the all-round attack was destroyed, the Kuomindang troops started carrying out the attack on the key sectors of the liberated areas in Northern Shaanxi and Shandong from spring 1947. The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Part

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and Mao Tsedong withdrew from Yan'an of their own accord and continued staying in the north of Shaanxi to command the people's liberation war of the whole nation. The Northwest Field Army wiped out more than thirty thousand the Kuomindang troops in the battles of Qinghuabian, Yangmahe and Panlongzhen. The East China Field Army wiped out completely the complete Kuomindang 74 Division with the American equipments of more than thirty thousand troops in the battle of Menglianggu. The attack on the important points of the liberated areas of the Kuomindang was destroyed.



争取和平民主的斗争和内战的爆发

The Struggle for Peace and Democracy and the Opening of the Civil War

国民党发动内战的阴谋:抗日战争胜利以后,随着中日民族矛盾的基本解决,中国人民同美帝国主义支持的国民党反动派的矛盾上升为中国社会的主要矛盾。

扶蒋反共是二战后美国对华的基本政策,日本投降以后,美国出动飞机、舰艇运送国民党军队到战略要地和铁路交通线,帮助蒋介石抢夺抗战胜利果实。蒋介石打着"和平建国"的旗号,但仍继续坚持独裁和内战的方针,妄图消灭人民革命力量,维护大地主大资产阶级的统治。

重庆谈判和《双十协定》:蒋介石一面积极备战发动内战,另一面又迫于国内外要求和平、反对内战的舆论压力,特别是由于内战的准备工作尚未完成,立即发动全面内战还有困难,于是采取了"假和平、真内战"的反革命策略。1945 年 8 月,蒋介石三次电邀毛泽东去重庆,"共同商讨"国内和平问题。

为了尽力争取和平,揭露美蒋反动派的阴谋,以利于团结和教育广大人民,中共中央提出和平、民主、团结三大口号,并决定派毛泽东、周恩来、王若飞到重庆同国民当局举行和平谈判。8 月底,毛泽东等在美国驻华大使赫尔利、国民政府代表张治中陪同下,由延安飞抵重庆。经过 43 天的谈判,国民党当局表示同意和平建国的基本方针。10 月 10 日,国共双方代表签署了《政府与中国代表会谈纪要》,即《双十协定》。协定规定:坚决避免内战,建设独立、自由和富强的新中国;国民党迅

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速结束“训政”,实施“宪政”;召开政治协商会议;保证人民享有民主、自由的权利等。但是,对人民军队和解放区政权的合法地位问题,虽然共产党方面作出重大让步,仍未能达成。

政治协商会议:按照《双十协定》的规定,1946 年初,政治协商会议在重庆召开。会议的斗争围绕着政权和军队问题进行,政治民主化和军队国家化,是争论最激烈的问题。

迫于全国人民的压力和共产党的努力,加上民主党派和无党派人士的合作,会议通过了有利于人民的政协协议,内容包括改组国民政府、召开国民大会、实施《和平建国纲领》、整编全国军队、制定宪法。

全国内战的爆发:1946 年夏,国民党军队在美帝国主义援助下先后向中原、华东、晋冀鲁豫、金穗等解放区大举进攻,内战爆发。

战争初期,国民党在军事和经济力量方面占着明显优势。面对严峻的形式,毛泽东在同美国记者安娜·路易斯·斯特朗的谈话中提出了“一切反动派都是纸老虎”的著名论断。解放区军民以歼灭敌人有生力量为主要目标,以运动战为主要作战方法。经过 8 个月的作战,人民军队歼敌 70 多万人,敌人的机动兵力大为减少,国民党的计划被粉碎了。

全面进攻被粉碎以后,从 1947 年春开始,国民党军队对陕北解放区和山东解放区实行重点进攻。中共中央和毛泽东等领导人从延安撤离,继续留在陕北,指挥全国的人民解放战争。西北野战军在青化砭、羊马河、蟠龙镇战役中,歼灭国民党军队三万余人。华东野战军在孟良崮战役中,全歼美械装备的国民党精锐部队整编七十四师 30 000 余人。国民党对解放区的重点进攻被粉碎了。

解放战争的胜利发展
Victorious Development of the People's Liberation War

The strategic counterattack of the People's Liberation Army: In the second year of the People's Liberation War, according to the plan of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, the People's Liberation Army turned to the strategic counterattack and the target of the main attack was the central plain where the defence force of the Kuomindang troops was weak. At the end of June 1947, Liu

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Bocheng, Deng Xiaoping commanded the main force of the Jin-Ji-Lu-Yu People's Liberation Army crossed the Yellow River and moved boldly to the border areas of Yu, Shan and E. Before long, Chen Yi and Su Yu led the main force of the East China Field Army attacked the border areas of Yu, Wan and Su. The three field armies formed the triangle battle formation and galloped in the central plain, stabbing into the heart of the Kuomingdang like three daggers, reaking the defence system in central plain of the Kuomindang and threatening the center of the Kuomindang administration Wuhan and Nanjing. The other liberated areas turned to the counterattack and restored the lost land. Nie Rongzhen commanded the Northeast People's Liberation Army and liberated Shijiazhuang, which made the two large liberated areas of Jin, Cha and Ji and Jin, Ji, Lu and Yu link together. Lin Biao and Luo Ronghuan commanded the Northeast Field Army and liberated most of the Northeast, forced the enemy in the Northeast withdraw and garrison the few isolated cities such as Changchun and Shenyang and so on. Peng Dehuai and He Long led the Northwest People's Liberation Army restored Yan'an. The strategic counterattack of the People's Liberation Army made its great contribution to reversing the trend of the war situation of the nation and it was the turning point of the People's Liberation Army marching to the victory as well.

The victory of the strategic decisive battle: In autumn 1948, the forces of the enemy and us had changed greatly. The People's Liberation Army entered into the decisive stage to win over victory in the whole country. The Kuomindang could only defend a few strategic important points because of the shortage of forces. The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party analyzed the situation closely and thought it was time for the People's Liberation Army to have the decisive battle with the main forces of the Kuomindang army. Therefore the People's Liberation Army launched Liao-Sheng, Huai-Hai and Ping-Jin campaigns in succession. The victory of the three campaigns was the great victory of the People's War.

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解放战争的胜利发展
Victorious Development of the People's Liberation War

解放军的战略反攻：解放战争第二年，根据中共中央部署，人民解放军转入战略进攻，主攻方向是国民党军队防守力量薄弱的中原地区。1947 年 6 月底，刘伯承、邓小平率领晋冀鲁豫解放军主力渡过黄河，挺进豫陕鄂边区；不久，陈毅、粟裕率华东解放军主力进攻豫皖苏地区。三军形成品字阵势，驰骋中原，像三把尖刀插入国民党的心脏地区，打破了国民党军队的中原防御体系，威胁国民党统治的中心南京和武汉。其他解放区也转入反攻，收复失地。聂荣臻指挥华北解放军解放了石家庄，使晋察冀和晋冀鲁豫两大解放区连成一片。林彪、罗荣桓指挥东北解放军解放了东北广大地区，迫使东北敌军退守长春、沈阳等几个孤立的城市。彭德怀、贺龙领导西北解放军收复了延安。人民解放军的战略反攻，对扭转全国战局起了决定性作用，也是人民解放战争走向胜利的历史转折点。

战略决战的胜利：1948 年秋，敌我力量发生了的重大变化，人民解放战争进入夺取全国胜利的决定性阶段。国民党军队由于兵力不足，只能重点防守一些战略要地。中共中央经过分析，认为解放军与国民党军队进行主力决战的时机已经到来，于是连续发动了辽沈、淮海、平津三大战役。三大战役的胜利是人民战争的伟大胜利。



人民解放战争的胜利
Victory of the People's War

On the eve when the revolution was going to win in the country, Mao Tsedong issued the great call in the New Year message of 1949: "Carry the revolution through to the end."

In spring 1949, the Chinese Communist Party had the Second Plenary Session of the Seventh National Congress in Xibaipo, Hebei province. Mao Tsedong made an important speech at the meeting. He pointed out: from now on, the heart of

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the work of the Party must turn to the city from the countryside and the center of all work was to restore and develop the economy. He put forward the policies for the revolution to bring about a great advance in winning over the victory in the country. And he decided the basic policies in politics, economy and diplomacy after the victory of the revolution and the general task when China was about to change from an agricultural country to an industrial one, from the new-democratic socialist society to the socialist society. He also advised the Communist to be alert on the attack of the "sugarcoated bullets" of the bourgeoisie. The meeting had solved the important problem that China would change from the new-democratic revolution to the socialist revolution after the victory of the revolution and it had the great historical importance.

Because of the failure in the three great battles of the Kuomindang troops and the pressure from United States of America and the inside of the Kuomindang, Jiang Jieshi announced his statement "to sue for peace" on New Year's Day 1949, attempting to use the false peace as the stalling tactics. To counter the statement to "sue for peace" of Jiang Jieshi, Mao Tsedong stated the declaration in view of the present situations and disclosed the plot of false peace of Jiang Jieshi. But in order to end the war immediately and realize the peace at home and release the sufferings of the people, he produced in the declaration the eight terms for negotiation for peace. Jiang Jieshi had no way out and was forced to leave his office and commanded behind the curtain. Li Zongren took up the post of the acting president and expressed he was willing to negotiate for peace, attempting to administer the south of the country with the Yangtze River as the boundary.

In early April, the delegation of the Chinese Communist Party taking Zhou Enlai as the leader and the delegation of the Kuomindang taking Zhang Zhizhong as the leader had the negotiation for peace in Beiping on the base of the eight terms. Both sides reached an amendment of the "Peaceful Agreement at Home". But the Nanjing National Republic government refused to sign on the peaceful agreement on April 20. The fraud of false negotiation of the Kuomindang was exposed in this way.

On April 21, Chairman Mao Tsedong and the General Commander Zhu De issued the order to march to the whole country. Million troops of the People's Liberation Army crossed the Yangtze River braving the firing of the enemy. In a split second the Yangtze River defence line of the Kuomindang troops collapsed. On April 23, the People's Liberation Army occupied Nanjing. Then the National Republic

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government which had administered China for twenty-two years fell down.



人民解放战争的胜利
Victory of the People's War

在革命即将取得全国胜利的前夕，毛泽东在1949年新年献辞中发出伟大号召："将革命进行到底。"

1949年春，中国共产党在河北省西柏坡召开七届二中全会。毛泽东在会上作了重要讲话。他指出：从现在起，党的工作重心必须由乡村转移到城市，以恢复和发展生产为一切工作的中心。他提出了促进革命取得全国胜利的方针；规定了革命胜利以后，党在政治、经济、外交反面的基本政策，以及中国由农业国转为工业国、由新民主主义社会转变为社会主义社会的总任务。他还告诫共产党人，要警惕资产阶级"糖衣炮弹"的袭击。这次会议解决了革命胜利后，中国由新民民主主义革命向社会主义革命转变的重大问题，具有重大历史意义。

由于国民党军队在三大战役中的大溃败，加上美国和国民党内部的压力，蒋介石在1949年元旦发出"求和"声明，企图用假和平作缓兵之计。针对蒋介石的"求和"声明，毛泽东发表对时局的声明，揭穿了蒋介石假和平的阴谋。但为了迅速结束战争，实现国内和平，减少人民的苦难，他在声明中提出了和平谈判的八项条件。蒋介石走投无路，被迫下野，退居幕后指挥。李宗仁出任代总统，表示愿意和平谈判，企图与共产党划长江而治。

4月初，周恩来为首的共产党代表团同张治中为首的南京国民政府代表团，以八项条件为基础，在北平举行和平谈判。双方达成《国内和平协定》最后修正案。但是，南京国民政府于4月20日拒绝在和平协议上签字。这样，国民党假和谈的骗局被彻底揭穿了。

4月21日，毛泽东主席、朱德总司令发布向全国进军的命令。人民解放军百万雄师迎着敌人的炮火，横渡长江。国民党军队的长江防线倾刻间土崩瓦解。23日，解放军占领南京，统治中国22年的国民政府覆灭了。

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Chapter 20 中华人民共和国 The People's Republic of China

新中国的成立和巩固政权的斗争
The Foundation of New China and the Struggle to Strengthen the Regime

The historical conditions for the foundation of New China: With the one after another victory of China's War of Liberation, the conditions for the foundation of New China were ripe, which displayed in the following aspects: China's War of Liberation had won its victory in the country; the reactionary government of the Kuomindang had already been overthrown; the resolution the Second Plenary Session of the Central National Congress of the Chinese Communist Party and Mao Tsedong's "On the People's Democratic Dictatorship" had made full preparation for the foundation of New China in theory and policies; and the people in the country supported warmly the Central People's Government founded at speed under the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party.

The foundation of the People's Republic of China: In September 1949, the First Plenary Session of the Chinese Political Consultative Conference was solemnly held in Beiping. The Chinese Communist Party, different democratic parties, nonparty personages, the People's Liberation Army, different civil organizations, different regions, different nationalities and the oversea Chinese sent their delegates to attend the meeting, discussing the foundation of New China. The conference decided to set up the People's Republic of China. It passed through "The Common Programme of the Chinese Political Consultative Conference". The "common pro-

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gramme" stipulated the People's Republic of China was the new-democratic country—the people's democratic country. The authorities of country belong to the people and it has the civil democratic political power with the leadership of the working class, the base of the alliance of the workers and peasants and the unity of different democratic classes and the different nationalities at home. It has the quality of temporary constitution. The meeting elected the People's Government Committee. Mao Tsedong was elected the Chairman, Zhu De, Liu Shaoqi and Song Qingling the vice Chairmen. It also decided to change Beiping into Beijing and made Beijing the capital of New China, the red five-star flag the National Flag and "March of the Volunteers" the National anthem of the People's Republic of China.

On October 1, the First Plenary Session of the Central People's Government was held and the leaders of the country took the oath of the office. The meeting decided to appoint Zhou Enlai the Premier and concurrently Minister of Foreign Affairs and take the "Common Pragramme" as the administrative policy. Then on the rostrum of Tian An Men, the People's Government announced to the world that "The Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China was founded today!" The Central People's Government is the sole legal government which represents the People's Republic of China.

The foundation of the People's Republic of China has its great historical significances. They are:

The Chinese have overthrown the administration of the imperialism, feudalism and the bureaucrat-capitalism after more than one hundred brave struggle and have won the victory of the new-democratic revolution. The Chinese have stood up from now on and have become the master of the nation. The history of China has entered a new era.

The foundation of New China symbolizes that China has taken the independent, democratic and united road from now on and begun the new period to transit to the socialism.

The large country with a quarter of the world population has broken through the Eastern Line of Defence of the imperialism, expanded the forces of the world peace, democracy and socialism and encouraged the fight for the oppressed nationalities and peoples in the world to liberate themselves.

The basic liberation of the whole nation: When New China was founded, the War of Liberation had not finished. There were almost a million troops of the Kuomindang putting up a desperate struggle in the areas of South China and South-

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west. A large group of spies and bandits were carrying on the destructive activities everywhere and threatening the people's regime. After the foundation of New China, the People's Liberation Army continued pursuing and wiping out the left troops of the Kuomindang. Meanwhile they had the large-scale fight to suppress bandits in the newly liberated areas. By summer of 1950, the People's Liberation Army had basically wiped out the left troops of the Kuomindang on the mainland and the armed bandits.

In 1951, the People's Government reached an agreement with the local government of Tibet "The Agreement about the Ways to Liberate Tibet in Peace", which made Tibet be liberated in peace. Up to that moment, the Chinese territory had been completely liberated except Taiwan and a few islands along the sea.

Resist US aggression and aid Korea to protect our homes and defend our country: Before long New China was founded, it was faced up with the threat of the foreign invasion. In summer 1950, the Korean Civil War broke out. The United States of America intervened immediately the internal affairs of Korea with forces. Then an "Allied Army" was organized very soon taking the USA as the dominant force to invade Korea. They overpassed the "Three-Eight Boundary Line" and fired the flames of war to the border between China and Korea. Meanwhile the 7th Fleet of USA moved to the Taiwan Straits to interfere with the civil affairs of China. The situation of Korea was urgent and it threatened the security of China.

With the terrible threat the Government of the People's Democratic Republic of Korea sued for aid from Chinese Government. In order to resist US Aggression and aid Korea to protect our homes and defend our country, in October 1950, the Chinese Volunteers taking Peng Dehuai as the General Commander marched to Korea and resisted the US invaders side by side with the Korean troops and people and drove the US troops near "the Three-Eight Boundary Line". Later, the troops of Korea and China and the US invaders had repeated trials of strength. In summer 1953, the USA had to sign on the "Korea Armistice" because of the heavy hit of the troops of Korea and China. The War to Resist US Aggression and Aid Korea ended in the victory of Korea.

The victory of the War to Resist US Aggression and Aid Korea stroke forcefully the policies of invasion and war of the US imperialism. It defended the independence of Korea and the safety of China. The international prestige of China had been improved uncompared. At the same time, the victory of the war had won a relatively stable and peaceful situation for the economic construction and social reform

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in China.

Agrarian Reform Movement: After the foundation of New China, the broad people required to have land in urgency. In summer 1950, the Central People's Government promulgated "The Agrarian Reform Law of the People's Republic of China", abolishing the feudal and exploiting land ownership and realizing the land ownership of the peasant class. The Agrarian Reform Movement was carried out in the newly liberated areas which took half of the land of the whole country. In order to encourage the landlord class and help the development of the agricultural production, this land reform movement had the policy to protect the economy of the rich peasants. By the end of 1952, the whole country had already finished the agrarian reform except certain ethnic areas. Up to then, the feudal and exploiting land ownership which had lasted a few thousands of years in China had been abolished completely. The broad peasants had become the masters of the land and had stood up in politics and economy. The labour forces had been liberated and it had opened up a way to the development of the agricultural production and the national industrialization.

The Movement to Suppress the Reactionaries: When Jiang Jieshi group withdrew to Taiwan, he left a large group of reactionaries on the mainland. They were not willing to accept the fact of their failure and continued doing kinds of sabotage. Especially after the Korean War happened, they thought the "Third World War" was going to break out and it was the chance for Jiang Jieshi "to launch a counter-attack on the mainland". Therefore they were puffed up with the reactionary pride.

In order to strengthen up the regime, in October 1950, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party issued the order to suppress the reactionary activities. The whole nation launched the movement to suppress the reactionaries in a grand scale and punished the major reactionaries who were of guilty of the most heinous crimes and remained impenitent in accordance with the law. The reactionary remaining forces on the mainland of the country had basically cleared up after the struggle for a year.

The Movements Against the Three Evils and the Five Evils: In the year of 1952, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party and the Central People's Government decided to launch the movement "against corruption", "against waste" and "against bureaucracy" in the Party, government, army and mass organizations (the "Three Againsts Movements") and the movement "against bribery", "against tax evasion", "against theft of state property", "against cheating

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on government contracts", and "against stealing of economic information" in private industrial and commercial enterprises (the "Five Againsts Movement"). A large group of embezzlers in the national bodies were investigated and prosecuted. The former Secretary Liu Qingshan and the present Secretary Zhang Zishan of Tianjin prefectural Party Committee of the Chinese Communist Party degenerated into big embezzlers and were sentenced to death by the court in accordance with the law. The Movement Against Three Evils had educated the cardres, saved a group of comrades who had made mistakes, purified the cardre ranks and resisted the corrosive influence of the bourgeoisie. The Movement Against Five Evils had defeated back the frenzy attack of the illegal capitalists on socialism. It offered a universal education to keep the law and honour the job and began to have the supervision on the capitalists by the working class.



新中国的成立和巩固政权的斗争

The Foundation of New China and the Struggle to Strengthen the Regime

新中国成立的历史条件:随着人民解放战争的节节胜利,成立新中国的条件成熟了,这主要表现在:人民解放战争已在全国范围内取得胜利;国民党反动政府已被推翻;中国共产党七届二中全会决议和毛泽东的《论人民民主专政》,为新中国成立作了理论和路线、方针准备;全国人民热烈拥护在共产党领导下迅速成立中央人民政府。

中华人民共和国的成立:1949 年 9 月,中国人民政治协商会议第一次全体会议在北平隆重召开。中国共产党、各民主党派、无党派人士、人民解放军、各人民团体、各地区、各民族和国外华侨代表出席大会,讨论成立新中国的问题。大会决定成立中华人民共和国。大会通过了《中国人民政治协商会议共同纲领》,《共同纲领》规定,中华人民共和国为新民主主义即人民民主主义国家。国家的权力属于人民,实行工人阶级领导的、以工农联盟为基础的、团结各民主阶级和国内各民族的人民民主专政。《共同纲领》具有临时宪法的性质。大会选举了人民政府委员会,毛泽东当选主席,朱德、刘少奇、宋庆龄等为副主席。会议决定改北平为北京,为新

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中国的首都，以五星红旗为国旗，以《义勇军进行曲》为代国歌。

10月1日，中央人民政府举行第一次全体会议，国家领导人宣誓就职。会议决定任命周恩来为国务院总理兼外交部长，以《共同纲领》为施政方针。然后在天安门城楼上向全世界庄严宣告："中华人民共和国中央人民政府今天成立了！"中央人民政府是代表中华人民共和国的唯一合法政府。

中华人民共和国成立具有伟大的历史意义，主要表现在：

中国人民经过一百多年的英勇斗争，终于推翻了帝国主义、封建主义和官僚资本主义的统治，取得了新民主主义革命的胜利，中国人民从此站起来了，成了国家的主人。中国历史进入了一个新纪元。

新中国的成立标志着中国从此走上了独立、民主、统一的道路，开始了向社会主义过渡的新时期。

占世界人口近四分之一的大国，冲破了帝国主义的东方战线，壮大了世界和平、民主和社会主义的力量，鼓舞了世界被压迫民族和被压迫人民争取解放的斗争。

全国领土的基本解放：新中国成立时，人们解放战争尚未完全结束，国民党还有上百万军队在华南、西南一带负隅顽抗，国民党大批特务、土匪到处进行破坏活动，威胁人民政权。新中国成立以后，人民解放军继续追歼国民党残余部队，同时在新解放区进行大规模的剿匪作战。到1950年夏，基本上歼灭了祖国大陆上的国民党残余军队和武装土匪。

1951年，中央人民政府同西藏地方政府达成《关于和平解放西藏办法的协议》，西藏获得和平解放。至此，除台湾和少数沿海岛屿外，中国领土全部解放。

抗美援朝保家卫国：新中国成立不久就面临着外部侵略的威胁。1950年夏，朝鲜内战爆发。美国迅速以武力干涉朝鲜的内部事务，不久又组成一支以美军为主的"联合国军"侵略朝鲜。他们越过"三八线"，把战火一直烧到中朝边境。同时，美国的第七舰队开到台湾海峡，干涉中国内政。朝鲜局势危急，严重威胁中国的安全。

在严重的威胁下，朝鲜民主主义人民共和国政府请求中国政府出兵援助。为了抗美援朝、保家卫国，1950年10月，以彭德怀为司令员的中国人民志愿军开赴朝鲜，与朝鲜军民并肩抗击美国侵略者，把美军赶回到"三八线"附近。之后，中朝军民与美国侵略军进行了反复较量。由于中朝军民的沉重打击，1953年夏，美国不得不在《朝鲜停战协定》上签字，抗美援朝战争以美军的失败而胜利结束。

抗美援朝的胜利，沉重地打击了美帝国主义的侵略政策和战争政策；保卫了朝鲜的独立和中国的安全；中国的国际威望空前提高。同时，这一胜利，为中国的经济建设和社会改革赢得了一个相对稳定的和平环境。

土地改革运动：新中国成立后，广大人民迫切要求获得土地。1950年夏，中央

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人民政府颁布《中华人民国和国土地改革法》，废除封建剥削的土地所有制，实行农民阶级的土地所有制。土地改革运动在占全国一半以上的新解放区展开。为鼓励地主阶级和有利于发展农业生产，这次土地改革实行保护富农经济的政策。到1952年底，除部分少数民族地区外，全国已经基本完成了土地改革。至此，在我国延续了数千年的封建剥削土地制度彻底废除了。广大农民成了土地的主人，在政治上、经济上翻了身。农村生产力得到了解放，为农业生产的发展和国家工业化开辟了道路。

镇压反革命运动：蒋介石集团退往台湾时，在祖国大陆留下大批反革命分子，他们不甘心失败，继续进行种种破坏活动。尤其是朝鲜战争爆发以后，他们认为"第三次世界大战"即将爆发，蒋介石"反攻大陆"的时机已到，反革命气焰更加嚣张。

为了巩固政权，1950年10月，中共中央发出镇压反革命活动的指示。全国展开大张旗鼓的镇压反革命运动，依法惩处那些罪大恶极、怙恶不悛的反革命首要分子。经过一年斗争，基本上肃清了祖国大陆上的反革命残余势力。

"三反""五反"运动：1952年，中共中央和中央人民政府决定在党内、政府、军队和群众组织中展开"反贪污""反浪费""反官僚主义"的三反运动，在私营企业中展开"反行贿"、"反偷税漏税"、"反偷工减料"、"反倒卖国家财产"和"反盗窃国家紧急情报"的"五反"运动。在国家机关中查处一批贪污犯，中共天津地委前任书记刘青山和当时担任书记的张子善，堕落成为大贪污犯，被法院依法判处死刑。"三反"运动教育了干部，挽救了一批犯错误的同志，纯洁了干部队伍，抵制了资产阶级的腐蚀。"五反"运动打退了不法资本家对社会主义的猖狂进攻，在工商业中进行了一次普遍的守法敬业教育，开始建立了工人阶级对资本家的监督。



国民经济的恢复和初步发展
The Restoration and the Initial Development of the National Economy

The serious economic situation: Before New China was founded, the Civil War against the Chinese Communist Party and the people that the Kuomindang reactionaries stuck to, the long-term robbery of the imperialists, and the terrible extor-

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tion of the National Republic government and the bureaucrats made the industrial and agricultural production decrease, the communication block, the inflation prevail and the life of the people be hard and suffering. Especially in the areas of the Kuomindang control the economy tended to the general collapse. When New China was founded, the Chinese Communist Party took over a poor, undeveloped shambles riddled with gaping with wounds. The economic situation they were faced with was very serious.

The measures to restore and develop the national economy: After the foundation of New China, the Chinese Communist Party and the Central People's Government had adopted a series of effective measures to restore and develop the national economy. The main measures are: 1) confiscate the bureaucrat capital and set up the socialist state-owned economy; 2) stable the prices and standardize the economy; 3) adjust reasonably the industry and commerce.

The restoration and development of the national economy: While the Government was adjusting the industry and commerce, it led people to restore and develop the production. In the countryside, it led the peasants to launch the mutual aid and cooperation movement after the land reform and practiced the water conservancy projects and the development of production on large scales. In the minerary and enterprises, it launched the democratic reform and productive reform, which improved the incentive of the workers to a large degree. The workers launched the general movement to increase the production and save and the technological innovation, which inspired the development of the production.

With three years' efforts, by the end of 1952, the national financial economy had made the essentially good improvement and the national economy had gained its restoration and development. The industrial production had surpassed the historical level in China. The market was stable and the standard of the people's life had been improved obviously. The restoration and development had laid foundation for the country to open up the construction of the planned economy.

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国民经济的恢复和初步发展

The Restoration and the Initial Development of the National Economy

严峻的经济形势：新中国成立前夕，由于国民党反动派进行反共反人民的内战、帝国主义的长期掠夺，以及国民政府和官僚资本主义的大肆搜刮，造成工农业生产下降，交通运输堵塞，通货膨胀，人民生活十分困苦。特别是国民党统治区的经济已趋向总崩溃。新中国成立时，中国共产党从国民党手里接受了一个贫穷落后、千疮百孔的烂摊子，面临的经济形势十分严峻。

恢复和发展国民经济的措施：新中国成立以后，为恢复和发展国民经济，中国共产党和中央人民政府采取了一系列有效措施，主要有：1. 没收官僚资本，建立社会主义性质的国营经济。2. 稳定物价，统一经济。3. 合理调整工商业。

国民经济的恢复和发展：在调整工商业的同时，政府还领导人民恢复和发展生产。在农村，土地改革以后，引导农民开展互助合作运动，开展大规模的兴修水利，发展生产。在工矿企业进行民主改革和生产改革，大大地提高了工人的积极性，工人普遍开展增产节约和技术革新运动，促进了生产的发展。

经过三年努力，到1952年底，国家财政经济取得了根本好转，国民经济得到恢复和发展。工业生产超过历史上最高水平，市场物价稳定，人民生活水平显著提高。国民经济的恢复发展，为国家开展有计划的经济建设准备了条件。



社会主义制度的建立

Foundation of the Socialist System

The General Line in the transition period and the formulation of the First Five-year Plan: After the restoration of the national economy, in order to build our country into a socialist industrial country, in the year of 1953, the Chinese Commu-

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nist Party put forward the General Line and the General Task in the transition period. The General Line stipulated that China would gradually realize the socialist industrialization of the country in a quite long period and gradually realize the socialist transformation of agricultlure, handicraft and the capitalist industry and commerce. Then the Central People's Government had made the First Five-year Plan in accordance with the requirement of the General Line in the transition period. The essential tasks of the plan were: concentrate the main power on the development of the heavy industry first and set up the initial ground for the national industrialization; realize step by step the socialist transformation of the agriculture, handicraft and the capitalist industry and commerce. The socialist transformation of agriculture that the country had had first adopted the policy to develop the agriculture in positive way and make forward movement stably. The country carried out the rules to have the willingness and inter-interest in it and made the socialist transformation of agriculture step forward gradually with the model demonstration, and made the agriculture develop from the low level to the high, from the agricultural mutual aid group, the primary agricultural production co-op to the high agricultural production co-op. In 1955, the government speeded up the agricultural cooperative and set off the upsurge of the agricultural cooperative in the nation. The socialist transformation of the handicraft that the country had had also had the basic policy. But the country had adopted the purchasing policy in the socialist transformation of the capitalist industry and commerce. At the beginning the country had adopted the primary national capitalism to place orders with enterprises for processing materials or supplying manufactured goods, to state monopoly for purchase and marketing, to sell on commission or be commissioned to sell and so on. From 1954 the country had developed the principle national capitalism—the joint state-private ownership step by step. By the end of 1956, China had basically finished the socialist transformation of agriculture, handicraft and he capitalist industry and commerce. In this way China had basically realized the change from the private ownership of the means of production to the socialist state-ownership of the means of production, which symbolized that the socialist system had basically been set up in China.

But at the end of the socialist transformation, the requirement for the transformation of the agriculture, handicraft and the individual commerce was impatient and rough, and the choice and management of some industrialists and businessmen were not proper and all these left over some problems.

The birth of the first socialist constitution: With the development of the eco-

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nomic construction, the build-up of the democratic politics was in fast action. In autumn of 1954, the First National People's Congress was held in Beijing. At the meeting "The Constitution of the People's Republic of China" was made. The constitution stipulated the character of the nation and the essential political system and also the rights and tasks of the citizens. The constitution embodied the people's democratic principles and the socialist principles and represented the will of the broad people. It is the first socialist constitution of New China. It is the summary of the experiences of the victory of the Chinese people's revolution. It is the guarantee for the socialist construction.



社会主义制度的建立
Foundation of the Socialist System

过渡时期总路线和第一个五年计划的制定:国民经济恢复以后,为把我国建设成为一个社会主义工业化国家,1953 年,中国共产党提出了过渡时期总路线和总任务。总路线规定,要在一个相当长的时期内,逐步实现国家的社会主义工业化,并逐步实现国家对农业、手工业和资本主义工商业的社会主义改造。根据过渡时期总路线的要求,中央人民政府制定了建设社会主义的第一个五年计划。其基本任务是:集中主要力量优先发展重工业,建立国家工业化的初步基础;有步骤地对农业、手工业和资本主义工商业进行社会主义改造。国家对农业的社会主义改造,开始时采取积极发展稳步前进的方针,实行自愿互利的原则,通过典型示范逐步推进。从农业互助组、初级农业生产合作社到高级农业生产合作社,由低级向高级发展。1955 年,政府加快了农业合作化的步伐,全国掀起农业合作化高潮。国家对手工业的改造,大致也采取同样的步骤。国家对资本主义工商业的社会主义改造,采取赎买政策。开始时实行加工订货、统购包销、经销代销等初级国家资本主义形式;1954 年起逐步发展企业公私合营的高级国家资本主义形式。在农业合作化高潮影响下,资本主义工商业掀起全行业公私合营的高潮。到 1956 年底,我国基本完成了对农业、手工业和资本主义工商业的社会主义改造。这样,国家基本上实现了生产资料私有制变为社会主义公有制。这标志着社会主义制度在我国基本上建立起来了。

但是,在社会主义改造的后期,对农业、手工业和个体商业的改造要求过急,工

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作过粗;对一部分工商业者的使用和处理不够适当,以致遗留了一些问题。

中国第一部社会主义宪法的诞生:随着经济建设的发展,我国的民主政治建设也加紧进行。1954 年秋,第一届全国人民代表大会在北京隆重举行。这次大会制定了《中华人民共和国宪法》。宪法规定了国家的性质和根本政治制度,还规定了公民的权利和义务。它体现了人民民主原则和社会主义原则,代表了广大人民的意志。这部宪法是新中国第一部社会主义类型的宪法,是中国人民革命胜利的经验总结,是建设社会主义的保证。



社会主义建设在探索中曲折发展

The Winding Development of the Socialist Construction in Study

After the socialist transformation had basically finished, the socialist system had been decided in our country. But we had not realized that our country was still at the first stage of socialism and we did not have experiences in the way of constructing socialism. Then the Chinese Communist Party started its hard exploration.

The Twelfth National Conference of the Soviet Communist Party held in 1956 criticized the serious mistakes of Stalin and his personal worship. The imperialists set off the world wave against the Communist and the socialism by taking the chance, which brought about certain confusion of the thinking among the masses and great difficulty for the world Communist movement.

The Chinese Communist Party did not agree with the leaders of the Soviet Communist Party on the complete denial of Stalin. And it did away with the blind faith on Stalin and the Soviet experiences, paid more attention to the summary of experiences of our own at home and explored the socialist road which was fit for the facts in China. And therefore the Soviet adopted the policy against China and the relationship between China and Soviet broke.

The Chinese Communist Party was short of experiences in the exploration the road to construct socialism and was in a hurry to hope for success, adding up the

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later development of the "left" mistakes, the socialist construction met with difficulties but it still moved forward in the winding.

The decision of the socialist construction policy: In 1956, Mao Tsedong made the famous report "About the Ten Relationships" on the supreme state conference. In autumn of 1956, the Eighth National Conference of the Chinese Communist Party was held in Beijing. The conference analyzed correctly the inside situations and the changes of the major contradictions, pointing out when the socialist system had already been founded, the major contradictions at home were the contradiction between the requirement of the people to construct an advanced industrial one and the reality of the developing agricultural country and the contradiction between the need of the people for the fast development of the economy and culture and the situation that the present economy and culture could not meet the need of the people. The principal task of the Party and the whole nation at present was to concentrate the strength on changing the country from a poor agricultural country into an advanced industrial country as soon as possible. The conference produced the general task of the country was to unite all the powers that could unite at home and abroad and to struggle for the construction of a great socialist country. In economic construction, the Eighth National Conference was persistent in the economic construction that was against the conservative ideas and the premature ideas as well, that was to progress stably in comprehensive balance.

The road of the Eighth National Conference of the Chinese Communist Party was correct. Many of the policies and programmes produced at the conference were creative and it was a successful exploration in the road of the socialist construction in our country.

The Rectification Campaign and the magnification of the struggle against the "Right": After the completement of the socialist transformation, the contradictions between ourselves and the enemy had been basically solved. But the contradictions among the people themselves had pushed themselves forward in every aspect. In spring 1957, Mao Tsedong issued a speech "About the Correct Handling of the Contradictions Among the People", in which he put forward a scientific inference how to distinguish and handle the two kinds of contradictions with different natures and took it as the subject of the political life of the nation to handle correctly the contradictions among people. He also pointed out the correct way to handle the contradictions among the people was the formula "unity-criticism-unity", uniting all the powers that could be united to construct socialism.

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In the process of the Rectification Campaign, a handful of the capitalist Rightists seized the opportunity to launch the attack wantonly on the Chinese Communist Party and the new socialist system. To counter the situation at that time, in order to distinguish the major matters of principle and persist in the road of socialism, a struggle against the Right with mass participation was launched and it was necessary at that moment. However, the class struggle situation at that time was seriously overestimated and a large number of contradictions among the people were handled as the contradictions between us and the enemy, and therefore the struggle against the Right was magnified. The influences of the magnification of the struggle against the Right were: first, it led to magnification of the classical struggle in politics step by step and this is the resource for the Party to make mistakes constantly in the classical struggle later. Second, the persons who were wrongly branded as the Rightists had been wronged and constrained for a long time and could not play their proper roles in the socialist construction.

The Great Leap Forward and the Movement of the People's Commune: After the First Five-year Plan was surpassed, in order to start the full socialist constructions and build China into a modern socialist country, the Eighth National Conference of the Chinese Communist Party in 1958 produced the General Line "Go all out, aim high and gain greater, faster, better and more economical results in building socialism". The General Line expressed that the broad people desired urgently to change the backwardness of the economy and cultures in China. But it ignored the objective system in the economic development.

After the General Line was put forward, Mao Tsedong and the other leaders pursued unilaterally the high speed of the socialist construction. At the same time, the Party launched rashly the Great Leap Forward and the Movement of the People's Commune in the countryside in 1958. "The Great Leap Forward" had led to the serious dislocation of the national economy. The People's Commune had infringed greatly the interests of the peasants and affected their incentive in the socialist construction.

The General Line, the Great Leap Forward and the People's Commune were the exploration of the Party in the road of the socialist construction. They reflected the dedires of the people to construct socialism at speed. But in the process of the exploration, the Party had magnified the subjective initiative due to the shortage of the information about the national conditions and was in a hurry to hope for success. In the end it brought about serious difficulties for the socialist construction.

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The Struggle "Against Right Deviation" and Three Years' Economic Difficulties: In order to summarize the experiences since the "Great Leap Forward" and the People's Commune and put the "Left" mistakes discovered right further, in summer of 1959, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party had a meeting in Lushan. Mao Tsedong thought the general situation was that the achievement was great, but a lot of problems still existed and the future was bright. At the following Eighth Plenary Session of the Eight Central Conference which was held in Lushan, the Party started to criticize Peng Dehuai and the others and thought they had made the mistakes of the line of the Right Opportunism. The Party members who stuck to the practical and realistic style of work were criticized wrongly.

The struggle "Against Right Deviation" led to very serious results. It made the democratic life in the Party suffer a lot. It broke off the process to correct the "Left" mistakes and made the mistakes last longer, which had brought more harm on the economic construction. At that time, the natural disasters were serious and the Soviet Government tore up perfidiously the agreements of the economic technology cooperation between the two countries. All of these had brought about the economic difficulties from 1959 to 1961.

The seven-thousand-person conference and the achievements in the ten years' construction: Confronted with the serious difficulties, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party began to correct the "Left" mistakes in the rural work since 1960 and carried out the policy on the national economy "to adjust, solidify, strengthen, and improve". In early 1962, the Chinese Communist Party held the enlarged Central Working Conference with seven thousand persons. The conference summarized tentatively the experiences and lessons in the "Great Leap Forward" and Mao Tsedong and the other leaders of the Central Committee had the self-criticism. Most of the persons who were wrongly criticized in the struggle "Against Right Deviation" were rehabilitated before and after the conference. The measures of the Party encouraged the whole Party and the whole nation. Since 1962, the economy restored and developed gradually. When it came to 1964, the task to adjust the national economy had basically finished and it began to enter into a new developing period.

While China was exploring the socialist construction, though it suffered great setbacks, the Chinese people in general, under the leadership of the Chinese Communist Party, had withstood the great pressure of the international power which was against China, overcome the difficulties and made tremendous achievements

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sticking to self-reliance and hard struggle.



社会主义建设在探索中曲折发展

The Winding Development of the Socialist Construction in Study

社会主义改造基本完成之后，我国确立了社会主义制度。但中国共产党尚未认识到我国仍处在社会主义初级阶段，对如何建设社会主义还没经验。在这种情况下，中国共产党开始了艰苦的探索。

1956 年举行的苏共二十次代表大会，批判了斯大林的严重错误及对他的个人崇拜。帝国主义乘机掀起世界性的反共反社会主义的浪潮，在人民群众中造成了不同程度的思想混乱，给国际共产主义运动带来巨大困难。

中国共产党不同意苏共领导人全盘否定斯大林，但是也由此破除了对斯大林和苏联经验的迷信，更加注意总结本国建设的经验，探索适合中国实际的建设社会主义的道路。由此，苏共推行反华政策，中苏关系破裂。

中国共产党在探索建设社会主义道路上由于缺乏经验，又急于求成，加之后来“左”倾错误的发展，社会主义建设遇到了困难，但仍在曲折中前进。

经济建设方针的确定：1956 年，毛泽东在最高国务会议上作了著名的《论十大关系》的报告。1956 年秋，中国共产党第八次全国代表大会在北京召开。大会正确地分析了国内形势和主要矛盾的变化，指出在社会主义制度已经建立的情况下，国内的主要矛盾是人民对于建立先进的工业国的要求，同落后的农业国的现实之间的矛盾，是人民对于经济文化迅速发展的需要，同当前经济文化不能满足人民需要的状况之间的矛盾。党和全国人民当前的主要任务，就是集中力量把我国尽快地从落后的农业国变为先进的工业国。大会提出了团结国内外一切可以团结的力量，为建设一个伟大的社会主义中国而奋斗的总任务。在经济建设上，八大坚持既反保守又反冒进，即在综合平衡中稳步前进的经济建设方针。

八大的路线是正确的，提出的许多方针和设想富有创造性，是对我国自己的建设社会主义道路一次成功的探索。

整风运动和反右派斗争扩大化：社会主义改造完成以后，国内的敌我矛盾已经基本解决，人民内部矛盾突出地反映在各个方面。1957 年春，毛泽东发表了《关于

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正确处理人民内部矛盾的问题》的讲话，提出了必须区分和处理社会主义两类不同性质矛盾的科学论断，把正确处理人民内部矛盾作为国家政治生活的主题。他还提出正确处理人民内部矛盾的方法即“团结——批评——团结”的公式，团结一切可以团结的力量建设社会主义。

在整风过程中，有极少数资产阶级右派分子乘机向共产党和新生的社会主义制度放肆进攻。针对当时的情况，为了分清大是大非、坚持社会主义道路，一场群众性的反击右派的斗争发动起来，这在当时是必要的。然而，由于对当时的阶级斗争形势估计得过于严重，把大批人民内部的矛盾当作敌我矛盾处理，反右派斗争严重得扩大化了。其影响：一是逐步导致了政治上阶级斗争扩大化，这成为党后来在阶级斗争问题上连续犯错误的根源，二是被错划为“右派”的人，长期受委屈和压抑，不能在社会主义建设中发挥应有的作用。

大跃进和人民公社化运动：第一个五年计划超额完成后，为全面开展社会主义建设，尽快把我国建设成为一个现代化社会主义国家，1958 年中共八大二次会议提出“鼓足干劲，力争上游，多快好省地建设社会主义的总路线”。总路线反映了广大人民迫切要求改变我国经济文化落后的愿望，但是忽视了客观的经济发展规律。

总路线提出以后，毛泽东和党的一些领导人片面追求社会主义建设的高速度；同时，主观地认为合作化的规模越大、公有化程度越高，就越能促进生产的发展。因此，1958 年党又轻率地发动了“大跃进”和农村人民公社化运动。“大跃进”造成国民经济严重失调，人民公社化严重损害了农民的利益，影响他们建设社会主义的积极性。

总路线、“大跃进”和人民公社化运动是党对建设社会主义道路的探索，反映了人民要求迅速建设社会主义的愿望。在探索中，由于党对国情认识不足，夸大了主观能动性，急于求成，给社会主义建设带来严重困难。

“反右倾”斗争和三年经济困难：为总结“大跃进”、人民公社化以来的经验，进一步纠正已经发觉的“左”倾错误，1959 年夏中共中央在庐山召开会议。毛泽东认为，总的形势是成绩很大，问题不少，前途光明。在接着召开的八届八中全会上，展开了对彭德怀等人的批判，认定他们犯了右倾机会主义路线的错误。大会以后，在全国开展“反右倾”斗争，许多坚持实事求是作风的党员受到错误的批判。

“反右倾”斗争导致了严重后果，使党内的民主生活遭到严重损害，中断了纠正“左”倾错误的进程，使错误持续的时间更长，给经济建设造成更大的危害。那时候，自然灾害严重，前苏联政府又背信弃义地撕毁两国经济技术合作协议。这一切造成自 1959 年至 1961 年的国民经济严重困难。

七千人大会和十年建设成就：面对严重困难，从 1960 年开始，党中央开始纠正农村工作中的“左”倾错误，对国民经济实行”调整、巩固、充实、提高“的方针。1962 年初，中国共产党召开有七千人参加的扩大的中央工作会议，初步总结了“大

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跃进”中的经验教训，毛泽东等中央领导人带头作自我批评。会议前后为“反右倾”运动中被错误批判的大多数人平反。党中央的这些措施，鼓舞了全党全国人民，从1962年起，经济逐渐恢复和发展，到1964年国民经济调整任务基本完成，开始进入一个新的发展时期。

我国在探索建设社会主义的道路上，虽然遭到严重挫折，但从总体上看，中国人民在中国共产党的领导下，顶住了国际上反华势力的巨大压力，坚持自力更生，艰苦奋斗，终于战胜困难，取得了巨大的成就。



“文化大革命”的十年

Ten Years' "Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" (or the Great Cultural Revolution)

Background and start of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution": On the road of exploring the socialist construction, the "Left" mistakes of the guiding thinking inside the Party developed more and more seriously. By the middle of 1960s, Mao Tsedong thought Revisionism appeared in the Central Committee, and the Party and the nation were faced with the danger of the capitalist restoration. So he wanted to launch "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" to protect the capitalist restoration. Then the group of the careerists, Lin Biao, Jiang Qing and Kang Sheng made use of and encouraged Mao Tsedong's mistake with ulterior motives, which led to the start of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution."

In winter of 1965, Shanghai "Wenhui Newspaper" published "Comment on the Newly Adapted Historical Play 'Hairui Dismissed From Office'" by Yao Wenyuan, criticizing "Hairui Dismissed From Office" written by the vice mayor of Beijing Wu Han by his name. The criticism gained the support from MaoTsedong and it was the accident that touched "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution".

In summer 1966, under the leadership of Mao Tsedong, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party held the enlarged conference of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee and the Eleventh Plenary Session of the Eighth Central Committee and declared the "May 16th Announcement" to start "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" and "the Decision about the Great Proletarian Cultural

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Revolution of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party", which the so-called "Sixteen Articles". The two documents thought that there were a group of capitalist representatives who wormed their way into the cultural field and various departments of the Party, government, and army and put forward that "the focus of the movement is to consolidate the people in authority in the Party who take the capitalist road." The Plenary Session criticized wrongly the so-called "Liu Shaoqi Headquarters and the Deng Xiaoping Headquarters." The opening of the two meetings symbolized the full start of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution." The Group of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of the Central Committee consisting of Chen Boda, Kang Sheng, Jiang Qing and Zhang Chunqiao was the actual headquarters of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution." They took the opportunity to incite "down with everything and all-round civil war."

"Seize right extensively" and the February Fight: In January 1967, the organization of the rebels in Shanghai with head of Wang Hongwen, and planned by Zhang Chunqiao and Yao Wenyuan, had taken over the various offices of the Party and government in Shanghai and this was the so-called "January Revolution". Mao Tsedong and the Group of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of the Central Committee supported the seizing right in Shanghai. It was followed the extensively seizing right from various departments under the Central Committee and the State Council to the levels of the various local departments of the Party and government, even to the army and all walks of life. There were serious fights among the rebellist groups and even the armed fights took place in many places. The leading bodies of the Party and the government were at the standstill and the production was destroyed to a large scale. The whole country fell into the unparalleled turbulence.

Faced up with this kind of situation, in February of the same year, the vice Premiers of the State Council Tan Zhenglin and Chen Yi and the vice Chairman of the Central Military Commission Ye Jianying and a group of the other old revolutionaries stood up to resist and criticized strongly the different absurd actions of the Group of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of the Central Committee. After the February resistance was controlled, more large-scale wave to pick and criticize, retaliate and persecute the leaders of different levels of the Party and the government happened. The gang of Lin Biao and Jiang Qing ruled Liu Shaoqi "a traitor, a hidden traitor, and a scab" and Liu was kicked out of the Party forever at the Twelfth Plenary Session of the Eighth Central Committee, which was the greatest

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unjust case in the history of the Party.

Working in the countryside and mountain areas of the urban school-leavers and cardres transferred to do manual labor in the countryside and the factories: After the start of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution", the graduates of the middle school and high school in the cities could not enter a higher school or be assigned to work because the colleges did not admit students, the factories did not want labors, and the commerce and the service did not develop. In 1968, Mao Tsedong raised a call that "the educated school-leavers should go to the countryside to receive the re-education of the poor and lower-middle peasants, which is quite necessary." Then the whole country set off the upsurge immediately that the school graduates went to the countryside and the mountain areas. In a few years, the school graduates went to the countryside and mountain areas had reached to sixteen million. The broad school graduates went to the countryside and Xinjiang to take part in work in the agricultural production. They were practiced to certain degree. But a large group of the school graduates lost their education opportunity in colleges when they were young, which brought about the gap between the levels of the talents and had brought about great difficulties for the construction of the modernization of China from a long-term point of view.

Collapse of Lin Biao Reactionary Clique: Since "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" the position of Lin Biao rose up on and he was decided the successor of Mao Tsedong at the Ninth Central Conference of the Party. The clique taking Lin Biao as the head had developed very quickly. After the Ninth Central Conference of the Party Lin Biao Clique quickened their step for rights and this was discovered by Mao Tsedong.

Lin Biao reactionary found the situation was not helpful and planned to launch the coup d'état on September 13, 1971. Mao Tsedong and Zhou Enlai adopted measures at once and crushed the coup d'état. The plot of Lin Biao was exposed and escaped in a hurry together with his wife Ye Qun and his son Lin Liguo. They were dead because of the plane crash in Ondorhaan Mongolia Democratic Peoples' Republic.

National economy in turbulence: When it came to 1967 and 1968, the upheaval of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" extended to the economic field. The national economy was affected seriously, which embodied in the following aspects: the economic working organization was at a standstill and the economy in the non-planned state; many of the effective measures, rules and regulations were

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abolished; a large group of workers and cardres left the positions and took part in the "Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution"; the communication was blocked. The total output value lost in the two years amounted to more than ten billion RMB in industry and agriculture.

After "September 13th Incident", Zhou Enlai took charge of the routine work of the Central Committee. In the year of 1973, the national economy appeared the situation of resurgence. Just at the moment that the national economy had taken the clear favorable turn, Jiang Qing, Wang Hongwen, Zhang Chunqiao and Yao Wenyuan put forward to start the movement to "criticize Lin Biao and Confucius" and pointed the spear directly to Zhou Enlai. Mao Tsedong had criticized them for many times and pointed out they were "the Gang of Four".

In 1975, Zhou Enlai was seriously ill. Mao Tsedong asked Deng Xiaoping returned to take charge of the routine work of the Central Committee. Deng Xiaoping put forward obviously to rectify the thinking in all aspects and also adopt effective measures to pay attention to the construction of the economy and corrected the mistakes of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution". Then the social order became stable step by step. The communication block was got rid of and the national economy increased at speed.

In the ten years of "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution", the loss in the national economy amounted to fifty billion in total in accordance with the general calculation.

The destruction of Jiang Qing Reactionary Clique: The straightening out in every field by Deng Xiaoping was, in fact, to rectify systemically the mistakes in "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution". From the very beginning, the "Gang of Four" was against the rectification frizeniedly. Mao Tsedong could not bear the action of Deng Xiaoping to correct the mistakes in "the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution", either, and launched the movement "to criticize Deng and fight against the tendency of the Right Deviation to reverse the verdict". Then the situation that had just calmed down fell into turbulence again.

In January 1976, the people's beloved Premier Zhou Enlai died. All the people of different nationalities in the country were tremendously sorrowful. People in Beijing and everywhere in the country launched the powerful movement to mourn Zhou Enlai with deep grief in the whole country by making use of Pure Brightness and bitterly attacked the "Gang of Four". The "Four-Five Movement" laid mass foundation for the downfall of the "Gang of Four" later.

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It was followed that Zhu De and Mao Tsedong died in succession. Hundreds of millions of people were in great sorrow. Jiang Qing Reactionary Clique seized the opportunity to speed up the plot operations to usurp the leadership of the Party and take over the rights. In October of the same year, Hua Guofeng and Ye Jianying, who took charge of the work of the Central Committee, adopted the absolute measures to examine the "Gang of Four" in isolation and crushed Jiang Qing Reactionary Clique at one blow.



"文化大革命"的十年
Ten Years' "Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution" (or the Great Cultural Revolution)

"文化大革命"的背景和开始:在探索中国建设社会主义的道路上,党内指导思想上的"左"倾错误发展越来越严重,到60年代中期,毛泽东认为中央出了修正主义,党和国家已经面临资产阶级复辟的危险。为此,他想通过发动"文化大革命"来防止资本主义复辟。那时候,林彪、江青、康生一伙野心家别有用心的利用和助长了毛泽东的错误,导致了"文化大革命"的发动。

1965年冬,上海《文汇报》发表姚文元的《评新编历史剧〈海瑞罢官〉》的文章,点名批判北京市副市长吴晗写的《海瑞罢官》。这一批判得到毛泽东的支持,成为"文化大革命"的导火线。

1966年夏,在毛泽东的领导下,中共中央先后召开中央政治局扩大会议和八届十一中全会,发出开展"文化大革命"的"五一六通知"和《中共中央关于无产阶级文化大革命的决定》,即"十六条"。这两个文件认为,在文化领域和党、政、军各个部门都混进一批资产阶级代表人物,提出"这次运动的重点,是整党内那些走资本主义道路的当权派。"全会对所谓"刘少奇、邓小平司令部"进行了错误的斗争。这两次会议的召开,标志着"文化大革命"的全面发动。陈伯达、康生、江青、张春桥等组成的中央文革小组,成为"文革"的实际指挥部,他们乘机煽动"打倒一切,全面内战。"

"全面夺权"和二月抗争:1967年1月,由张春桥、姚文元等策划,以王洪文等为首的上海一批造反派组织,夺取了上海市党、政各级领导,即所谓"一月革命"。毛泽东和中央文革小组支持上海夺权。接着,在很短的时间里,掀起从中央各部门

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到地方各级党政部门,以至军队和各行各业的全面夺权风暴。各造反派之间为夺权展开激烈斗争,许多地方发生武斗,党政领导机关陷于瘫痪,生产遭到严重破坏。全国陷入空前的混乱之中。

面对这种形势,同年2月,国务院副总理谭震林、陈毅,中央军政副主席叶剑英等老一辈革命家挺身抗争,强烈批评中央文革小组的种种荒谬做法。老一辈革命家的二月抗争被压下去之后,社会上出现更大规模的揪斗、打击、迫害党和国家各级领导干部的浪潮。林彪、江青一伙把刘少奇定为所谓的"叛徒、内奸、工贼",并在党的八届十二中全会上将他永远开除出党,造成党的历史上最大的冤案。

知识青年上山下乡和干部下放:"文化大革命"开始以后,由于大学不招生,工厂不招工,商业和服务行业也不发展,城市初中、高中毕业生即不能升学,也无法分配工作。1968年,毛泽东发出"知识青年到农村去,接受贫下中农的再教育,很有必要"的号召,全国立即掀起知识青年上山下乡的高潮。几年之内,上山下乡的知识青年达到1 600多万人。广大知识青年到农村和新疆去,参加农业生产劳动,接受了一定的锻炼;但是,大批知识青年失去了在青春年华接受学校正规教育的机会,造成人才的断层,从长远来说,给国家的现代化建设带来了相当的困难。

林彪反革命集团的覆灭:"文革"以来,林彪的地位上升,党的九大确定他为毛泽东的接班人,以他为首的集团势力发展很快。九大以后,林彪集团加紧争夺权力,这种现象为毛泽东察觉。

林彪集团见势不妙,就策划武装政变。毛泽东、周恩来立即采取措施,粉碎了这场政变。林彪的阴谋败露,1971年9月13日同妻儿叶群、林立果慌忙外逃,在蒙古人民共和国温都尔汗机毁人亡。

混乱中的国民经济:到1967、1968年,"文革"动乱扩展到经济领域,国民经济受到严重影响,具体表现在:经济工作机构瘫痪,处于无计划状态;许多行之有效的政策、规章制度被废除;大批工人、干部离开岗位闹"文革",交通运输堵塞。两年里损失的工农业总产值超过1 000亿元。

九一三事件以后,周恩来主持中央日常工作。到1973年,国民经济形势出现了复苏的局面。正当国民经济明显好转的时候,江青、王洪文、张春桥、姚文远等提出开展所谓"批林批孔"运动,把矛头指向周恩来。毛泽东多次批评他们,并说他们是"四人帮"。

1975年,由于周恩来病重,毛泽东让邓小平出来主持中央日常工作。邓小平明确提出全面整顿思想,并采取有效措施抓经济建设,纠正"文化大革命"的错误。社会秩序逐步趋于稳定,交通堵塞现象排除,国民经济迅速上升。

"文革"十年里,按正常发展计算,国民经济损失总计约有5 000亿元。

江青反革命集团的覆灭:邓小平的全面整顿,实际上是系统地纠正"文革"的错误。从一开始,"四人帮"就猖狂反对这种整顿。毛泽东也不能容忍邓小平纠正

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"文化大革命"错误的做法，又发动了"批邓、反击右倾翻案风"运动，刚刚稳定的局势又陷入混乱。

1976年1月，人民的好总理周恩来逝世，全国各族人民无限悲痛。北京和各地群众利用清明节掀起全国范围的悼念周恩来、痛斥"四人帮"的强大运动。"四五"运动为后来粉碎"四人帮"奠定了群众基础。

接着，朱德、毛泽东相继逝世，亿万人民沉浸在巨大的悲痛之中。江青反革命集团趁机加紧篡党夺权的阴谋活动。同年10月，主持中央工作的华国锋和叶剑英等，代表党中央采取断然措施，将"四人帮"隔离审查，一举粉碎了江青反革命集团。



社会主义现代化建设新局面

The Formation of the New Situation of the Socialist Modernization Construction

Progress in hesitation: Quite a lot of serious political and social probles had been accumulated after ten years' turmoil in the "Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution". The normal life of order of the country was in urgency to be reconstructed and the terribly damaged economy, cultural and the education needed restoring in urgency. All the neglected tasks were to be undertaken and all the business was to be carried out. The tasks that the Party and the country were facing then were very hard. But the main leader of the Party continued to make the mistakes of "Left". The guiding thinking of the Party had not changed at all. In the economic construction the Party was in a hurry to hope for success. So the situation of progress in hesitation appeared.

In 1977, Deng Xiaoping resumed his work. Because of his powerful rectification, scientific, cultural and educational undertakings appeared a completely new situation. Deng Xiaoping called on to respect knowledge and the talents. On the national scientific meeting held in 1978 he stressed the Marxist view of point that "science and technology are productive forces." Meanwhile he pointed out that the intellectuals who served for the society were a part of the working class.

The Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee: At the end of

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1978, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party held the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee in Beijing. The meeting decided the guiding policies to emancipate the mind, use one's mind, seek truth from facts and be united as one to progress. It praised highly the discussion about the criterion of the truth and stopped the usage of the slogan absolutely "to consider the classical struggle as the principle". Furthermore it had made the great and important decision to transform the working heart of the Party and the nation to the economic construction and carried the policy to reform and open up. The Third Plenary Session decided to set to right what had been thrown into disorder, examine and solve the problem what was right and what was wrong.

The Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee is a great turn which has profound meanings in the history of the Party since the foundation of New China. It had completed the restoration of the thinking and political lines into order and it is the beginning of Reform and Opening up. From then on the Chinese history has entered into a new stage of the construction of the socialist modernization. The essential line of the Party in the new period began to form on the meeting. The meeting also organized the second generation leading group which took Deng Xiaoping as the core of the Party.



社会主义现代化建设新局面

The Formation of the New Situation of the Socialist Modernization Construction

在徘徊中前进:经过十年"文化大革命"的动乱,社会积累下许多严重的政治问题和社会问题。国家生活的正常秩序亟待重建,遭到严重破坏的经济和文化教育工作亟待恢复。百废待举,百业待兴,党和政府面临的任务十分艰巨。但是,党中央的主要领导人仍然继续犯"左"的错误,党的指导思想也仍然没有改变,在经济建设上又急于求成,出现了在徘徊中前进的局面。

1977 年,邓小平重新恢复工作。由于他的大力整顿,科学教育文化事业出现了全新的面貌。邓小平号召尊重知识,尊重人才。在 1978 年初召开的全国科学大

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会上，他强调“科学技术是生产力”这一马克思主义观点，并指出，为社会主义服务的知识分子是工人阶级的一部分。

十一届三中全会：1978 年底，中共中央在北京召开十一届三中全会。全会确定了解放思想、开动脑筋、实事求是、团结一致向前看的指导方针，高度评价了真理标准问题的讨论；果断地停止使用“以阶级斗争为纲”的错误口号；作出把党和国家的工作重心转移到经济建设上来，实行改革开放的伟大决策。全会还决定拨乱反正，并审查和解决是非问题。

十一届三中全会是建国以来党的历史上具有深远意义的伟大转折。完成了党的思想路线、政治路线的拨乱反正，是改革开放的开端。从此，中国历史进入了社会主义现代化建设新时期。新时期党的基本路线的思想在这次会上开始形成。这次会议还形成了以邓小平为核心的党的第二代领导集体。

经济体制改革
Reform of the Economic Structures

The new structure of the Opening Up: After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee, the reform of the economic structures was undertaken step by step. The reform of the economic structures was to reform a series of links which were not fit for the development of the productive forces on the prerequisite of sticking to the socialist system, emancipating and expanding the social productive forces.

The reform of economic structures had made its first breaking-through progress in the countryside. The operation and management were excessively centralized in the past system of the People's Commune in the countryside. The egalitarianism in the distribution system was serious, which was not helpful to arouse the enthusiasm of the peasants and brought about the slow development of agricultural production. When it came to the year of 1978, there were more than one hundred million peasants had not had enough food and clothing in the whole country. In order to overcome the difficulties in the production of the peasants and the difficulties in life, the policy to “soften the policies” and “recuperate and multiply” was first carried out in Anhui and Sichuan provinces. The system of job responsibility in the ag-

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ricultural production that the production was contracted in the group and even the households was tried out and it had had good effects. It was before long the system of job responsibility, contract of the cooperating production among the households was carried mainly in the countryside in the whole country. The village and town enterprises and the non-agricultural production were started and the old system of the People's Commune, which was the "large-scale production and the further socialist state-ownership of the properties", were abolished. This mobilized the productive enthusiasm of the peasants, liberated the productive forces in the countryside and pushed the development of agriculture. Reform in the countryside developed towards the specialization, commercialization and socialization.

The reform in the countryside pushed the reform of the economic reform in the cities. After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee the cities began to explore the reform of the economic system and to enlarge the decision-making power of the local enterprises. When it came to the year of 1985, the reform of the economic system in the cities were started full-sidedly. The contents of the reform were mainly to develop the sole state-ownership economy into the multi-ownership system taking the state-ownership economy as the main body and to change the highly centralized management system into the one which was to focus on the indirect management and the macro regulation.

The new pattern of the opening up: After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee, China started the first step to open to the foreign countries. In 1979, according to the superious conditions that both the two provinces, Guangdong and Jujian were near to Hongkong and Macou and there were more overseas there, the State Council of the Central Committee of the Party decided to carry out the the specially preferential policy for the foreign economic activities. The following year, Shenzhen, Zhuhai and Shantou in Guangdong and Xiamen in Fujian were officially decided as the special economic zones. Opening up has been one of the sectional national policies of China, which is playing an important role in developing the socialist economy.

Take our own road: After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee, the heart of the work of the Party and the country has transformed to the construction of the socialist modernizations. The principal task was to devote major efforts to developing the social productive forces, realize the socialist modernizations and improve people's life gradually. In September 1982, the Twelfth National Conference of the Chinese Communist Party was held in Beijing. Deng Xiaop-

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ing put forward with emphasis in his opening address that "the construction of the modernizations in China must start from the reality of China. Either the revolution or the construction must learn from the foreign experiences. But to copy the foreign experiences and the models will never make it possible for us to succeed. In this aspect we have a lot of lessons. The basic conclusion that we had made in summarizing the historical experiences for a long time is to combine the general truth of Marxism with the actual reality of China, take our own road and build socialism with Chinese characteristics. The basic theories that Deng Xiaoping summarized became the guiding thought of the Twelfth Nation Conference and they are the guiding thought to the Reform and Opening up in the new period and the construction of modernizations.

Fight for the construction of socialism with Chinese characteristics: On the basis of realization of the national situation and the summery of the experiences of the socialist construction, the Party explained clearly the theories in the primary stage of socialism, summed up and analyzed the essential line in the primary stage of socialism was "one center and two basic points", which was to take the economic construction as the heart, leading and uniting the whole nation, sticking to the four basic principles, sticking to reform and opening up, and fighting for the construction of a rich, powerful, democratic, civilized, modernized and socialist country through regeneration with our own efforts and hard undertakings.

The Fourteenth National Conference of the Party was held in 1992. The third generation leading group taking Jiang Zemin as the core of the Party pointed out the main task of the reform and opening up in 1990s, which was to stick to the basic route of the Party, to quicken up the reform and opening up and concentrate the efforts on pushing the economic construction forward. Jiang Zemin put forward the aim of the reform of the economic structures was to build up the fair economic structures of socialism, which was helpful in liberating and developing productive forces further.

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经济体制改革
Reform of the Economic Structures

对外开放的新格局：十一届三中全会以后，经济体制改革逐步展开。经济体制改革是在坚持社会主义制度的前提下，改革生产关系中不适应生产力发展的一系列环节，解放和发展社会生产力。

经济体制的改革，首先在农村取得突破性进展。过去农村人民公社的体制，经营管理过于集中，分配中平均主义严重，不利于调动农民的积极性，农业生产发展缓慢。到1978年，全国还有一亿多农民没有解决温饱问题。为了克服农民生产生活上的困难，安徽、四川省首先实行“放宽政策”“休养生息”的方针，试行包产到组、包产到户的农业生产责任制，取得良好的效果。不久，全国农村实行以家庭联产承包为主要形式的责任制，发展乡镇企业和非农产业，废除了“一大二公”的旧人民公社体制。这就调动了农民的生产积极性，解放了农村生产力，推动了农业的发展。农村改革向专业化、商品化、社会化发展。

农村改革推动了城市经济体制的改革。十一届三中全会以后，城市也开始探索经济体制改革，逐步扩大企业自主权。到1985年，城市的经济体制改革全面展开，主要是把单一的公有制经济发展为以公有制经济为主体的多种所有制经济；把高度集中的管理体制改变为以间接管理为主、宏观调控的管理体制。

对外开放新局面：十一届三中全会以后，我国迈出了对外开放的步伐。1979年，根据广东、福建两省靠近港澳、华侨众多的有利条件，党中央和国务院决定，对两省的对外经济活动实行特殊优惠政策。第二年，正式确定在广东的深圳、珠海、汕头和福建的厦门设置经济特区。对外开放成为我国的一项基本国策，对发展社会主义经济起着十分重要的作用。

走自己的道路：十一届三中全会以后，党和国家工作的重心，转移到社会主义现代化建设上来，根本任务就是要大力发展社会生产力，实现社会主义现代化，逐步改善人民生活。1982年9月，中国共产党第十二次全国代表大会在北京召开。邓小平在开幕词中强调提出：“我们的现代化建设，必须从中国的实际出发。无论是革命还是建设，都要注意学习和借鉴外国经验。但是，照抄照搬别国经验、别国模式，从来不能得到成功。这方面我们有过不少教训。把马克思主义的普遍真理同我国的具体实际结合起来，走自己的道路，建设有中国特色的社会主义，这就是

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我们长期总结历史经验得出的基本结论。”邓小平总结的这些基本理论，成为十二大的指导思想，也是整个新时期改革开放和现代化建设的指导思想。

为建设有中国特色的社会主义而奋斗：中国共产党在认识国情和总结社会主义建设经验的基础上，于1987年党的十三次全国代表大会上，阐明了社会主义初级阶段的理论，明确概括和阐发了党在社会主义初级阶段“一个中心，两个基本点”的基本路线，即领导和团结全国人民，以经济建设为中心，坚持四项基本原则，坚持改革开放，自力更生、艰苦创业、为把我国建设成为富强、民主、文明的社会主义现代化国家而奋斗。

1992年召开党的十四次全国代表大会，以江泽民为核心的党的第三代领导集体，提出了90年代改革和建设的主要任务，即坚持党的基本路线，加快改革开放，集中精力把经济建设搞上去。江泽民还提出了经济体制改革的目标是建立社会主义市场经济体制，有利于进一步解放和发展生产力。



“一国两制”
The Concept of “One Country, Two Systems”

The concept of “One country, two systems”: In order to settle the problem of Taiwan and realize the great cause of the unification of the motherland, the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress issued “A Letter for our Compatriots in Taiwan” on New Year's Day of 1979, declaring to adopt the policy to unify the country in peace and suggesting that the two sides of the straits realization of being open to navigation or air traffic, accessible by postal communication, having trade relations between them and visit the relatives and traveling.

In September 1981, the Secretary of the National People's Congress Ye Jianying made a speech “Policies About Return to the Motherland of Taiwan and the Realization of Unification in Peace”, which advocated that the Chinese Communist Party and the Kuomindang should have a peaceful talk and start the third cooperation of the two Parties. It explained in details about the attitude of the Chinese Communist Party toward the Kuomindang authority and the essential politics toward Taiwan after unification. The policies received warm welcome on both sides of the straits.

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In the early 1980s, Deng Xiaoping put forward the great concept "One Country, Two Systems". Later he had full explanation about the concept "One Country, Two Systems" in many talks. He pointed out, the so-called "One country, Two systems" was "that, concretely speeding, the one thousand million people on the mainland carry out the socialist system in the People' Republic of China and Hongkong and Taiwan carry out the capitalist system". The concept of "One country, two systems" was a bold, creative and important strategic decision. In 1984, "Report of the Work of the Government" of the Second Plenary Session of the Sixth National People's Congress explained the great concept and got its pass-through at the congress.

The return of Hongkong and Macou: The concept "One country, Two systems" was successfully applied to solve the problem of Hongkong first. After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee, China has adopted reform and opening up and the construction of the socialist modernizations has developed greatly, which created conditions for the return of Hongkong. But in order to take over the sovereignty of Hongkong, a plan which could be accepted by the three sides, China, Britain and Hongkong should be carried out. In 1982, the British Prime Minister Mrs. Thatcher visited China and Deng Xiaoping had a talk with her about the future of Hongkong. Deng Xiaoping pointed out that the two countries could use "One country, Two systems" plan to solve the problem about the return of Hongkong and disapproved of exchanging the sovereignty for management rights produced by Britain. In the end both sides agreed to solve the problem of Hongkong through diplomatic channels.

In December 1984, the governments of the People's Republic of China and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and the Northern Ireland signed a joint statement about the problem of Hongkong in Beijing. The joint statement declared: the Chinese Government would resume its exercising sovereignty of Hongkong on July 1, 1997. Then the British Government should return Hongkong back to China. The publication of the joint statement made the realization of the unification of the motherland have the big step.

The joint statement about the problem of Hongkong made an example for the settlement of the problem of Macou. The Chinese Government and the Portuguese Government had a talk about the problem of Macou. In April 1987, both sides signed the joint statement about the problem of Macou in Beijing. The joint statement declared that the Government of the People's Republic of China would resume

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its exercising sovereignty of Macou on December 20, 1999.

The joint statement about the problem of Hongkong between China and Britain and the joint statement about the problem of Macou between China and Portugal solved successfully the recovery problem of the sovereignty of Hongkong and Macou. This is the successful application of the strategic policy "One country, Two systems" of the Chinese Government in order to unify the motherland in peace. At the same time it set an example for the settlement of the left problems in the world and the world disputes in peace and the maintaining the world peace.

Various nationalities stepped into socialism: China has fifty-six nationalities and she is a united and multi-nationality country. In old China, because of the historical conditions, geographical situations and the policies to oppress and discriminate the ethnics, the economy in the ethnic areas was backward. After the foundation of New China, the Communist Party and the People's Government carried out the principles to realize the equality, unity and development in common of the nationalities and then the ethnics walked into a new historical era.

After the socialist reform and opening up, the Party and the Government started the democratic reform or land reform in the ethnic areas according to their own wills. After 1985, the ethnics entered the socialist society one after another.

The Party and the Government have the autonomy in the ethnic areas, which means to set up autonomous regions in the regions where minority nationalities live in compact communities. The affairs inside nationalities are managed by themselves. By the early of 1990s, five provincial grade autonomous regions and more than one hundred autonomous county (and qi) had been set up. This met the need of the minority nationalities desires to be their masters and realized the equality of the nationalities as well and ensured the unification of the motherland and the unity of the nationalities.

The shared prosperity of various nationalities: The People's Government has always been paying attention to the development of economy and cultures in the ethnic areas, supporting in finance, materials and power in order to realize the shared prosperity of the nationalities of the country. A large group of cardres and technicians who aid the ethnic areas have made their great contribution to the development of the local development and were welcomed warmly by the minority nationalities. The striking representative of them was the good cardre Kong Fansen, who supported Tibet.

After the Third Plenary Session of the Eleventh Central Committee, the country

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has implemented the policies of the minority nationalities further and carried reform and opening up in the ethnic areas. The villages in the ethnic areas also practiced the system of job responsibility in contract of the cooperating production and develop the village and town enterprises and the ethnic economy on the base of the actual situations of the nationalities themselves. The development of the industrial construction in the ethnic areas was fast, too. Most areas have set up the complete industrial system including steel, coal, electricity, machinery and textile industry and so on and the economy of the ethnic areas has become an important component of the national economy.



“一国两制”
The Concept of “One Country, Two Systems”

“一国两制”的构想：为早日解决台湾问题，实现祖国统一大业，1979 年元旦，全国人大常委会发表《告台湾同胞书》，宣布采用和平方式统一祖国的方针，建议海峡两岸首先实现通航、通邮、通商和探亲旅游。

1981 年 9 月，全国人大常委会委员长叶剑英，发表《关于台湾回归祖国，实现和平统一的方针政策》的谈话，主张举行中国共产党对和中国国民党对等谈判，实行第三次国共合作。谈话具体阐明了中国共产党对台湾国民党当局的态度，阐明了统一后对台湾的基本政策。这一方针政策，受到海峡两岸的热烈欢迎。

80 年代初，邓小平提出了“一国两制”的伟大构想。后来，他又在多次谈话中，对“一个国家，两种制度”的构想进行全面阐述。他指出，所谓“一国两制”，“具体说，就是在中华人民共和国内，大陆十亿人口实行社会主义制度，香港、台湾实行资本主义制度。”“一国两制”的构想是一项大胆的、创造性的重大战略决策。1984 年，六届人大二次会议的《政府工作报告》中阐述了这一伟大构想，获得大会通过。

香港、澳门回归：“一国两制”的构想，首先在解决香港问题上得到成功的运用。十一届三中全会以后，中国实行改革开放，社会主义现代化建设有了极大发展，为香港回归创造了有利条件。但是，要用和平方式收回香港主权，还必须实行中、英、港三方都能接受的方案。1982 年，英国首相撒切尔夫人访问中国，邓小平就香港前途问题与她进行了会谈。邓小平提出，关于收回香港主权问题，可以用“一个国家，两种制度”的方案解决，不同意用英方提出的用主权换治权。双方最后同意，通

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过外交途径商谈解决香港问题。

1984 年 12 月，中英两国政府在北京正式签署了关于香港问题的联合声明。声明宣布：中国政府决定于 1997 年 7 月 1 日对香港恢复行使主权，英国政府声明届时将香港交还中国。联合声明的发表表明祖国的统一大业迈进了一大步。

关于香港问题的联合声明，为解决澳门问题提供了范例。中国政府与葡萄牙政府就澳门问题进行谈判，1987 年 4 月，双方在北京签署了关于澳门问题联合声明。联合声明宣布，中华人民共和国政府将于 1999 年 12 月 20 日对澳门恢复行使主权。

中英关于香港问题的联合声明和中葡关于澳门问题的联合声明，圆满的解决了中国对香港、澳门恢复行使主权的问题。这是中国政府“一国两制”，和平统一祖国战略方针的成功运用。同时，也为和平解决国际历史遗留问题和国际争端，维护世界和平提供了一种范例。

各族人民跨入社会主义：我国有 56 个民族，是个统一的多民族国家。在旧中国，由于历史条件、地理环境的原因和旧中国实行民族压迫、民族歧视的政策，少数民族的社会经济发展一般比较落后。新中国成立以后，共产党和人民政府实行民族平等、民族团结和共同发展繁荣的原则。少数民族进入了一个新的历史时代。

社会主义改革开放以后，党和政府根据少数民族的意愿，在少数民族地区进行民主改革或土地改革。1985 年以后，少数民族先后进入了社会主义社会。

党和政府实行民族区域自治，即在少数民族聚居的地区设立自治区，由当地民族管理本民族的内部事物。到 90 年代初，全国已建立五个省级自治区，一百多个自治县（旗）。这就满足了少数民族自己当家作主的愿望，实现了民族的平等，也保证了祖国的统一和民族的团结。

各民族共同繁荣：人民政府历来重视少数民族地区经济文化的发展。从财力、物力和人力上给予支持，以实现各民族的共同繁荣。支持民族地区的大批干部、技术人员，对当地的发展作出了重要贡献，受到少数民族的欢迎。他们之中杰出的代表人物就是支援西藏的好干部，孔繁森。

十一届三中全会以后，国家进一步落实民族政策，在民族地区实行改革开放。民族地区的农村也推广了联产承包责任制，并根据本民族地区的实际情况发展乡镇企业，发展民族经济。民族地区的工业建设也发展很快，大部分地区已经建立起包括钢铁、煤炭、电力、机械、纺织等比较完整的工业体系，少数民族地区的经济已成为国民经济的重要组成部分。

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社会主义时期的文化
Cultures in the Socialist Period

The remarkable achievements in science and technology: After the foundation of the People's Central Government, it paid much attention to the development of science and technology. First it set up the scientific research institution and organized the scientific research team. The Chinese Academy of Sciences was set up in 1949 and the scientific research system has been founded gradually including the different departments of the Central Committee, the universities and the localities. Second the plan for the development of science and technology was made to speed up the development of the scientific and technological course. In more than fifty years, the scientific and technological course has developed greatly and made great achievements in China. Many excellent scientists have emerged in large numbers, such as Qian Xuesen, Tu Shou'e, Deng Jiaxian and Yuan Longping and so on.

The Significant Achievements in Science and Technology since the foundation of New China

Time	The Significant Achievements	Function and Meanings
1961	The 12-thousand -ton hydraulic press was made successfully.	China is the fifth country in the world to make the giant forging machine.
1964	The first atomic bomb was exploded successfully.	China has become one of the nuclear countries.
1965	Total synthetic crystalline bovine insulin was made successfully.	The first in the world.
1966	The first missile was launched successfully.	China has the missile for the actual combat.
1967	The first hydrogen bomb was exploded successfully.	This is done in less than three years from the explosion of the first atomic bomb. But USA has spent seven years and the former Soviet four years.
1968	The Yangtze River Bridge was completed.	It is the longest highway and railway bridge designed and made ourselves.
1970	The first Chinese man-made earth satellite "Dongfanghong I" was launched successfully.	The weight of it surpasses that of the first artificial satellite of the former Soviet and that of USA.

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1974	Long-grained nonglutinous and hybrid rice was bred successfully	It is the first hybird rice in the world.
1983	The Milky Way I vast computer was made successfully.	It is the first computer which can calculate one hundred million times a second in China.
1984	The simultaneous test and communication satellitelt was launched successfully.	It is the first time for China to launch the fixed-position satellite to broadcast, communicate and send TV signals.
1985	The long-range rocket was successfully launched to the prefixed area in Pacific Ocean.	It symbolizesthe carrier rocket technology has reached a new level.
1988	The electron-positron collier in Beijing collided successfully for the first time.	It is the first high-energy accelerator in China.
1993	The No. I Unit of Dayawan Nuclear Power Station was started.	It is the most powerful nuclear power station in China.
1999	The first test space shuttle "Shenzhou" I returned safely.	It lays foundation for the carrying-man spaceship.

The progress of people's educational course: After the foundation of New China, the Government had completely reformed the old education in order to develop the people's educational course. The Chinese Communist Party had adopted the following main policies: 1) set up the people's educational system. The first national education meeting was held to decide the policies that education should served for the country and should open its gate to the workers and peasants. 2) Take over the educational rights of the schools that had been possessed by the imperialists. 3) Reform the school system. The new school system reformed the unreasonable age limits and system and adjusted the schools of different levels, which made the schools of various levels link together better. The textbooks for the primary and middle schools in the whole country were supplied by the country. when China entered into the period of full construction for the socialism, the test of education reform was done and two educational systems were carried out (The two educational systems mean the main full-time educational system in schools and the work-system progremme, which co-exists with the full-time educational system), which encouraged the work-study education and professional education to develop greatly. According to the statistics, there were twenty-four million pupils in the farming-study primary school, taking the percentage of 20 of the total in the country. There were fifty-three thousand work-study middle schools and three point and one million students which took a percentage of 25.

However during the period of the "Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution", the education was damaged incomparably serious. The educational course in the

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country was at the standstill. After the downfall of the "Gang of Four", the Party and the Government had the rectification in the education. In the year of 1983, Deng Xiaoping pointed out that "Education should face to the modernization, face to the world, and face to the future", which pointed out the direction for the educational reform. Meanwhile, the Government decided the educational policies in the new era and reformed the educational system completely, which made our education march into a period of flourishing development. The reform of the education shad the following aspects: 1) Carry out the educational reform and legislation and have made "The Education Law", "The Compulsory Education Law", and "Teachers' Law". 2) Strengthen the fundamental education. 3) Develop the college education. 4) Focus on the development of the ethnical education.

Achievements in historical science: The foundation of New China opened up a new route for the development of the Marxist historical science. The workers of the historical science started the research and discussion about many problems with the guidance of the Marxist materialism and had made great achievements in historical science. "*General History of China*" revised by Fan Wenlan, "*History of China edited*" by Guo Moruo, "*Outline of Chinese History*" edited by Jian Bozan, and "*General History of Chinese Thoughts*" edited by Hou Wailu and so on are historical works with highly academic level in China and they are the representatives of the Marxist historical works. Great achievements in historial science and research are: monographs about many important historical events, figures and great development in cultures and economy are published; The government organized scholars to proofread the famous historial books such as "24 *History*" and "*History as a Mirror*" and so on; Some history files and celerity autobiography are published, too.

Prosperity of literature and arts: After the foundation of New China, to eulogize the people's revolutionary struggles led by the Chinese Communist Party and praise the look of the socialist revolution and constructions had become the main school of literary composition in this period. A lot of novels were published in the later years of 1950s, which take an important position in the modern novels. The presentatives of them are "*Hongqi Pu*" by Liang Bin, "*Sunrise*" by Wu Qiang, "*The Song of the Youth*" by Yang Mo, "*San Jia Xiang*" by Ouyang Shan, "*Stories of Pioneering Work*" by Liu Qing and "*Hong Yan*" (or "*Red Rock*") by Luo Guangbin and Yang Yiyan and so on. The prose also plays its great function in praising the speeding development of the socialist construction. The excellent pros-

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ers are Yang Shuo, Liu Baiyu, and Qin Mu and so on. The reportage had its great development, too. "*Who Is the Loveliest Man?*" by Wei Wei was the influential work in the early period of the foundation of New China. The poems in the New China had the main materials to celebrate the socialism. Modern drama and movies had their significance in the socialist art after the foundation of New China. The modern dramas included "*Long Xu Gou*" by Lao She which tells the great changes of people's life in the new society, the historical drama "*Cai Wenji*" and "*Wu Zetian*" by Guo Moruo, the historical dramas "*Guan Hanqing*" and "*Princess Wen Cheng*" by Tian Han. All these are widely accepted by people. The movies are "*The Iron Soldiers*", "*Dong Cunrui*", "*Lin Zexu*", "*Li Shizhen*" and "*Li Shuangshuang*" and so on. The first movie which won prize in the world in the period of New China is "*The Sons and Daughters in China*" created on the basis of eight anti-Japanese soldiers who plunged into the river and the first actress who won prize in the world is Shi Lianxing who acted as the hero in the movie "*Zhao Yiman*". Calligraphy, painting, music and dance had been improved step by step with the improvement of the people's cultural qualities and they were accepted more and more by people. Nowadays the influences of China in every aspect are noticed more and more in the world.

March to the sport power in the world: Old China was poor and backward, and the sports were backward as well. The Chinese were sneered as "East Asian Patients". After the foundation of New China, the Government produced a sport policy "Promote physical culture and build up the people's health". The massive sport activities started energetically in the whole country with the guidance of the policy and the physical training in schools was strengthened gradually. On the basis of the popularity of the massive sports, the competitive sports in China have been promoted. In the later 1950s, the Chinese athletes have broken the world records continually in the world competitions and a large group of world champions appeared with the start of Chen Jingkai. When it entered 1990s, an entire nation physical training movement started in China and the level of the sports has risen with high speed. China has become the sport power in Asia and she is marching to the world sport power now!

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社会主义时期的文化
Cultures in the Socialist Period

科学技术的显著成就:中央人民政府成立以后,十分重视科学技术的发展。首先,建立科研机构,组织科研队伍。1949 年成立了中国科学院,逐步建立了由中央各部门、高等院校和地方组成的科学研究体系。然后制定科技发展规划,迅速发展科技事业。50 多年来,我国的科学技术事业有了很大发展,取得了丰硕成果,涌现出了许多成绩优秀的科学家,如,钱学森、屠守锷、邓稼先、袁隆平等。

新中国成立以来重大科学技术成就

时间	重大成就	作用和意义
1961 年	1.2 万吨水压机制造成功	我国是世界上第五个制造此类大型锻压机械的国家
1964 年	第一颗原子弹爆炸成功	我国由此跨入核国家行列
1965 年	人工合成结晶牛胰岛素	世界首次
1966 年	第一颗导弹发射成功	我国有了用于实战的导弹
1967 年	第一颗氢弹爆炸成功	距离第一颗原子弹爆炸不到 3 年的时间,而美国用了 7 年,苏联用了 4 年
1968 年	南京长江大桥落成	我国自行设计建造的长江上最长的铁路、公路大桥
1970 年	我国第一颗人造地球卫星“东方红一号”发射成功	重量超过苏联和美国的第一颗卫星
1974 年	籼型杂交水稻育成	世界上首次育成杂交水稻
1983 年	银河Ⅰ型巨型计算机研制成功	我国首次研制成每秒运算一亿次的计算机
1984 年	同步试验通讯卫星发射成功	我国首次发射定点卫星,进行广播、通信、电视的传播
1985 年	向太平洋预定海域发射远程火箭成功	标志着我国运载火箭技术达到新的水平
1988 年	北京正负电子对抗机首次对撞成功	我国第一座高能加速器
1993 年	大亚湾核电站Ⅰ号机组启动运转	我国最大的核电站
1999 年	我国第一艘“神舟”号宇宙实验飞船安全返回	为我国载人宇宙飞船奠定基础

人民教育事业的发展:新中国成立以后,为发展人民教育事业,政府对旧教育制度进行了彻底改造。主要有:1)建立人民教育制度。召开第一次全国教育工作会议确立教育为国家建设服务、学校向工农开门的方针。2)对被帝国主义把持的学

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校收回教育主权。3)改革学制。新学制改革了不合理的年限和制度,对各级学校进行了调整,使各级不同程度的学校更好地衔接起来。全国中小学教材由国家统一供应。进入全面建设社会主义时期,进行教育改革的试验,推行两种教育制度(两种教育制度是指全日制学校教育制度,是主要的;半工半读学校教育制度,是与全日制学校并存的教育制度),促使半工半读和职业教育得到迅速发展。据统计,农村的耕读小学在校学生达2 400万人,占全国小学学生总数的20%,半工半读农业中学有53 000所,学生310万人,占全国中学学生总数的25%。

但是,"文化大革命"时期,教育事业受到了空前的破坏,全国教育事业陷于瘫痪。粉碎"四人帮"以后,党和政府在教育战线上进行了拨乱反正。1983年,邓小平提出"教育要面向现代化,面向世界,面向未来",为教育改革指明了方向。与此同时,政府确定了新时期的教育方针,对教育体制进行了全面改革,我国的教育事业进入蓬勃发展的新时期。主要表现在:1)进行教育体制改革和教育立法,制订了《教育法》、《义务教育法》和《教师法》等;2)加强基础教育;3)发展高等教育;4)重视少数民族教育的发展。

史学研究成果:新中国的成立为马克思主义史学的发展开拓了新的道路,广大史学工作者以马克思主义唯物史观为指导,对许多问题展开研究和讨论,在史学研究方面做出了很大成绩。范文澜重新修订的《中国通史》,郭沫若主编的《中国史稿》,翦伯赞主编的《中国史纲要》,侯外庐主编的《中国思想通史》等,都是我国有较高学术水平的史学著作,是马克思主义史学著作的代表。史学研究的主要硕果有:从远古到现代的许多重大历史事件,重要历史人物,重大经济文化发展,都有专著论述;政府还组织专家对"二十四史"、《资治通鉴》等大型史学名著进行了点教;一些历史档案、名人传记也纷纷问世。

文学艺术的繁荣:新中国成立以后,讴歌中国共产党领导的人民革命斗争,颂扬社会主义革命和建设的风貌,成为这一时期文学艺术创作的主旋律。在50年代后期出现了长篇小说,在现代小说史上占有重要地位。其中,梁斌的《红旗谱》、吴强的《日出》、杨沫的《青春之歌》、欧阳山的《三家巷》、柳青的《创业史》和罗广斌、杨益言的《红岩》等是著名的代表作。在反映社会主义建设日新月异的发展上,散文发挥着巨大的作用。优秀散文家有杨朔、刘白羽、秦牧等。报告文学也有较大的发展,魏巍的《谁是最可爱的人》是建国初期很有影响的作品。新中国的诗歌创作以歌颂社会主义的题材为主。话剧和电影艺术在建国后的社会主义文艺园地里争奇斗艳。话剧有老舍的反映新社会劳动人民生活巨大变化的《龙须沟》,郭沫若的历史剧《蔡文姬》和《武则天》,田汉的历史剧《关汉卿》和《文成公主》等,很受群众的欢迎。主要电影有《钢铁战士》、《董存瑞》、《林则徐》、《李时珍》和《李双双》等。第一部在国际上获奖的新中国电影是根据八位抗日英雄投江故事而创作的《中华儿女》;第一个在国际上获奖的演员是电影《赵一曼》中的主演,石联星。书法、绘

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画、音乐、舞蹈等艺术，随着人民文化素质的不断提高，越来越为人民所喜爱。目前，中国在各个方面在世界上的影响越来越受到世界的瞩目。

向体育强国迈进：旧中国贫穷落后，体育事业落后，中国人被讥讽为“东亚病夫”。新中国成立以后，提出“发展体育运动，增强人民体质”的体育运动方针。在这一方针指引下，群众性的体育活动在全国蓬勃开展，学校体育工作也不断加强。在普及群众性体育运动的基础上，我国的竞技体育水平不断提高。20 世纪 50 年代后期，以举重运动员陈镜开为起点，中国运动员在国际比赛中不断打破世界纪录，涌现出一大批世界冠军。20 世纪 90 年代，我国开展全民健身运动，体育运动水平也迅速提高。现在，中国已成为亚洲体育强国，正向世界体育强国迈进！

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