

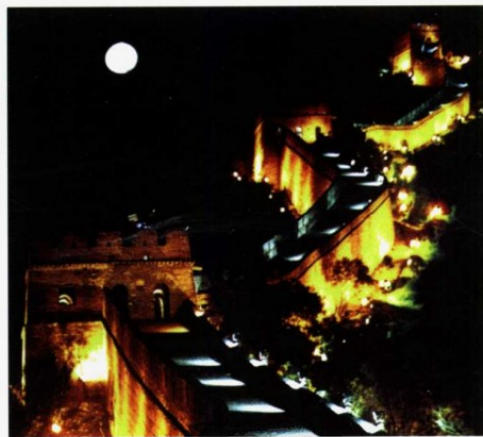


用英语说中国

INTRODUCE CHINA IN ENGLISH

文明史迹

History



◎ 主编 沈光煜 浩 瀚

 科学技术文献出版社



用英语说中国

INTRODUCE CHINA IN ENGLISH



- 古今名人 • Eminent Persons
- 文化艺术 • Culture and Arts
- 魅力城市 • Charming Cities
- 辉煌建设 • Splendid Development
- 风俗民情 • Folk Customs
- 旅游亮点 • Scenic Spots
- 家庭生活 • Family Life
- 文明史迹 • History

ISBN 978-7-5023-5828-0



9 787502 358280 >

定价: 13.00元

封面设计
宋雪梅

2008



H319.4/1571
:5
2008

用英语说中国

INTRODUCE CHINA IN ENGLISH



文明史迹

History

主编 沈光煜 浩 瀚
编委 齐 齐 宋美盈 王亚彬 李 硕
李庆磊 刘雷雷 马 兰 蔡 丹
姚 青 李林德 潘永亮 王应铜
赵秀丽 尹晓洁 韩 磊 刘梓红
徐 萍 马 迅 徐光伟 赵修臣
李明亚 陈伟华 李 红

策划 北京浩瀚英语研究所

科学技术文献出版社

Scientific and Technical Documents Publishing House

北 京

(京)新登字 130 号

内 容 简 介

几千年的中国历史长河,浩瀚壮阔。在此书中我们力求撷取其中最精华部分呈献给大家,以满足广大读者学习中国历史文化并力求用英、汉两种语言表达中国文化的需要。本书编写以历史时间为顺序,内容共包括:史前时期、夏商周时期、秦汉时期、魏晋南北朝时期、隋唐时期、宋辽金时期、元明清时期、中华民国与中华人民共和国八大部分。全面介绍了中国历史的发展过程和各个阶段的特点。每个部分既有全面概述,又有重点介绍,点面结合,突出了每个阶段的重大历史事件及社会发展状况,极具特色。

科学技术文献出版社是国家科学技术部系统惟一一家中央级综合性科技出版机构,我们所有的努力都是为了使您增长知识和才干。

前言 Foreword

中国历史文化辉煌灿烂、历久不衰、独具魅力；具有强大的辐射力，光芒万丈、泽被四邻。处于 21 世纪的世界是一个文化多元化、个人需求多元化的时代，因而也是呼唤中华历史文明走向世界的时代。《用英语说中国——文明史迹》则可成为这一载体。

本书以时间顺序为主线，内容共包括史前时期、夏商周时期、秦汉时期、魏晋南北朝时期、隋唐时期、宋辽金时期、元明清时期、中华民国与中华人民共和国八大部分，历朝历代都有涉及，全方位介绍中华历史文明，极具中国特色。

本书每个单元都是一个历史阶段，并有一篇概况，简明扼要地介绍了这一历史时期的情况，并选择有代表性的历史事件及文化发展情况作为每个单元的主体内容，满足了新时代世界文化发展的实际需要。

本书内容的编排由：流畅精句、精彩片段、文化链接、妙词连珠四大部分组成，点线面层层递进，逐步深入。

本书每部分内容分栏为：

流畅精句：贴切、简单、实用的语句，采用英汉对照的形式，让你脱口而出。

精彩片段：采用典型的具有代表性文章段落，介绍详细具体，一目了然，可

让读者获得英语学习和了解中国历史的双重丰收。

文化链接:用汉语讲述相关知识背景,可以让大家更深层地了解中国的发展轨迹。

妙词连珠:鲜活、亮丽词汇,为你脱口而出打下坚实基础。

用英语说中国,不仅让中国走向世界,也让世界更多地了解中国。

目 录



Chapter 1

Prehistory Times 史前时期

- Unit 1 The Old and New Stone Age
旧石器、新石器时代 [1]
- Unit 2 The Prehistory Culture
史前文化 [7]



Chapter 2

The Dynasties of Xia, Shang and Zhou 夏、商、周时期

- Unit 1 Xia Dynasty
夏朝 [18]
- Unit 2 Shang Dynasty
商朝 [25]
- Unit 3 Zhou Dynasty
周朝 [35]
- Unit 4 The Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period
春秋战国时期 [45]



Chapter 3

The Qin and Han Dynasty 秦汉时期

- Unit 1 Qin Dynasty
秦朝 [58]
- Unit 2 Han Dynasty

汉朝	[70]
----------	--------



Chapter 4

The Dynasties of Wei and Jin, and
the Northern and Southern Dynasties 魏晋南北朝

Unit 1 The Three Kingdoms	
三国	[85]
Unit 2 Jin Dynasty	
晋朝	[92]
Unit 3 Northern and Southern Dynasties	
南北朝	[102]



Chapter 5

The Sui Dynasty and
the Tang Dynasty 隋唐时期

Unit 1 Sui Dynasty	
隋朝	[111]
Unit 2 Tang Dynasty	
唐朝	[119]



Chapter 6

The Dynasties of
Song, Liao and Jin 宋辽金时期

Unit 1 Five Dynasties and Ten States	
五代十国	[132]
Unit 2 Song Dynasty	
宋朝	[139]
Unit 3 Liao Dynasty	
辽朝	[151]
Unit 4 Jin Dynasty	
金朝	[156]



Chapter 7 The Dynasties of Yuan, Ming and Qing 元明清时期

Unit 1	Yuan Dynasty	
	元朝	[165]
Unit 2	Ming Dynasty	
	明朝	[173]
Unit 3	Qing Dynasty	
	清朝	[182]



Chapter 8 The Republic of China and the People's Republic of China 中华民国与 中华人民共和国

Unit 1	The Republic of China	
	中华民国	[199]
Unit 2	The People's Republic of China	
	中华人民共和国	[211]



Chapter 9 The Four Great Inventions, Historical Tales and Mythology 中国四大发明、 历史故事与神话传说

Unit 1	The Four Great Inventions	
	四大发明	[215]
Unit 2	Historical Tales	
	历史故事	[224]
Unit 3	Mythology	
	神话传说	[234]
附 录 I		[247]
	History Timeline	
	历史年表	
附 录 II		[250]
	Chronology of Major Human Fossils in China	



中华大地猿人化石断代表

附 录 Ⅲ [251]

A Comparison of the Prehistory Cultures and Proto Civilizations in the Two River
Valleys

长江与黄河史前文化和早期文明比较简表

附 录 Ⅳ [253]

Classical Books

历史典籍

1 史前时期

Prehistory Times

U 旧石器、新石器时代 Unit 1 The Old and New Stone Age



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. China's earliest primitive human discovered so far is known as "Yuanmou Man", a fossil anthropoid unearthed in Yuanmou in Yunnan Province who lived approximately 1.7 million years ago.
发现于云南元谋的猿人化石表明,距今 170 万年前的“元谋人”是中国境内已知最早的原始人类。
2. The better-known "Peking Man," discovered in the Zhoukoudian area in the suburbs of Beijing, lived about 600 000 years ago. Peking Man was able to walk upright, make and use simple tools, and make fire.
距今近 60 万年前居住在北京周口店一带的“北京人”,能直立行走,能制造、使用简单的工具,并知道了用火。
3. By the start of the Neolithic Age in China about 10 000 years ago, people were cultivating rice and millet with farming tools.
在中国,距今一万年前后的新石器时代,人们就开始种植粟米。
4. The Neolithic Age, traced back to about nine thousand years ago, is classified by archaeologists as the last stage of the Stone Age.
“新石器时代”是考古学分期中石器时代的最后一个阶段,大约开始于九千年以前。

5. At that time, with the introduction of agriculture and stockbreeding and with the appearance of polished stone wares, pottery and textile goods, people began to be equipped with reliable living means and materials. Meanwhile, they started to settle down.
这时,随着农业、畜牧业的产生和磨制石器、陶器、纺织品的出现,人们有了较为可靠的生活资料来源,并且开始定居生活。
6. In 1999, the earliest man-made tools so far were found in Fanchang in central China's Anhui Province. More than 170 stone tools were unearthed here with a number of bone tools.
1999年,中国考古学家在安徽繁昌发现了世界上最古老的石器,计170余件,同时出土了少量的骨器。
7. In 1995, an earlier ape-man lower jaw was found in Yuanqu in north China's Shanxi Province. This dawn man, the earliest of its kind, was 2.5 million years old.
1995年,中国考古学家在山西垣曲发现了世界上最古老的曙猿下颌骨化石,距今250万年。
8. Since the discovery of Beijing Man in the 1920s, China's prehistory has been pushed back several times with new archeological finds.
自20世纪20年代北京猿人被发现以来,层出不穷的考古发现使中国的史前史几次提前。
9. Wushan Man near the Yangtze Gorges unearthed in the 1990s proved to be as old as Lucy in east Africa, dating to a very early Old Stone Age 2 million years ago.
20世纪90年代在长江三峡发现的巫山人和非洲东部发现的“露西”人一样古老,距今约200万年。
10. Across the breadth and with of China are found fossil bones of man.
中国各地都发现了猿人化石。
11. More sites of homo sapiens like modern man are scattered all over China, the most typical being Shandingdong Man dating 25 000 years near the site of Beijing Man.

智人化石的分布就更为广泛,可以说遍及神州各地。最典型的是距今 25 000 年的山顶洞人,其出土地点与北京猿人近在咫尺。

12. Decades of archeological finds reveal that China is exceptionally rich in human fossil remains. China is Homo to man.

考古发现证明,中国猿人化石极其丰富,说明中华大地正是人类起源的摇篮。

13. China is no doubt one of the two cradles of very primitive Homo erectus.

毋庸置疑,中国是直立猿人的两大摇篮之一。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

According to the materials unearthed for archaeological studies, for example, stone artifacts and fire remnants left 1 700 000 years ago and unearthed in Yuanmou, Yunnan Province in 1965, the earliest known ancients in China were Yuanmouensis. The fossil remains of Sinanthropus Lantianensis, Sinanthropus Pekinensis, Dingcun Man and Upper Cave Man constitute the complete developing sequences of China's ancient culture. About ten thousand years ago, the ancient Chinese culture departed from the Paleolithic era and entered the Neolithic Age.

Paragraph 2

P 旧石器时代 Paleolithic Age

Paleolithic Age began around 3 000 000 BC. During this period human beings underwent a long and slow course of physical evolution: first, from ape-man to Homo erectus, then passing through earlier and later stages of



Homo sapiens, to the emergence of modern humans having a similar bodily makeup as that of humans today.

During the Paleolithic Age, people were primarily nomadic hunters and gatherers, collecting fruit and fishing. While living in groups and dwelling in caves, they knew about and used fire for heating and cooking. Their first introduction to fire was in the forest where lightning strikes had caused wild-fires. At first the cave dwellers took coals from the forest home to make other fires. Later they learned ways to start their own fire by developing methods to catch sparks from drilling wood or rubbing two pieces of flint stone together. Fire played a significant role in the evolvement of human civilization. It not only provided lighting, heat and protection from wild beasts, but also enabled them to cook food to be better nourished. Fire dramatically changed the living habits of primitive people, much like how the use of the Internet in today's world has changed our methods of communication.

The early implements of the cave dwellers were thick and clumsy having been crudely made by hand-striking. There were only a few kinds available having very basic purposes. As man's knowledge and skills gradually increased they had learned the art of polishing stones for better quality and had developed a variety of tools, making not only stone articles and animal bone needles, but also bows and arrows, a set of devices for spear hurling and an awl for punching holes.

Paragraph 3

N 新石器时代 Neolithic Age

Neolithic Age is applied in China to the last period of a long prehistory. It began in 5000 B. C. and lasted about 3000 years. It is defined by a large number of settled agricultural communities who were skilled in hunting and gathering as well. The largest concentration of agriculture stood below the southern bend of the Yellow River and the main crop was millet. There was much difference between Neolithic era and nowadays in geography. In Neolithic era, most of areas were covered with lakes and marshes and the cli-

mate was warm and moist. The mountains were well forested and there was a variety of animals.

Before this time period began, Silk production, for which China is famous, had already been invented. Pottery was also present at the same time, which has two main types, Painted Pottery and Black Pottery. The dwellings of this time were in clusters that suggest kinship was important. Clothing was made of hemp and the main domesticated animals were pigs and dogs.



Cultural Links 文化链接

古人工具

大荔人的遗址发现有 180 多件石器,这些石器的特点是介于蓝田类型和丁村类型之间。丁村遗址是一处范围较大的旧石器时代中期遗址,有各种类型的石器二千多件。许家窑遗址也发现有大量的石器和骨器。

这些石器的制作,除了第一步的打击碰砸之外,还要进行第二步加工,加工技术逐渐趋于精细。为了适合一定的用途,各种石器大部有了定型。有单刃的砍砸器,有大三棱形和小型的尖状器,有三角形、四边形和圆形的刮削器,还有供打猎用的大大小小的球形投掷器,等等。石器制作技术有明显的进步,这是旧石器时代中期劳动生产力逐步提高的表现。

在许家窑遗址发现有烧过的兽骨。猿人时代已经长期积累了用火和保存火种的经验,古人经过进一步的发展,很可能产生了人工取火的技术。

在古人阶段,血缘家族进一步发展。随着劳动生产力的缓慢发展,婚姻关系也在逐步地发生变化。首先是在同胞的兄弟与姐妹之间的杂交状态受到排斥,接着又逐步排除由近及远的旁系亲属的婚姻关系,这就为同一家族的一群兄弟与另一家族的一群姐妹实行群婚创造了条件。而氏族制度也就在这样的背景下逐渐萌芽。

Vocabulary
妙词连珠

going through to heaven 通天

The Liangzhu Monster Face

良渚神徽

The Holy Grail 圣杯

Homoerectus 元谋人

Lantian Man 蓝田人

Peking Man 北京人

Dingcun Man 丁村人

Upper Cave Man 山顶洞人

the New Stone Age 新石器时代

the Old Stone Age 旧石器时代

primitive society 原始社会

cradle 摇篮

tool 工具

bone tool 骨器

discovery 发现

fossil 化石

U 史前文化

Unit 2 The Prehistory Culture



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The prehistoric culture is also termed as "the primitive culture", indicating the culture of the primitive society in which no written language emerged.
史前文化又称“原始文化”，指文字产生以前的原始社会的文化。
2. Yangshao Culture was first discovered in Yangshao Village, Mianchi County, Henan Province in 1921, hence the name of Yangshao Culture.
仰韶文化，1921 年在河南省渑池县仰韶村首次发现，由此得名。
3. Traces of Dawenkou culture were first discovered in 1959 along the Dawenhe River near Dawenkou Town of Tai'an County, and Baotou Village of Ningyang County in Shandong Province, hence the name of Dawenkou.
大汶口文化，1959 年在山东省泰安县大汶口镇与宁阳县堡头村附近的大汶河两岸首次发现，由此得名。
4. Remains of Longshan culture were first discovered in Longshan Town, Zhangqiu County, Shandong Province in 1928, hence the name of Longshan Culture.
龙山文化，1928 年在山东省章丘县龙山镇首次发现，由此得名。
5. Remains of Majiayao culture were first discovered in Majiayao Village, Lintao County, Gansu Province in 1923, hence the name of Majiayao Culture.
马家窑文化，1923 年在甘肃省临洮县马家窑村首次发现，由此得名。



6. Something revealed by relics found in the ruins of Hemudu in Yuyao, Zhejiang Province, and Banpo, near Xi'an City, Shaanxi Province.
在浙江余姚河姆渡和陕西西安半坡。
7. About ten thousand years ago, the ancient Chinese culture departed from the Paleolithic era and entered the Neolithic Age.
大约1万年前,中国文化的发展告别了旧石器时代而进入新石器时代。
8. China's traditional auspicious articles, such as dragon and phoenix were the totems of ancient China's clans.
中国传统的吉祥物如龙、凤等,就是中国古代氏族的图腾。
9. In the Neolithic Age, with the development of ancient society, the three dynasties of Western Xia, Eastern Yi and Miaoman Man gradually took shape as three groups of consanguinity and region.
在新石器时代,随着古代社会的发展,逐渐形成了西夏、东夷和苗蛮三个血缘——地域集团。
10. The ancient history of China is veiled in mists of mythology, out of which emerges the epic Yellow Emperor and Emperor Yan. These two heroic figures made exceptional contributions to the development of the Chinese nation.
中国上古时期的历史笼罩在神话的迷雾之中,黄帝和炎帝就是这一时期介于神话和历史之间的两个英雄人物,他们对中华民族的发展做出了卓越的贡献。
11. Up to this day, Chinese people call themselves the "descendants of Emperor Yan and the Yellow Emperor."
时至今日,中国人依然以“炎黄子孙”自称。
12. Legend has it that the Yellow Emperor and his ministers were responsible for the invention of clothing, language, the calendar, land vehicles, the boat, and the bow and arrow.
按照传说,黄帝和他的臣子还是衣服、文字、历法、舟车、弓矢等诸多事物的发明者。

13. Emperor Yan was the younger brother of the Yellow Emperor. Although he lost the war to rule the world, his contribution to humanity was no less.

炎帝是黄帝的兄弟, 虽然他在争夺天下的战争中输给了黄帝, 但他对人类的贡献却丝毫不逊于后者。

14. He taught the people agriculture and irrigation to ward off famine, and has since been revered as "the Sacred Farmer."

由于他发明并传授给人民农耕和水利的方法, 使百姓免遭饥馑, 所以又被称为“神农”。

15. Historians surmise that the tribes represented by Emperor Yan and the Yellow Emperor inhabited the Wei river basin (in present-day Shaanxi province) in the late period of China's primitive society. They later moved to the Hebei plains.

史学家的推测是, 炎、黄所代表的部族于原始社会晚期活动在渭河流域(今陕西省), 后来东扩到河北大平原。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

So far, Prehistoric cultures of different types have been found in all parts of China, among which Yangshao Culture, Dawenkou Culture, Hemudu Culture, Banpo Culture Longshan Culture, and Majiayao Culture are of the greatest importance.

Paragraph 2

T 仰韶文化 he Yangshao Culture

The Yangshao culture was a Neolithic culture that existed extensively a-

long the central Yellow River in China. The Yangshao people lived in round or rectangular houses in the mountainous regions that were below ground level and surrounded by little walls of earth. They cultivated millet extensively; some villages also cultivated wheat or rice. They kept such animals as pigs and dogs, as well as sheep, goats, and cattle, but much of their meat came from hunting and fishing. Their stone tools were polished and highly specialized. The Yangshao people may also have practiced an early form of silkworm cultivation. Especially note worthy was their gray or red pottery, so the Yangshao Culture, also referred to as the "Painted Pottery" Culture.

Paragraph 3

D 大汶口文化 Dawenkou Culture

Traces of this culture were first discovered in 1959 along the Dawenhe River near Dawenkou Town of Tai'an County, and Baotou Village of Ningyang County in Shandong Province. Most of the remnants lie around Mount Tai, reaching as far as the southern coast of the Bohai Sea in the north, Jiangsu Province in the south, the eastern line of the Western Plains of Shandong Province in the west, and the coast of the Yellow Sea in the East. So far, over 200 remains have been discovered and more than 10 sites (mainly tombs) unearthed. Researches have revealed that the culture lasted mainly from 4 300 B. C. to 2 500 B. C. Ancestors of Dawenkou Culture had polished stoneware as their major production implements, including a large number of exquisite tools of bone, horn and tooth. Pottery for everyday use was mainly red clay pottery and red sand pottery. There were gray pottery, black pottery and a small amount of white hard pottery, and colored pottery as well. During this period, production developed from manual work to wheel work. Refined pottery art crafts came into being. Agriculture constituted their chief economic activity, while fishing and hunting were subsidiary activities. Stockbreeding, such as pig, dog, cow, and chicken raising, were rather developed. The handicraft industry of Dawenkou culture had separated itself

gradually from agriculture and existed all by itself. The sharp contrast between the rich and the poor was becoming more and more obvious. In the late period, there appeared the co-burial of men and women, which marked the social transition from the matriarchy to the patrilineal.

Paragraph 4

T河姆渡文化 **The Hemudu Culture**

The Hemudu culture (5000 BC to 4500 BC) was a Neolithic culture that flourished just south of the Hangzhou Bay in Jiangnan in modern Yuyao, Zhejiang, China. The site at Hemudu was discovered in 1973. Hemudu sites were also discovered on the islands of Zhoushan.

The Hemudu culture co-existed with the Majiabang culture as two separate and distinct cultures, with cultural transmissions between the two. Two major floods caused the nearby Yaojiang River to change its course and inundated the soil with salt, forcing the people of Hemudu to abandon its settlements. The Hemudu people lived in long, stilt houses.

The Hemudu culture is one of the earliest cultures to cultivate rice. Most of the artifacts discovered at Hemudu consist of animal bones, exemplified by hoes made of shoulder bones used for cultivating rice.

The culture also produced lacquer wood. The remains of various plants, including water caltrop, *Nelumbo nucifera*, acorns, beans, Gorgon euryale and brotite gourd, were found at Hemudu. The Hemudu people likely domesticated pigs, water buffalo and dogs. The people at Hemudu also fished and hunted, as evidence by the remains of bone harpoons and bows and arrowheads. Music instruments, such as bone whistles and wooden drums, were also found at Hemudu.

The culture produced a thick, porous pottery. The distinct pottery was typically black and made with charcoal powder. Plant and geometric designs were commonly painted onto the pottery; the pottery was sometimes also cord-marked. The culture also produced carved jade ornaments, carved ivory artifacts and small, clay figurines.



B 半坡文化 Banpo Culture

Banpo Culture belongs to the Yangshao Culture of the Neolithic Age (about 10 000 B. C. to 5 000 B. C.), which originated in the middle valley of the Yellow River. As this culture was discovered in the vicinity of today's Banpo Village, in Xi'an City in Shaanxi Province, it was named after this village. However, thousands of years ago it was not so called. Primitive Banpo villagers lived 6 800—6 300 years ago, and they came from two different tribes. In light of many kinds of farm implements and fishing tools excavated, it is inferred that the Banpo people depended primarily on farming and fishing for survival. At the same time, the Banpo people cultivated a colored Pottery Culture, one of the most representatives of Yangshao Culture. Their earthen wares were uniformly red in colour and decorated with black pigment. The craftsmen had their potteries simply decorated, the most striking are the designs of fish that can be seen everywhere. The fish was finished in symbolic pattern. It is concluded that fish should be the totem of ancient Banpo people. Here the masterpiece wares include: a tip-bottomed bottle, which is a water sucker under the principal of shifting gravity center (not really clear); and a painted basin with design of a human face holding fish at the corners of mouth. Moreover, on certain similar parts of potteries are found twenty-two kinds of mysterious marks, which are estimated to be some primitive script.

Meanwhile Banpo Culture witnessed the time of matriarchal clan society. Women took a dominant position in everything and there were no permanent couples. After death, adult women and men were buried separately in communal graveyard, having potteries and beads of animal bones as burial objects. Children, however, were not allowed be buried with adults. The mother would put the body of her child into pottery jar and bury it in a pit close to her house. This special burial jar practice reveals that child was still not counted as the member of primitive community. More

burial articles were found in girl's pit than in that of boys.

Paragraph 6

L 龙山文化 Longshan Culture

Longshan culture was a late Neolithic culture centered around the central and lower Yellow River in China. The Longshan people lived on the plains of eastern China. Their villages were similar to those of the Yangshao, but evidence of stamped earth fortresses is found in some sites. The distinctive feature of Longshan culture was the high level of skill in pottery making, including the use of pottery wheels. Longshan pottery was noted for its highly polished black pottery. Just because of its distinguished pottery, Longshan culture has been called the "Black Pottery" Culture. Their domesticated animals were the pig, dog, sheep, and ox.

Paragraph 7

M 马家窑文化 Majiyao Culture

Remains of this culture were first discovered in Majiyao Village, Lintao County, Gansu Province in 1923, hence the name of Majiyao Culture. It is generally considered as a local branch of Yangshao Culture in the late period; therefore it is also known as Yangshao Culture of Gansu. It was centered around the West Plain of Gansu Province, stretching to the north of Gansu Province and the south of Ningxia Hui Minority Autonomous Region in the north, the southern part of Gansu Province and the north of Sichuan Province in the south, and reaching the Gansu Corridor and the northeast of Qinghai Province in the west and the east of Gansu Province in the east. More than 20 ruins have been unearthed. According to relevant researches, the culture was prosperous from 3300 B. C. to 2050 B. C. Among the production implements the ancestors used in Majiyao Culture were stone or pottery sickles with one end shaped like a saw. About 20%-50% of the pottery was colored pottery, profusely painted. The economic activities were

mainly based on agriculture. Deer was the staple prey of hunting, but pigs, dogs, sheep were also raised. The handicraft industry included stoneware production, wood works, spinning and weaving, pottery production and so on. Art mainly took the form of colored pottery as well as man-like or animal-like pottery sculptures and pottery house models. Quite a number of types of pottery were carved with symbols, which some pieces of bone had breached for counting.

Paragraph 8

H 黄帝文化 Huangdi Culture

Huangdi is considered to be the founder of Chinese civilization as well as its first ancestor. He lived about 4 thousand years ago, during the time of patriarchal clan community, and was the mystical chief of one of the strongest tribes in the middle valley of the Yellow River. During this period many tribes came to settle around the reach of Yellow River engaging in farming. The different tribes clashed with each other over land disputes as each tribe sought to have more farmland. Since the constant warring caused much suffering to the people, Huangdi decided to put an end to this chaotic situation. He worked out a moral code and trained his army. With his army, after warring 56 battles against other tribes, Huangdi conquered a wide area along the Yellow River and was made chief of the tribal union. Because his tribe honored the virtue of earth, he was given the title, Yellow Emperor, after the yellow color of earth, the symbol of farming.

As the Yellow Emperor he is remembered as having done many great things. He coined bronze money, practiced medicine, invented boats, raised silk-worms and divided his realm into provinces. The story goes that when Huangdi was 110 years old, a yellow dragon appears in the sky, summoning the emperor to heaven on behalf of the king of heaven. When the emperor riding on the back of the dragon is about to leave, his subjects who were reluctant to let him go, drag him back by his clothes. However, all that was left were only part of the emperor's clothes and hat.

In commemoration of Huangdi, his descendents buried his remains at Mt. Qiaoshan, where they built a mausoleum in honour of him, in present day Shaanxi Province. Tradition passes down from then that every year on the fifth day of the fourth lunar month (the Qingming Festival, also known as the Festival of Pure Brightness) Chinese people of Huangdi's origin, will remember him by coming to visit his mausoleum which has become the symbol of the Chinese nation.

Paragraph 9

T史前文化的主要成果 **he Major Achievement of Prehistoric Culture**

The major achievement of prehistoric culture could be seen in the emergence of the primitive agriculture. In the north, Yangshao culture was mainly represented by the dry land agriculture, of which foxtail millet was the chief product; Hemudu culture in the south was represented by rice agriculture on wet land, of which rice was the chief product. China is among the earliest countries in the world where foxtail millet and rice were grown. In the era of Longshan culture, the initial primitive characters came into being. The primitive graphic characters, carved on pots, have been found, for instance, in the Dinggong site in Boxing, Shandong Province, the Lingyang site in Ju county and Qianzhai site in Zhucheng. These kinds of primitive characters were invented 800 years earlier than the inscriptions on bones or tortoise shells unearthed in Yin Ruins. Pottery — painted pottery and black pottery (of the late Neolithic culture) — is a kind of great invention. In the prehistoric culture, the painted pottery of Yangshao culture and the black pottery of Longshan culture were models of handicraft. The technique of manufacturing pottery with wheels as tools was also applied to the production of the painted pottery. The temperature in the sintering process reached between 950 °C and 1 050°C. The utensils painted on the surface in black, brown or red, or in a mixture of two colours, were a combination for both practical and artistic uses. The black pottery represented the most advanced level of handicraft industry in the prehistoric culture. This tech-



nique applied in making clay mould with a swift wheel was then adopted in the production of a variety of the black pottery in beautiful shapes. The pottery of eggshell, with its surface brightly pitch-black and the roughcast only 0.1 to 0.2 centimeter thick, is regarded, as the most exquisite artistic products of that time.



Cultural Links

文化链接

原始文化和宗教

在大汶口文化和良渚文化的陶器上,都发现有笔画整齐规则的图形刻画,比关中仰韶文化的刻画符号有了显著的进步。这些刻画,已经发展成为早期的图像文字,当是我国古代文字形成的一个重要发展阶段。

在江苏连云港市郊将军岩发现有一处岩画,主要内容为人面像、农作物、兽面纹以及各种符号。此外,还有类似太阳、星象的图案。兽面纹的构图和山东、苏北地区龙山文化中玉钺上的兽面纹饰相比较,显得十分简略、粗糙、古拙。这一重要的艺术创造,直接反映了四千多年前东方沿海地区的经济和文化发展面貌。

在河南浙川下王岗仰韶文化晚期遗址里,发现有卜骨。龙山文化的许多遗址,卜骨的出现就比较普遍了。这些卜骨,大都是用猪、牛、羊的肩胛骨刻成。占卜的风气在当时已经盛行,掌管占卜从事宗教迷信活动的巫师之类的人物当已出现。

此外,这一时期,崇拜女性的现象转为崇拜男性,可由各地出土的陶、石祖获得证明。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Mysterious C Dragon 红山 C 龙

Ancient Chinese Jade 古玉

the jade suit 金缕玉衣

Prehistoric Culture 史前文化

Hongshan Culture 红山文化

Dawenkou Culture 大汶口文化

Longshan Culture 龙山文化

Yangshao Culture 仰韶文化



Majiayao-Qijia Culture

马家窑-齐家文化

Hemudu-Majiabin Culture

河姆渡马家浜文化

Banpo Culture 半坡文化

mausoleum 陵墓

commemoration

纪念, 纪念会

province 省

Huangdi Culture 黄帝文化

engaging 动人的

virtue 德行, 美德

2 夏、商、周时期

The Dynasties of Xia, Shang and Zhou

U 夏朝 nit 1 Xia Dynasty

Key Sentences 流畅精句

1. The dynasties of Xia, Shang and Western Zhou are also called "Three Dynasties". It is generally believed that they were the slave society.
夏、商、西周又称“三代”，它们的社会性质一般被认为是奴隶制社会。
2. The Xia dynasty was the earliest slave society in the Chinese history, which was founded around the 21st century B. C. and replaced by the Shang Dynasty in the 16th century B. C.
夏是中国历史上最早的奴隶制国家，大约形成于公元前 21 世纪，在公元前 16 世纪被商所取代。
3. Yu and his son Qi established the first dynasty in Chinese history—the Xia.
禹和他的儿子启建立的是中国历史上第一个王朝——夏。
4. The center of Xia was the western section of modern Henan Province and the southern section of modern Shanxi Province with a sphere of influence that reached the northern and southern areas of the Yellow River. It was in this period that the slave society began to appear.
夏王朝的中心地区，在今河南省西部和山西南部一带，其势力和影响已达到黄河南北，并开始进入奴隶社会。

5. The Xia Dynasty was overthrown by Shang. The Western Zhou (1046—771 B. C.) Dynasty saw further development of slave society.
继夏而兴起的商、西周进一步发展了奴隶制度。
6. It lasted nearly 500 years from the 21st to the 17th century BC, ruled by 17 consecutive kings.
夏朝从公元前 21 世纪到公元前 17 世纪,延续了近 500 年,先后有 17 位君主。
7. Under occurred several times at the beginning. For most part of the remaining period, the dynasty enjoyed peace.
夏朝初期发生了几次动乱,此后一段时间日子还算太平。
8. It began its decline in the hands of the 14th king, Kongjia, who, instead of concentrating on state affairs, indulged in bizarre and strange habits. It is said that he even called up a dragon. The vassals began to rebel during this period.
夏朝第 14 个君主孔甲不务正业,沉迷于稀奇古怪的事物,据说还养过龙。夏的统治从他开始走向衰败。
9. The last king of Xia, Jie, was a ruthless ruler.
夏的最后一个君主桀非常残暴。
10. He vainly believed that his reign would last as long as the sun would shine.
他狂妄地相信自己的统治可以和太阳一样持久。
11. The finds at two sites of the Xia dynasty in western Henan since the 1950s proved the validity of Sima Qian's records of this dynasty preceding the Shang.
20 世纪 50 年代以来在河南西部发现了两个夏朝遗址,证实了司马迁对夏朝的记述是可靠的。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The first prehistoric dynasty is said to be Xia, from about the twenty-first to the sixteenth century B. C. Until scientific excavations were made at early bronze-age sites at Anyang, Henan Province, in 1928, it was difficult to separate myth from reality in regard to the Xia. But since then, and 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 period marked an evolutionary stage between the late neolithic cultures and the typical Chinese urban civilization of the Shang dynasty.

Paragraph 2

A 原始记载 Archaeological Records

Unlike the later Shang dynasty, no direct archeological evidence exists to confirm the existence of a Xia dynasty. Archaeologists have uncovered urban sites, bronze implements, and tombs that point to the possible existence of the Xia dynasty at locations cited in ancient Chinese historical texts. Most Chinese archaeologists identify the Erlitou culture as the site of the Xia dynasty, while most Western archaeologists remain unconvinced of the connection between the Erlitou culture and the Xia Dynasty. In 1959, a site located in the city of Yanshi was excavated containing large palaces that some Chinese archaeologists have attributed as capital of the Xia Dynasty, though Western archaeologists are reluctant to make this claim on the grounds that no written records exist to confirm the name of the dynasty.



and its sovereigns. Radiocarbon dating places the site at about 2100 to 1800 BC, providing physical evidence of the existence of a state contemporaneous with and possibly equivalent to the Xia Dynasty as described in Chinese historical works. At a minimum, the archeological discoveries marked an evolutionary stage between the late neolithic cultures and the typical Chinese urban civilization of the Shang dynasty. Agricultural technology improved drastically with the invention of wine making and improvements in horse herding, and carriages were used.

Paragraph 3

Y 大禹 u the Great

Yu the Great is still remembered and respected as the ruler who got the Yellow River back under control. He lived about four thousand years ago. At that time, people suffered from a big flood of the Yellow River. King Shun, the ruler before Yu, initially assigned Yu's father Gun to handle the problem. Gun tried out a method that consisted of blocking up the water wherever the flooding occurred. Nine years later, the situation had become even worse with the river overflowing everywhere. King Shun was very angry about what Gun had done, and ended up dismissing Gun and appointing Yu. Yu learned techniques from his father and adopted a new way of dredging water channels and conducting the river to the sea. He went into this project of water control with all his heart, and it was said that during this period of time, he passed by his house three times but never went inside. It took him 13 years to tame the river. The story of Yu's battle against the flood speaks of the fearless spirit of ancient people faced with natural disaster.

King Shun was impressed by Yu's endeavors and passed his throne to Yu later on. Yu the Great was the last legendary leader of the primitive society, in which the election of the leader followed the merit system. It was Qi, the son of Yu, who violated this practice. He killed the person Yu the Great had appointed and succeeded his father's power. Qi founded the Xia

Dynasty (21st-16th century BC) and initiated the hereditary system of monarchy.

Paragraph 4

E夏朝灭亡 **End of the Xia Dynasty**

Towards the end of the Xia Dynasty, social conflict grew sharper. Tradition has it that in the 16th century B. C., the last ruler of Xia, Jie, abused his power and increased oppression. He exhausted the resources of the people to build palaces and pavilions for himself. The people were also forced to go to war frequently to exact children, as well as jade and silk, from neighbouring tribes. Filled with hatred from Jie, the people could no longer put up with his despotic rule and fled in large numbers. Even his court officials cursed him and wished his death, although that might mean that they themselves would perish. Jie, however, still thinking of restoring and strengthening his control over other tribes, gathered all the tribal chiefs together for a punitive expedition against the Youmin clan. But this made the existing conflicts more acute and alienated the tribes further. Shang Tang took this opportunity to revolt and overthrew the Xia Dynasty.



Cultural Links

文化链接

大禹治水

尧在位的时候,黄河流域发生了很大的水灾,庄稼被淹了,房子被毁了,老百姓只好往高处搬。不少地方还有毒蛇猛兽,伤害人和牲口,叫人们过不了日子。

尧召开部落联盟会议,商量治水的问题。他征求四方部落首领的意见:派谁去治理洪水呢?首领们都推荐鲧(音 gǔn)。

尧对鲧不大信任。首领们说:“现在没有比鲧更强的人才啦,你试一下吧!”尧才勉强同意。

鲧花了9年时间治水,没有把洪水制服。因为他只懂得水来土掩,造



堤筑坝,结果洪水冲塌了堤坝,水灾反而闹得更凶了。

舜接替尧当部落联盟首领以后,亲自到治水的地方去考察。他发现鲧办事不力,就把鲧杀了,又让鲧的儿子禹去治水。

禹改变了他父亲的做法,用开渠排水、疏通河道的办法,把洪水引到大海中去。他和老百姓一起劳动,戴着箬帽,拿着锹子,带头挖土、挑土,累得磨光了小腿上的毛。

经过 13 年的努力,终于把洪水引到大海里去,地面上又可以供人种庄稼了。

禹新婚不久,为了治水,到处奔波,多次经过自己的家门,都没有进去。有一次,他妻子涂山氏生下了儿子启,婴儿正在哇哇地哭,禹在门外经过,听见哭声,也狠下心没进去探望。

当时,黄河中游有一座大山,叫龙门山(在今山西河津县西北)。它堵塞了河水的去路,把河水挤得十分狭窄。奔腾东下的河水受到龙门山的阻挡,常常溢出河道,闹起水灾来。禹到了那里,观察好地形,带领人们开凿龙门,把这座大山凿开了一个大口子。这样,河水就畅通无阻了。

后代的人都称颂禹治水的功绩,尊称他是大禹。

舜年老以后,也像尧一样,物色继承人。因为禹治水有功,大家都推选禹。到舜一死,禹就继任了部落联盟首领。

这时候,已到了氏族公社后期。生产力发展了,一个人生产的东西,除了维持自己的生活,还有了剩余。氏族、部落的首领们利用自己的地位,把剩余产品作为自己的私人财产,变成氏族的贵族。有了剩余的产品,部落和部落之间发生战争,捉住了俘虏,不再把他们杀掉,而把他们变成奴隶,为贵族劳动。这样,就渐渐形成奴隶和奴隶主两个阶级,氏族公社开始瓦解。

由于禹在治水中的功绩,提高了部落联盟首领的威信和权力。传说禹年老的时候,曾经到东方视察,并且在会稽山(在今浙江绍兴一带)召集许多部落的首领。去朝见禹的人手里都拿着玉帛,仪式十分隆重。有一个叫做防风氏的部落首领,到会最晚。禹认为怠慢了他的命令,把防风氏斩了。这说明,那时候的禹已经从部落联盟首领变成名副其实的国王了。禹原来有个助手叫做皋陶(音 Gāoyáo),曾经帮助禹治理政事。皋陶死后,皋陶的儿子伯益也做过禹的助手。按照禅让的制度,本来是应该让伯益做禹的继承人的。但是,禹死以后,禹所在的夏部落的贵族却拥戴禹的儿子启继承



了禹的位子。

这样一来,氏族公社时期的部落联盟的选举制度正式被废除,变为王位世袭的制度。我国历史上第一个奴隶制王朝——夏朝出现了。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Western Xia Dynasty of Dang Xiang (党项族的)西夏	ability 才能
Dongyi man 东夷	public security 治安
Miaoman man 苗蛮	corrupt 腐败
descendents of Yandi and Hungdi 炎黄子孙	strict 严厉
Dinggong Site 丁公遗址	punish 惩处
Lingyang River Site 陵阳河遗址	very bad 恶劣
Qianzhai Site 前寨	tolerant 宽容
fall 衰亡	violent 剧烈
	seize 占领
	surrender 投降

U 商朝

Unit 2 Shang Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Shang Dynasty rose in Lu Nan (present southern Shandong Province) and later moved its capital to Yin (present Anyang in Henan Province). Therefore, it was also called the Yin Dynasty.
商兴起于鲁南地区,后迁都到殷(今河南安阳),所以又称殷。
2. The Yin was exterminated by the Zhou Dynasty, which rose in the west of China in the 11th century B. C.
公元前 11 世纪殷为兴起于西方的周所灭。
3. Under the leadership of Duke Tang and Yi Yin, the troops of Shang and other fieldoms defeated King Jie, who had lost the heart of the people.
在汤和伊尹的指挥下,商和其他诸侯国的军队很快就失去了民心的夏桀打得一败涂地。
4. Shang became the leader of all the other vassals, with Xia also reduced to a vassal state. This was the beginning of the Shang Dynasty.
商做了诸侯的领袖,夏下降为商的属国,商朝建立了。
5. The capital of Shang Dynasty was moved several times.
商朝的国都曾多次迁移。
6. When Pangeng became king, he moved the capital from Yan (present-day Qufu, Shandong province) to Yin (present-day Anyang, Henan province).
商王盘庚在位的时候,决定把首都从奄(今山东曲阜)迁往殷(今河南安阳)。

7. Pangeng's nephew Wuding succeeded him and proved to be a dedicated monarch. Day and night Wuding would rack his brains for means to make Shang a prosperous dynasty.
盘庚的侄子武丁是个很有抱负的君主,每天都在思考振兴商朝的办法。
8. With the help of Fu Yue, Wuding indeed turned Shang into a strong dynasty.
在傅说的帮助下,武丁统治下的商朝出现了强盛兴旺的局面。
9. The kings after Wuding, however, were all dull-witted. They only knew how to enjoy themselves. The dynasty declined in their hands.
不过,武丁以后的商朝君主却都是只懂享受的昏君,商朝的统治在他们手中也就江河日下。
10. King Zhou is notorious in Chinese history for his self-indulgence and cruelty.
商朝的最后一个君主纣王更是因荒淫残暴而成了中国历史上臭名昭著的人物。
11. The discovery of the capital of the Shang dynasty in Anyang in the north of Henan province in the 1920s verified everything concerning this dynasty in Sima Qian's Historical Records.
20 世纪 20 年代在河南安阳发现殷墟,证实司马迁在《史记》中对商朝的记载是准确可靠的。
12. There were about 4 000 different characters inscribed on bones or tortoise shells in the Shang Dynasty.
商代的甲骨文已有不相重复的单字近 4 000 个。
13. The characters included pictographic characters, self-explanatory characters, associative compounds and picto-phonetic characters.
在文字结构上已有了象形、指事、会意、形声字。
14. With the maturity of writing appeared the early documents which recorded ceremonies of offering sacrifices to gods or ancestors and some political, military and ritual activities.

随着文字的成熟,在商代出现了最初的文献,这些文献多为记载祭祀典礼和政治、军事、礼仪活动的档案。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

Thousands of archaeological finds in the Huang He, Henan Valley the apparent cradle of Chinese civilization—provide evidence about the Shang dynasty, which endured roughly from 1700 to 1027 B. C. The Shang dynasty (also called the Yin dynasty in its later stages) is believed to have been founded by a rebel leader who overthrew the last Xia ruler. Its civilization was based on agriculture, augmented by hunting and animal husbandry. Two important events of the period were the development of a writing system, as revealed in archaic Chinese inscriptions found on tortoise shells and flat cattle bones (commonly called oracle bones or), and the use of bronze metallurgy. A number of ceremonial bronze vessels with inscriptions date from the Shang period; the workmanship on the bronzes attests to a high level of civilization.

Paragraph 2

P 政治状况 Political History

The Shang Dynasty was the second monarchical state in Chinese history. Tang, the founder of Shang, having drawn lessons from the ruin of the previous dynasty, treated his people benevolently and employed many able and virtuous ministers. The Shang made great progresses in its economy during the reign of Tang.

While, due to political struggle for power in the imperial court and con-

tinuous wars with frontier tribes, Shang state moved its capital five times. The most notable move was during the reign of King Pangeng, the seventeenth king of the Shang. He reestablished the capital at Yin, in the neighborhood of present Xiaotuncun, in Anyang City of Henan Province. The new capital contributed a lot to the stable government of the Shang Dynasty afterwards. Once the successful new capital was established, it did not change throughout the remainder of the Shang Dynasty. Therefore, the Shang Dynasty is often called “the Yin” or “the Yin-Shang Dynasty”.

Another renowned Shang ruler was Wuding, the nephew of Pangeng. He was an aspirant and benevolent king and always endeavored to make his kingdom strong. Under his leadership, the empire of Shang made great achievements in its economy, which laid a foundation for the continuous development of following dynasties.

Paragraph 3

E 社会与经济 conomy and Society

From the findings on the site of Yin, the capital city of the Shang, archaeologists found out that the productivity of the Shang Dynasty reached a relatively high level even during the former period. As far as agriculture was concerned, farm implements had been improved. Stone ploughs, spades and sickles were widely used. The primary crops included millet and wheat. More important, the Shang Dynasty thrived in the manufacture of bronze vessels.

Bronze culture has appeared in China before 3 000 BC and achieved its zenith around the 13th century BC. Bronze objects affected not only people's daily life but the arms of the state. Its wide use enabled unprecedented accomplishments of the Shang Dynasty in politics, economy, culture and art. In the reign of King Wuding, the landmark was the appearance of an alloy of copper, lead and tin. Bronzeware was under mass production. They fell mainly into two classifications: cooking vessels and alcohol containers. Among them, the famous works of art include simuwu quadripod, which is

732.84kg in weight as the largest bronzeware ever found anywhere in the world. It was made in tribute to the deceased mother of Shang king. Another is a wine container that has four goats resting on its rim. The Shang Dynasty marked the coming of Bronze Age.

At the same time, great development came about in other industries as well. In handicraft, the operation went under much subtler division of labor. It was recorded that a hundred lines emerged in handicraft at that time. Shang craftsmen acquired the skill of inlaying and carving and had their jade wares, stone wares and ivory wares brilliantly decorated. Textile workers invented the simple jacquard loom, which could produce high-quality silk fabric with a hidden pattern. Additionally, the Shang people also made significant progress in medicine, transportation and astronomy. During this period, important events were recorded on tortoise shell and animal bone using Oracle Script, which is the oldest known Chinese form of written communication.

The tradition of ancestral worship has a long history in China. Archeologists have found it was practiced even in Prehistoric Times (1.7 million years to the 21st century BC). With the emergence of farming, people worshipped the heaven in hope of favorable weather for crops. It actually was a kind of nature worship. Another kind of worship was ancestor worship, also called soul worship. People offered sacrifice to their ancestor, praying for blessings bestowed by their ancestors. From the Xia Dynasty onwards, 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.

In the Shang Dynasty, slavery system prevailed. The aristocrats enjoyed all the luxuries while the slaves lived a dog's life. They belonged to their lord. After the slave owner died, the slaves were often buried alive as human sacrifice together with animal offerings.

Paragraph 4

A 农业 Agriculture

Despite being agriculturalist, the Shang had rather primitive implements. The productivity of the Shang Dynasty reached a relatively high level. As far as agriculture was concerned, farm implements had been improved. Stone ploughs, spades and sickles were widely used. The primary crops included millet and wheat. More important, the Shang Dynasty thrived in the manufacture of bronze vessels.

Paragraph 5

O 甲骨文 Oracle Bones

Oracle Bones is an ancient script carved on tortoise shells or animal bones. Having emerged during the Shang Dynasty (BC 1600—1000), Oracle Script is considered the oldest script in China.

During the Shang Dynasty, the ancients reckoned the natural elements as the exertion of some mystical power. When there were floods, drought, lightening and thunder, or some big events, like royal hunts, journeys and military campaigns, through divination, ancients would predict the future by “reading” the messages of nature. The divination performer first drilled holes on tortoise shell or a piece of bull scapula, then put it over fire. Since the shell or bone would crack irregularly under heat, the diviner could supposedly interpret these cracks as good or bad omen. All the dates and results of the divination were written down on the shells or animal bones, which became the earliest historical document with writing symbols.

In 1899, a mandarin of the Qing Dynasty (1644—1911 AD) found in his doctor's prescription a kind of medicine called dragon bone. 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

four 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.

Now, over 100 000 pieces of oracle shells or bones have been unearthed from the ruins of the Shang Dynasty at Anyang in Henan Province, which was the latter capital of Shang Dynasty 3 000 years ago. Though smaller in number, additional discoveries of oracle script in Shangcheng in the neighborhood of Zhengzhou offer valuable insights into the study of the Shang Dynasty.

Paragraph 6

B 牧野之战 Battle of Muye

The Battle of Muye (or Mu) (牧野之战) was fought in China in 1046 BC. The battle led to the end of the Shang dynasty, and the beginning of the Zhou dynasty. The Zhou dynasty marks the beginning of the feudal phase of Chinese history.

By the 13th century BC, Shang influence had reach what is now Gansu Province, a region that was occupied by a people known as the Zhou. King Wen (Ji Chang), the ruler of the Zhou, who was a Shang vassal, was given the title "Count of the West" by the king Di Xin of Shang. Di Xin used King Wen to guard his rear while he was involved in a south-eastern campaign. Shou Xin, fearing King Wen's growing power, imprisoned him. King Wen's son King Wu (Ji Fa) led the Zhou in a revolt.

King Wu led an army of 3 800 Shang defectors. Di Xin's army was much larger than Wu's. Seeing his army outnumbered, Wu instructed his troops to march in strict formation and advance slowly. The Shang began their attack in the morning, but the front rank was thrown into confusion, disordering those behind them. The Zhou were victorious and showed little mercy to the defeated Shang, shedding enough blood "to float a log". After the battle Di Xin committed suicide in his palace, leaving Wu master of most of the Huang He valley. Wu proclaimed the Zhou dynasty.



商汤讨伐夏桀

公元前16世纪,统治了中原四百多年的夏王朝已到了末日。夏朝最后一个国君名桀(jiè),是个典型的暴君。他残酷剥削压迫人民,过着荒淫奢侈的生活。

当时黄河下游有个叫商的部落,畜牧业发展得很快。到了汤做首领的时候,这个部落已经十分强大了。

汤是个既有才干、又有德行的首领,很想做一番事业。他听说妻子娘家有莘氏部落的伊尹,道德高尚,又有才能,是个贤人,就派使者带着礼物去请他出来做官,但被谢绝了。汤很有耐心,接连三次聘请伊尹,终于使他答应出山。汤请来了伊尹后,觉得他是个难得的人才,自己不敢用他,把他推荐给国君夏桀。夏桀荒淫无道,重用奸臣,驱逐贤才,根本没有心思治理国家。

伊尹非常失望,就回到了商汤的身边。商汤对伊尹的回来表示热烈欢迎,当即请他做自己的助手,大大小小的事都找他商量。

夏桀手下有个忠臣叫关龙逢(páng),他多次劝说夏桀不要一意孤行,否则会失去人心,丢掉江山。夏桀哪里听得进,有一次关龙逢又当众劝谏,他一怒之下,就把关龙逢给杀了。当时谁都不敢说一句话,而商汤知道后,却立即派人赶到京城哭祭关龙逢。夏桀非常震怒,下令把商汤抓来,关押在天牢里。

后来商汤被释放,在返回自己部落的途中,看到有人在张网捕捉禽鸟动物。那人一面张网,一面口中念念有词:“从天上飞来的,从地上跑来的,从四面八方冒出来的,都罩进我的网里去!”

商汤把那张网解开三面,只留下一面,也念诵道:“网里所有的生灵啊,你们想往左就往左,想往右就往右,想上天就上天,想入地就入地,不想出去的就留在网中。”

人们听说后,都赞颂道:“商汤的品行真是高尚啊!”

商汤看到夏桀越来越昏庸、暴虐,百姓的日子越来越难过,便下了推翻夏朝统治的决心。但在表面上,他还装作服从夏桀,暗中却加紧扩充势力。

夏桀迷信鬼神,十分重视祭祀天地祖宗,而紧邻商部落的葛部落(今河

南宁陵北)却不这样做。

商汤派人去责问葛部落的首领葛伯：“你们为什么不按时祭祀？”

葛伯回答：“我们这里穷，拿不出能当祭品的牲口。”

商汤便派人送了一批牛羊给葛部落当祭品。葛伯收下牛羊后，还是不举行祭祀典礼。

商汤又派人去责问葛伯：“已经给了你们牛羊，为什么还不举行祭祀？”

葛伯振振有辞地说：“我们没有粮食，怎么来祭祀呢？”

商汤又派一些年轻力壮的人帮葛部落耕种，还派一些年老体弱的人给在农田里劳动的人送饭。不料他们走到半路上，饭菜被葛伯的手下抢去，其中一人还被杀害了。

葛伯的行为激起了人们的公愤，商汤乘机发兵把葛部落消灭了。接着，商汤又陆续把夏的联盟韦（今河南滑县东南）、顾（今河南范县东南）、昆吾（今河南许昌东）等部落消灭了。经过十一次出征，商事实上已成为当时最强大的一个部落，但昏庸的夏桀并没有引起重视。

商汤就和伊尹商量，是否可以马上去讨伐夏桀。伊尹认为：“目前夏桀还有一定的实力，我们不妨先停止朝贡，看看他有什么反应。”

商汤接受伊尹的建议，停止向夏桀进贡。夏桀大发雷霆，下令九夷发兵进攻商部落。

伊尹对商汤说：“现在夷族还听从夏桀的指挥，我们不能轻举妄动。”

于是，商汤赶快向夏桀请罪，并马上恢复进贡。一年后，九夷中一些部落不堪忍受夏桀的欺压，纷纷叛离夏朝。伊尹又及时提醒商汤：“讨伐夏桀的时机到了。”

夏朝毕竟已经相传了四百年，要推翻它也不容易。商汤在出征前召集将士开了个誓师大会，分析了形势，对大家说：“不是我想反叛，实在是因为夏桀作恶多端，上天的意旨要我消灭他，我不敢不听从天命啊！”

商汤以上帝的名义来动员将士，其实将士们都恨不得夏桀早点灭亡，因此士气高涨，作战勇敢，一下子就把夏桀的军队打败了。夏桀一看大势已去，连忙向南方出逃。商汤乘胜追击，把夏桀流放在南巢（今安徽巢县西南）。

夏朝就这样灭亡了，取而代之的是商朝。

 Vocabulary
妙词连珠

Yin Ruins 殷墟	司母戊大方鼎
Bronze Age 青铜时代	bronze inscriptions 青铜铭文
patriarchal clan system 宗法制度	cruel 残酷
“nine squares” system 井田制	rebellion 起义
the system of rites and music	cruel and ferocious 残暴
礼乐制度	send armed forces to suppress 讨伐
the slave system of patriarchal clan	put down 镇压
宗法奴隶制	supreme 至高无上
fate and morality“天命”与“道德”	tangled warfare 混战
Oracle inscriptions on tortoise shell	praise 夸奖
and animal bones 甲骨卜辞	fight a battle 打仗
Grand Si Muwu Quadripod	punishment 刑罚



U 周朝

Unit 3 Zhou Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The slave society was in its prime around the period of the Western Zhou Dynasty when the system culture, material culture and spiritual culture highly developed.
西周是中国奴隶制社会发展的全盛期, 奴隶制的制度文化和物质、精神文化都得到了高度的发展。
2. As the Shang declined, the State of Zhou on the Loess Plateau in the west grew stronger and expanded eastwards.
在商朝日益衰微的时候, 来自西部黄土高原的周国却日益强盛, 势力不断向东扩张。
3. Duke Ji Chang of Zhou was extremely popular among the vassal states at the same time that King Zhou was hastening the Shang Dynasty to its end.
在商朝走向末日的时候, 周国的领袖姬昌却正在赢得越来越多的支持者。
4. Although Ji Chang died before the preparations to defeat Shang were set, Jiang Shang continued to assist his son Ji Fa.
姬昌在推翻商朝的统治之前就去世了, 姜尚继续辅佐他的儿子姬发。
5. It began its decline after the reign of King Zhao.
在周昭王以后, 周朝就开始走下坡路。
6. By the time of King Yi, the court of Zhou Dynasty had become so weak.
到了周夷王在位的时候, 周朝的衰微已经非常明显了。



7. King Yi's successor Li was rather greedy. He declared that all mountains and rivers belonged to the court, and placed a ban on hunting and fishing.

周夷王的继任者周厉王比较贪心,他宣布把山林水泽收归国有,不准老百姓染指。

8. Duke He of Gong, also a court official, took control of the court. This happened in 841 BC, the first year exactly dated in Chinese chronology.

大臣共伯和执掌朝政。共伯和开始执政那一年是公元前 841 年,这是中国历史有确切纪年的开始。

9. In 781 BC, King Li's grandson, King You, became the monarch of the Zhou Dynasty.

公元前 781 年,周厉王的孙子当上了周朝的君主,就是周幽王。

10. In 770 BC, King Ping moved the capital to the east, from Hao to Luoyi (present-day Luoyang, Henan province).

公元前 770 年,周平王把首都迁到了镐东边的洛邑(今河南洛阳)。

11. This year marked the beginning of the Eastern Zhou, the earlier period of the dynasty being the Western Zhou.

周朝也就以这一年为界划分为了西周和东周。

12. The patriarchal clan system in the Western Zhou Dynasty was the system of rites and music, which embodied the different social stratum of nobles through various over-elaborate formalities.

西周的宗法制度是礼乐制度,它通过各种繁缛的礼仪形式,把贵族间的等级差别体现出来。

13. The huge Yu Quadripod cast in the early Western Zhou Dynasty is 1 meter high and weighs 153.5 kilograms. The pot is beautifully shaped with 291 Chinese characters cast inside the pot. The decorative pattern looks elegant even from a technological point of view.

西周初年铸造的大盂鼎,高约 1 米,重约 153.5 千克,内铸铭文 291 字,通体造型优美、纹饰典雅,具有相当高的工艺水平。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

In the years around 10 th century BC, after defeating the last Shang (商朝) ruler, King Wu (武王) with a family name of Ji (姬) founded the Zhou Dynasty, making Haojing his capital city, near the present city of Xi'an in Shaanxi Province. As a semi-nomadic tribe, the Zhou learned how to communicate with people of different cultures and gain the allegiance of disaffected city-states.

The early Zhou system was proto-feudal, being a more sophisticated form of earlier tribal organization, in which effective control depended more on familial ties than on feudal legal bonds. Whatever feudal elements there may have been decreased as time went on. The Zhou amalgam of city-states became progressively centralized and established increasingly impersonal political and economic institutions. These developments, which probably occurred in the latter Zhou period, were manifested in greater central control over local governments.

The Zhou adopted much of the Shang lifestyle. In order to utilize the knowledge of the Shang artisans, they often imported Shang families or communities to the new towns they built. The Zhou also adopted much of the Shang writing system, rituals, and administration techniques. Agriculture in Zhou Dynasty was more intensive. All farming lands were owned by nobles, who then gave their land to their serfs, a piece of land was divided into nine squares in the shape of the character jing, with the grain from the middle square taken by the government and that of surrounding squares kept by individual farmers. This way, the government was able to store surplus food and distribute them in times of famine or bad harvest. Some important manufacturing sectors during this period include bronze making,



which was integral in making weapons and farming tools. Again, these industries were dominated by the nobility who direct the production of such materials.

Historians divide the Zhou era into Western Zhou from late 10th century BC to late 9th century up until 771 BC and Eastern Zhou from 770 up to 221 BC. The beginning year of Western Zhou has been disputed—1122 BC, 1027 BC and other years within the hundred years from late 12th century BC to late 11th century BC have been proposed. Chinese historians take 841 BC as the first year of consecutive annual dating of the history of China, based on the Records of the Grand Historian (史记) by Sima Qian (司马迁). From the beginning of the Eastern Zhou Dynasty to the unification by Qin, China was marked by disunity and continuous conflicts.

Paragraph 2

W西周 Western Zhou

After defeating the Shang, King Wu founded the Zhou Dynasty, making Haojing his capital city, near the present city of Xi'an in Shaanxi Province. Historians call this period Western Zhou Dynasty (the 11th century BC—771 BC).

The Zhou kings maintained control over their vassals for more than two centuries. Like the Shang, the Western Zhou achieved a flourishing age during its period of rule. However, as generations passed, vassal lords traded and sold land they had acquired from the Zhou kings. This gradual change in ownership created larger more profitable estates. In turn, this strengthened the position of the feudal lords giving them greater autonomy. As the Zhou kings were no longer the sole possessors of the land, the ties of kingship and vassalage inevitably weakened.

Added to this, although Zhou was the most powerful kingdom at the time, it actually didn't rule the whole of China, which then consisted of a number of quasi-independent principalities. During the reign of the Shang and Zhou dynasties, the central plains had reached the peak of the Bronze



Age while the neighboring regions lagged behind. In search of more wealth, the Western Zhou launched many wars against those kingdoms. At the same time, the Quanrong, an ancient ethnic group lived in the north-west, constantly harassed the Zhou, becoming the biggest threat to the Zhou Dynasty.

During his reign King You indulged Baosi, one of his concubines, and this engendered a power struggle within the kingdom. The Chinese idioms "A single smile costs one thousand pieces of gold" and "the sovereign rulers are fooled by the beacon fire" have been passed down to us from the King You's reign.

King You's neglect of duty finally led to the fall of the dynasty. In 771 BC when several of the vassals rebelled, the army of the Quanrong ethnic group took its chance, captured Haojing and killed King You. The Western Zhou Dynasty collapsed.

The next year, in 770 BC, King Ping moved the capital to Luoyi (now Luoyang City in Henan Province). This was the start of the Eastern Zhou Dynasty (770 BC—221 BC).

Paragraph 3

S西周的社会与经济 **Social and Economy**

The Western Zhou made a further achievement in social economy. Slaves were popularly exploited in pursuit of the production of greater surpluses, thereby creating wealth for their owners. Handcrafts progressed in this period and the bronze industry was especially important. Besides the bronze workshops controlled by the central government, the small kingdoms also had foundries of their own. Bronze products greatly increased in quality, quantity and variety so that their use covered nearly all aspects of life. The Western Zhou Chariot Burial Pit unearthed near Xi'an exemplifies the high technical standard of bronze production of this period.

The development of the bronze industry also promoted the prosperity of other industries. In agriculture, iron tools and the coupling-plough were

brought into use for the first time, this greatly enhanced productivity. Bazaars appeared in some larger towns, where silk, weapons, cattle as well as slaves were traded. In addition, script became more widely used. People not only engraved inscriptions on oracle bones, but also engraved epigraphs on thousands of bronze utensils, recording the social life of that time.

Paragraph 4

D 西周的衰落 **e** cline of Western Zhou

After the death of King Wu, the Duke of Zhou was in Charge of state affairs for seven years until King Cheng came of age. The four decades under King Cheng and his son King Kang were marked by political stability and economic prosperity.

Under the next rulers, King Zhao and King Mu, the strength of the dynasty was at its height and wars were fought against the peoples of the surrounding areas. These conflicts intensified with the Zhou side enjoying the initiative. King Mu, powerful and ambitious, is said to have toured the regions far out in the west.

After King Mu and throughout the reigns of King Gong, King Yi, King Xiao, King Yi and King Li, the prestige of the dynasty gradually declined and contradictions between the royal house and the people began to surface. King Li exploited the capital residents or freemen more mercilessly than ever and that roused general opposition. His ministers advised him to stop his oppression, but he refused to listen. Instead, he suppressed all public discussion. His tyranny continued for three years; then the capital residents could no longer tolerate it and rose in armed revolt. They attacked the royal palace and forced the king to flee. Then they surrounded the residence of the Duke of Shao where they had heard that Prince Jing, heir to the throne, was hiding. The Duke made his own son take the place of the prince, thus saving the heir who later became King Xuan.

After King Li had fled, the Duke of Zhou and the Duke of Shao, de-

scendants of the two mentioned earlier, took charge of the government; this period was called the Gonghe. One account says that the man in power was Duke He of the state of Gong, hence the name Gonghe. The first year of Gonghe was 841 B. C. From that year on, we have accurate dates of recorded Chinese history.

King Li died in Zhi (now Huoxian in Shanxi) 14 years after his flight. The Dukes of Zhou and Shao had Prince Jing enthroned as King Xuan. In the first years of his rule severe droughts occurred, but they did not develop into a serious situation. Later King Xuan carried out wars against some neighbouring tribes and states and won some victories, but was defeated in wars against the Jiang Rong tribe and against the Tiao Rong and the Ben Rong tribes. For a time during King Xuan's Reign there were signs of prosperity. But the contradictions between the Zhou state and the neighbouring peoples and the social contradictions 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. As the Book of Odes pointed out: "Some people leisurely stay at home, some work untiringly for the country, some lie in bed doing nothing, some always have to go to war, some drink and make merry, some are fearful of meeting disaster, some talk nonsense or gossip, some have to do all kinds of work." The struggles between big and small slave owners became sharper with the small slave-owners complaining: "People have land, you take it away; people own slaves, you seize them!" Uninterrupted famine and severe earthquakes compelled people to leave their homes and wander about. Those who were politically sharp used the earthquakes as a pretext to warn that "high cliffs may turn into deep valleys, while valleys may become hills and mountains." The Zhou Dynasty faced a crisis.

During King You's reign the neighbouring people made continuous attacks. He dismissed Queen Shen and the crown prince Yi Jiu and made his favourite concubine Bao Si queen and her son heir to the throne. Marquis

Shen, father of Queen Shen, attacked the king in collaboration with the Quan Rong tribe and Lu, Zeng and other states. As the vassals refused to send him reinforcements, King You was killed at the foot of Mount Li. The capital was sacked and its treasures plundered. Under the threat of the Quan Rong and their allies, the Zhou ruler had lost control of 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 vassals. From this year the dynasty is known as Eastern Zhou. The dynasty's power and prestige had declined sharply, and history entered a new stage.

Paragraph 5

E东周 Eastern Zhou

In its early days, the Western Zhou Dynasty (The 11th century BC to 771 BC) was sufficiently powerful to be able to control the vassal states. In particular the states were prevented from fighting each other in order to annex their neighbors. However, from the time that King Ping moved his court to Luoyi (now the city of Luoyang in Henan Province) establishing the Eastern Zhou Dynasty, the Zhou influence went into decline. Although the king retained his position as nominal overlord he was no longer able to control the activities of his vassals. Economic imbalance meant some states were stronger than others. In turn this led to the stronger states declaring war on the weaker ones and annexing them regardless of the prohibition of such activity by the Zhou.

So, from the beginning of the Eastern Zhou Dynasty to the unification by Qin, China was marked by disunity and continuous conflicts. Historically, this is recorded as two periods: the Spring and Autumn Period (770 BC—476 BC) and the Warring States Period (476 BC—221 BC).



西周青铜工业的发展

在西周官府手工业中,最为重要的仍然是青铜工业。早期铜器的分布地点,除了丰、镐和成周外,各地的诸侯国大概也都有铸造。已经发现的西周早期最大铜器如“大盂鼎”,虽然没有商代“司母戊鼎”大,但这时发现的青铜器总量却超过了商代晚期。可见,西周早期的青铜工业有了一定程度的发展。西周中期以后的铜器出土数量则超过了早期,例如在长安、扶风、岐山等地历年来发现了多批窖藏铜器,一窖少则四五十件,多则百余件,其中大部分是属于这一时期的。又如,河南三门峡虢国墓地,出土铜器竟达181件,其他大宗的工具、武器、车马等器物,更不下五千件。其数量之多,说明了那时生产规模的扩大。商代铜器中以酒器的门类最为丰富,西周时代则着重于饪食器。西周铜器的主体是鼎、鬲、甗、和、簠。我们说周人减少了酒器的铸造,并不是禁绝饮酒,不过是有了节制而已。西周中晚期的青铜酒器主要是壶和盃。西周晚期青铜酒器非常少见,如爵,改变了形状,成了有柄的圈足小杯,觚也降低了高度成了有把手或双把手的杯形器。与铜器的形制相适应,西周时代铜器艺术装饰的题材和风格,与商代大体相同,也有浓厚的民族特色。这种铜器装饰题材的独特的内容和风格,以及极为别致的装饰方法,完全说明了商周的铜器艺术是在中国的土地上生产和发展起来的。再从铸造技术看,这时已经摆脱了商代的铸铜工艺,发明了一模翻制数范的方法。例如虢国墓出土的鬲、簠、壶等器,和其他地区西周中晚期常见的同类器物,往往都是采用这种方法铸造的。在虢国墓中还发现有三面铜镜,这表明在当时的青铜工业中不仅有礼器、武器,而且有了生活用品。



battle 战役

establish a capital 定都

retreat 退让

resourcefulness 智谋

accomplishment 作为

weakness 弱点

disperse 分散

decisive battle 决战

great ambitions 雄心壮志

morale 斗志

good faith 信义

Maogong Quadipot 毛公鼎

situation 局势

surrender 投降

enrage 激怒

penalize 惩处

revenge 报仇

entrust 托付

U 春秋战国时期

Unit 4 The Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. From the Spring and Autumn Period, China entered the Iron Age.
自春秋始, 中国社会进入铁器时代。
2. The period of the Warring States Period was the period of establishment of feudal system.
战国时代是中国历史上封建制度确立的时期。
3. The cultural significance during the Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period lay in the unity of different peoples and the formation of the main body of the Chinese people—Huaxia nationality.
春秋战国的一个重要的文化现象是民族的融合和主体民族华夏族的形成。
4. The major events in the history of the ancient Chinese culture included the emergence of Confucian school in the Spring and Autumn Period and the contention of numerous schools of thoughts in the Warring States Period.
在文化史上值得大书特书的历史事件是春秋时期儒家学派的产生和战国时期百家争鸣局面的出现。
5. The Eastern Zhou is better known as the Spring and Autumn Period (770—476 BC) and the Warring States Period (475—221 BC).
通常人们更倾向于把东周称为春秋战国时期。

6. Before Ji Fa overthrew the Shang Dynasty, the State of Zhou had begun to give land to vassals.
在姬发灭商之前,周国就已经开始分封诸侯。
7. Contrary to the political and social disorder, culture flourished during the Autumn and Spring and the Warring States periods.
春秋战国在文化意义上却实在是一个辉煌的时代。
8. During this periods the greatest of Chinese thinkers and philosophers lived, including Confucius, Lao Zi, Zhuang Zi, and Mencius. Their philosophies are still an invaluable treasure of the people of China and of the world.
这时期中国出现了孔子、老子、庄子、孟子等一大批哲人,他们的思想至今仍是 中国乃至全世界人民的宝贵财富。
9. The vassal states began to fight for their own interests, and order gave way to chaos.
诸侯国为各自的利益混战不休,国家变得毫无秩序。
10. As the Zhou court was unable to control the situation, the leaders of the strong vassal states stood up to restore and maintain temporary order. These were the super-states.
积弱的周王室无力改变这种局面,于是便有强大的诸侯国作为诸侯的领袖来规范诸侯间的关系,维持暂时的安定团结,这样的诸侯领袖就是霸主。
11. After defeating the State of Chu, a formidable rival, in 632 BC, Duke Wen called a meeting of vassal states at Jiantu (southwest of present-day Yuanyang county, Henan province), at which he commanded acceptance of his status as a super-duke.
公元前 632 年,在打败强大的楚国之后,晋文公召集各诸侯国在践土(今河南原阳县西南)开会,确立了霸主的地位。
12. In 613 BC, Duke Zhuang came to power in the State of Chu.
公元前 613 年,楚庄王即位。
13. Chu was the largest in territory, having annexed 12 vassal states.
楚国先后兼并了 12 个诸侯国,是当时疆域最大的国家。

14. Annexation through endless war had reduced the number of states from a hundred or so states in the Spring and Autumn Period to no more than a dozen by the early warring States Period.

春秋时代的中国有一百多个诸侯国,经过连年的兼并战争,到战国初年就只剩下了十几个。

15. The most influential were the seven super-states of Qin, Qi, Chu, Yan, Zhao, Wei and Han.

而其中真正能影响中国局势的只有秦、齐、楚、燕、赵、魏、韩七个大国。

16. Of these Big Seven only one was in the Yangtze Valley. It was the State of Chu that, interestingly enough, was not only the largest but also the most economically developed.

战国七雄之一的楚国在长江流域。有趣的是楚国不但在七雄之中疆域最为宽广,而且经济最为发达,国力最为强大。

17. The seven states kept allying or fighting with one another to realize their political ambitions. The result would inevitably be the unification of China.

这七个强国为了各自的政治野心不停地结盟和开战,中国的最终统一已经是大势所趋。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

S 春秋时期 Spring and Autumn Period (770BC - 476BC)

Marked by overlord politics, this period was named after the book Spring and Autumn Annals (the history of Lu) adapted by Confucius.

After the eastward move of King Ping, some vassal states progressed in social economy. They became stronger while the royal authority took a nose dive, gradually losing its control over them.

During the Spring and Autumn Period, there were over 150 kingdoms coexisting with Zhou, among them Qi, Lu, Jin, Yan, Qin, Chu, Wu, Yue, etc were the stronger. These powerful states, relying on their military and economic advantages, launched wars to expand their territories, forcing small states follow them so as to establish their dominance as overlords.

In the early to middle stage of the Spring and Autumn Period, five dukes, namely Huangong of the Qi state, Xianggong of the Song, Wen-gong of the Jin, Mugong of the Qin and Zhuangwang of the Chu, once fought for the “overlordship”, known as the “the Five Overlords of the Spring and Autumn Period”, in which Huangong of Qi was the first one to establish his hegemony by advocating “respect the king and repulse the alien tribes.”

Continuous wars brought enormous balefulness to the people giving rise to wide opposition in the small states. Finally, in 579 BC and 546 BC, two treaties were made between Jin and Chu kingdoms, resulting in a short peace in the Central Plains.

In the epilogue to the struggle to become overlord of the Central Plains, Wu and Yue, two kingdoms located in the downstream area of the Yangtze River, rose up. Firstly defeated by the kingdom of Wu, Goujian, the king of Yue, applied himself to the development of agriculture and training his army. He finally got an opportunity to conquer the Wu and became the last overlord during the Spring and Autumn Period.

According to historical records, during this period, a total of thirty-six kings were killed and fifty-two vassal states were demolished.

This constant conflict and annexation of one state by another during the Spring and Autumn Period hastened social and economic change and had the effect of integrating people of different tribes and nationalities.

The consequence of this period of drastic upheavals, reshufflings and regroupings, what had been several hundred states were reconstituted into seven mega-states. China entered the Warring States Period.

Paragraph 2

B城濮之战 attle of Chengpu

During the Spring and Autumn Period, there was a conflict between the states of Jin against Chu and its allies in China in 632 BC, which is called the Battle of Chengpu. The Jin victory confirmed the hegemony of Duke Wen of Jin and checked Chu ambitions in the north for at least a generation.

The Battle of Chengpu is probably the biggest of the Spring and Autumn Period and definitely the most detailed in the Zuo Zhuan (左传). It could be viewed as the first great battle in the protracted conflict between the states of the Yellow River valley, and the states of the Yangtze River valley.

Paragraph 3

W战国时期 arring States Period(476BC - 221 BC)

After long-term wars, seven kingdoms, namely Qi, Chu, Yan, Han, Zhao, Wei and Qin, appeared as the most powerful states in this period, known as the "Seven Overlords" in history. To expand their forces and territories, the seven overlords, on the one hand, carried out reforms in their own states to strengthen themselves and, on the other, were warring against each other and scheming to annex other states, which gave rise to the situation of seven powerful states existing side by side and struggling against each other.

Qin, situated in the remote west, used to be a vassal state enfeoffed by King Ping for Qin Xianggong's contribution of escorting the king on his move east. During the Spring and Autumn Period, Qin Mugong annexed twelve states, largely expanding his territory, making himself an overlord. During the Warring States Period, Qin, because of its outlying position, was more backward than the states in the Central Plains.

When Qin Xiaogong was in power, Shangyang, an aristocratic descendant of the Wei kingdom, was entrusted by the monarch to carry out a series of reforms in 359 BC and 350 BC to strengthen the power of Qin. Shangyang's reforms include abolishing the outdated well-field system, legalizing the private ownership of land, canceling the hereditary system of rank and initiating a county system.

In addition, Qin also paid attention to the development of agriculture. Around 250 BC, Libing, a governor of Shu prefecture (present Sichuan Province), together with his son, directed the construction of Dujiangyan Irrigation Project, which not only controlled flooding but also irrigated the whole Chengdu Plain.

Qin, based on the reforms and improvements, quickly became a powerful state, laying a solid foundation for the future unification of China by Emperor Qin Shi Huang.

At the end of Warring States, the royal house of Eastern Zhou existed in name only. In 256 BC, Qin dispatched army and defeated the Eastern Zhou Dynasty. Before long, after King Yingzheng succeeded to the throne, he expedited his project of annexation and finally in 221 BC united China and established a unified, multi-national, autocratic and power-centralized state, putting an end to the Warring States Period.

At the end of Western Han Dynasty (206 BC—24 AD), Liu Xiang, based on the information about this period, compiled a book and named it the History of Warring States according to the character of this period. Later generations then named this chaotic era the Warring States Period.

Paragraph 4

T百家争鸣 The Contention of a Hundred Schools of Thought

As an era of great cultural and intellectual expansion in China, the Hundred Schools of Thought (诸子百家) lasted from 770 BC to 222 BC. Known as the Golden Age of Chinese thought and the Contention of a Hundred Schools of Thought (百家争鸣), the period saw the rise of many dif-

ferent schools of thought. Many of the great Chinese classic texts that originated during this period have had profound influences on Chinese lifestyle and social consciousness lasting to the present day. The intellectual society of this era was characterized by itinerant intellectuals, who were usually employed by various state rulers as advisers on the methods of government, war, and diplomacy.

Confucianism (儒家思想) is the body of thought that has arguably had the most enduring effect on Chinese life. Also known as the School of the Scholars, its written legacy lies in the Confucian Classics, which later became the foundation of the traditional society. The representative of this thought is Confucius (孔子), he believed that the only effective system of government necessitated prescribed relationships for each individual: "Let the ruler be a ruler and the subject a subject." Furthermore, he contended that a king must be virtuous in order to rule properly.

Mencius (孟子) was a Confucian disciple who made major contributions to the spread of humanism in Confucian thought, declaring that man, by nature, was inherently good. He argued that a ruler could not govern without the people's tacit consent, and that the penalty for unpopular, despotic rule was the loss of the "mandate of heaven".

Another Confucian follower was Xun Zi (荀子) who preached that man is innately selfish and evil, he asserted that goodness is attainable only through education and conduct befitting one's status. He also argued that the best form of government is one based on authoritarian control, and that ethics is irrelevant in the context of effective rule.

Legalism (法家思想) greatly influenced the philosophical basis for the imperial form of government. During the Han Dynasty, the most practical elements of Confucianism and Legalism were taken to form a sort of synthesis, marking the creation of a new form of government that would remain largely intact until the late 19th century.

As the second most significant stream of Chinese thought, the Zhou period also saw the development of Taoism (道家思想). Its formulation is often attributed to the legendary sage Lao Zi (老子) and Zhuang Zi (庄

子)。The focus of Taoism is on the individual within the natural realm rather than the individual within society; according to Taoism, the goal of life for each individual is to seek to adjust oneself and adapt to the rhythm of the natural world, to follow the Way of the universe, to live in harmony.

The school of Mohism (墨家思想) was founded upon the doctrine of Mozi (墨子). Though the school did not survive through the Qin Dynasty, Mohism was seen as a major rival of Confucianism in the period of the Hundred Schools of Thought. Its philosophy rested on the idea of universal love; Mozi believed that “all men are equal before heaven”, and that mankind should seek to imitate heaven by engaging in the practice of collective love. His epistemology can be regarded as primitive materialist empiricism; he believed that our cognition ought to be based on our perceptions—our sensory experiences, such as sight and hearing—instead of imagination or internal logic, elements founded on our capacity for abstraction.

In a word, the scene of “contention of a hundred schools of thought” brought forth in the Spring and Autumn Period 2 500 years ago and the Warring States Period over 2 200 years ago and the emergence of various schools of thought and their exponents such as Lao Zi and Confucius about 2 400 years ago all occupy a very important position in the world history of philosophy.

Paragraph 5

P 商鞅变法 Political Reforms of Shang Yang

Lord Shang Yang introduced two political reforms to the state of Qin in the Warring States Period (475—221BC).

Shang Yang was born in an aristocrat family in the state of Wei. In 356BC, he was appointed governor to introduce the first political reform to reward farming and weaving, abolish hereditary privileges of the nobility and encourage farming and fighting for the country, set up a unitary administrative system down to household registration at the grass roots.

Shang Yang carried the reform in strict terms and when the son of the king violated laws, his teacher got punished. In such a way he told people to be law-abiding, and political reform achieved great success. The first reform brought rapid development to the state of Qin. Two years later, the capital was shifted to Xianyang and the second political reform was then introduced to establish the political system of county in which the State of Qin was divided into 31 counties, to abolish the nine-square system and make land private, and unify weights and measures, thus laying the foundations for the state of Qin to become strong and eventually unify China for the first time in history.

Paragraph 6

B长平之战 Battle of Changping

During the Warring States Period (战国时期), the Battle of Changping (长平之战) broke out in 260 BC, which results in a decisive victory of the state of Qin (秦国) over Zhao.

In 257 BC, the Qin invaded the Han. Responding to the Han call for help, the Zhao king decided to send Lian Po (廉颇) to deal with the threat. The two armies met at Changping, situated in the Northern part of the Han lands. On one side was the Qin army, led by renowned General Bai Qi, on the other was the Zhao army led by Lian Po. Lian Po, after looking over the Qin formations, decided that the only way to stop their attack was to wait it out. Thus he built several fortresses and camped there, waiting for the opposing army to go away or a peace treaty to be concluded by the Han and the Qin.

The Qin had no intention of leaving. They sent spies to the state of Zhao and Han, ordering them to spread the word that Lian Po was cowardly and was too old to fight battles. The king, upon hearing this, immediately decided to remove Lian Po and replace him with Zhao Kuo, the son of another famous Zhao general, Zhao She.

Legend has it that on his deathbed, Zhao She told his wife never to let

Zhao Kuo command an army. So Zhao She's wife, after hearing of Zhao Kuo's appointment as general, went up to the King of Zhao and tried to persuade him not to let Zhao Kuo command an army, along with the minister, Lin Xiangru. The king turned their requests down.

When Zhao Kuo assumed command, he ordered the army to launch an invasion of the Qin camp. The Qin were already lying in wait for them and the Zhao forces were eventually driven up a hill, which the Qin then besieged for 40 days. At last, driven mad by hunger and thirst, the Zhao forces made a desperate charge down the hill, with Zhao Kuo leading. He was shot down by Qin archers.

The troops of Zhao were routed. Legends accounted for more than four hundred thousand Zhao prisoners of war massacred but such grossly overestimated number has been disputed.

With this victory, Qin had established military superiority over other states. More campaigns and battles ensued, especially in the conquest of the state of Chu. Nevertheless no matter how bloody these military operations would be, Qin's final victory was guaranteed.

Paragraph 7

C 先秦的儒家思想 Confucianism in the Pre-Qin Period

The Confucian School was founded by Confucius in the Pre-Qin Period, which was later developed by Mencius and Xun Zi, and became one of the most influential schools of thought of the time. The greatest advantage of Confucian studies lies in its reliance on traditional Chinese culture represented by The Five Classics, thus manifesting the characteristics of "classical culture". The Five Classics were the yeast of the thoughts of the Confucian School, which centered upon their explanation and interpretation, changing and renewing its theories with the times. Another characteristic feature of Confucianism is its keen understanding of the nature of the patriarchal society in ancient China, and the defense of this patriarchal culture then. That is why Confucianism has become a theoretical system which best reflects

the actual conditions in China. In other words, that is the vitality of Confucianism.

Paragraph 8

T 先秦的道家思想 Taoism in the Pre-Qin Period

Taoism, also known as Daoism, was founded by Lao Zi in the Pre-Qin Period, and developed into many schools, the most important of which were represented by Zhuang Zi and Huang-Lao (short for Huangdi and Lao Zi) respectively. Guo Moruo (1892—1978), a famous historian, pointed out in his book *Ten Criticisms* that all Taoist schools regarded Tao or Dao, meaning “the Way”, as the noumenon of the cosmos. This means Taoism comes from the word dao, and the thoughts on dao constitute the core of the Taoist philosophy. Tao, which refers to the integration of the noumenon and rules of the cosmos, is characterized by its deep abstraction and universal significance. Because of all this, Taoism is a doctrine, dwelling on the past and the present, covering Heaven and Man, and renowned for its tolerance and plasticity. As a result, more and more schools came into existence, which became an important source of ancient Chinese thinking.



Cultural Links

文化链接

一鸣惊人的楚庄王

秦国打败晋国以后，一连十几年两国没有发生战事。可是南方的楚国却一天比一天强大，一心要跟中原的霸主晋国争夺地位。

公元前613年，楚成王的孙子楚庄王新即位，做了国君。晋国趁这个机会，把几个一向归附楚国的国家又拉了过去，订立了盟约。楚国的大臣们很不服气，都向楚庄王提出要他出兵争霸权。

无奈楚庄王不听那一套，白天打猎，晚上喝酒，听音乐，什么国家大事，全不放在心上，就这样窝窝囊囊地过了三年。他知道大臣们对他的作为很不满意，还下了一道命令：谁要是敢劝谏，就判谁的死罪。

有个名叫伍举的大臣,实在看不过去,决心去见楚庄王。楚庄王正在那里寻欢作乐,听到伍举要见他,就把伍举召到面前,问:“你来干什么?”

伍举说:“有人让我猜个谜儿,我猜不着。大王是个聪明人,请您猜猜吧。”楚庄王听说要他猜谜儿,觉得怪有意思,就笑着说:“你说出来听听。”

伍举说:“楚国山上,有一只大鸟,身披五彩,样子挺神气。可是一停三年,不飞也不叫,这是什么鸟?”

楚庄王心里明白伍举说的是谁。他说:“这可不是普通的鸟。这种鸟,不飞则已,一飞将要冲天;不鸣则已,一鸣将要惊人。你去吧,我已经明白了。”

过了一段时期,另一个大臣苏从看看楚庄王没有动静,又去劝说楚庄王。楚庄王问他:“你难道不知道我下的禁令吗?”

苏从说:“我知道。只要大王能够听我的意见,我就是触犯了禁令,被判了死罪,也是心甘情愿的。”

楚庄王高兴地说:“你们都是真心为了国家好,我哪会不明白呢?”

打这以后,楚庄王决心改革政治,把一批奉承拍马的人撤了职,把敢于进谏的伍举、苏从提拔起来,帮助他处理国家大事;一面制造武器,操练兵马。当年,就收服了南方许多部落。第六年,打败了宋国。第八年,又打败了陆浑(在今河南嵩县东北)的戎族,一直打到周都洛邑附近。

为了显示楚国的兵威,楚庄王在洛邑的郊外举行一次大检阅。

这一来,可把那个挂名的周天子吓坏了。他派一个大臣王孙满到郊外去慰劳楚军。

楚庄王和王孙满交谈的时候,楚庄王问起周王宫里藏着的九鼎大小轻重怎么样。九鼎是象征周王室权威的礼器。楚庄王问起九鼎,就是表示他有夺取周天子权力的野心。

王孙满是个善于应付的人。他劝说楚庄王:国家的强盛,主要靠德行服人,不必去打听鼎的轻重。楚庄王自己知道当时还没有灭掉周朝的条件,也就带兵回国了。

以后,楚庄王又请了一位楚国有名的隐士孙叔敖当令尹(楚国的国相)。孙叔敖当了令尹以后,开垦荒地,挖掘河道,奖励生产。为了免除水灾旱灾,他还组织楚国人开辟河道,能灌溉成百万亩庄稼,每年多打了不少粮食。没几年工夫,楚国更加强大起来,先后平定了郑国和陈国的两次内乱,终于和中原霸主晋国冲突起来。

公元前 597 年,楚庄王率领大军攻打郑国,晋国派兵救郑。在邲地(今河南郑州市东)和楚国发生了一次大战。晋国从来没有打过这么惨的败仗,人马死了一半,另一半逃到黄河边。船少人多,兵士争着渡河,许多人被挤到水里去了。掉到水里的人往船上爬,船上的兵士怕翻船,拿刀把往船上爬的兵士手指头都砍了下来。

有人劝楚庄王追上去,把晋军赶尽杀绝。楚庄王说:“楚国自从城濮失败以来,一直抬不起头来。这回打了这么大的胜仗,总算洗刷了以前的耻辱,何必多杀人呢?”

说着,立即下令收兵,让晋国的残兵逃了回去。

打那以后,这个一鸣惊人的楚庄王就成了霸主。

从齐桓公、晋文公、宋襄公、秦穆公到楚庄王,前前后后总共五个霸主。历史上通常称他们是“春秋五霸”。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Culture in the Spring and Autumn Period and the Warring States Period 春秋战国文化	Military Strategists 兵家
Iron Age 铁器时代	Taoist 道家
Huaxia nationality 华夏民族	Legists 法家
Confucian school 儒家学派	Logicians 名家
benevolence and rites “仁”与“礼”	Yin and Yang 阴阳家
schools of Mohist 墨家	Agriculturalists 农家
	Political Strategists 纵横家

3

秦汉时期

The Qin and Han Dynasty

U

秦朝

Unit 1

Qin Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. In 221 B. C. , Ying Zheng, ruler of the State of Qin and a man of great talent and bold vision, ended the 250—odd years of rivalry among the independent principalities during the Warring States Period, and established the first centralized, unified, multi-ethnic feudal state in Chinese history — the Qin Dynasty (221—206 B. C.).
公元前 221 年,秦始皇嬴政结束了长达 250 多年诸侯纷争的战国时期,建立了中国历史上第一个统一的、中央集权的多民族封建国家——秦。
2. The foundation of a unitary multinational country accelerated the birth of the unitary national spiritual culture.
统一的多民族国家的建立,促进了统一的民族精神文化的产生。
3. At the beginning of the Qin Dynasty, the ruler established a uniform national culture.
秦朝建立伊始,建立统一的民族文化的任务摆在了统治者面前。
4. He standardized the written script, weights and measures, and currencies, and established the system of prefectures and counties.
秦始皇统一了文字,统一了度量衡,统一了货币,建立了郡县制度。



5. The sovereigns of the next 2 000—odd years followed the feudal governmental structure established by him.
由他奠定的封建国家框架在以后的 2 000 多年中一直被人们沿用着。
6. He mobilized more than 300 000 people over a period of a dozen years to build the Great Wall, which stretches for 5 000 km in northern China.
他在十几年的时间里组织 30 多万人在中国北部修建了绵延 5000 公里的长城。
7. Qin Shi Huang had the work on his enormous mausoleum started early in his reign.
他生前就开始修筑庞大的坟墓。
8. Qin had begun to attain power and prosperity since the reforms carried out by Shang Yang. It maintained the ascending momentum over the next hundred years or so.
秦国从商鞅变法开始走上了富强的道路,此后的一百多年中一直在发展壮大。
9. Qin was the first feudal dynasty in Chinese history.
秦朝是中国历史上第一个封建王朝。
10. In addition to pulling together all the states into a unified country, the First Emperor extended the country's territory to include the southwestern regions inhabited by minority nationalities, as well as coastal areas to the southeast. For the first time in history, China became a unified country of different peoples.
秦始皇不仅统一了六国疆土,还把西南少数民族地区和东南沿海地区也纳入了秦朝的版图,中国历史上第一次有了一个幅员辽阔的统一的多民族国家。
11. Unification of the country freed the people of incessant wars. The despotic rule of the emperor, however, plunged them into another abyss of suffering.

秦朝的建立使中国人民暂时脱离了连年战乱的苦海,但秦的暴虐统治又把他们投入到了新的苦难当中。

12. The First Emperor died during an inspection tour in the 7th month of 209 BC.

公元前 209 年 7 月,秦始皇在巡游途中去世。

13. His second son usurped the throne to become the Second Emperor.

他的二儿子篡得了皇位,是为秦二世。

14. In 209 BC, not long after the First Emperor's death, the first peasant uprising in Chinese history broke out.

公元前 209 年,就在秦始皇死后不久,中国历史上第一次农民起义爆发了。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

Much of what came to constitute China Proper was unified for the first time in 221 B. C. In that year the western frontier state of Qin, the most aggressive of the Warring States, subjugated the last of its rival states. (Qin in Wade-Giles romanization is Ch'in, from which the English China probably derived.) Once the king of Qin consolidated his power, he took the title Shi Huangdi (First Emperor), a formulation previously reserved for deities and the mythological sage-emperors, and imposed Qin's centralized, nonhereditary bureaucratic system on his new empire. In subjugating the six other major states of Eastern Zhou, the Qin kings had relied heavily on Legalist scholar-advisers. Centralization, achieved by ruthless methods, was focused on standardizing legal codes and bureaucratic procedures, the forms of writing and coinage, and the pattern of thought and scholarship. To si-

lence criticism of imperial rule, the kings banished or put to death many dissenting Confucian scholars and confiscated and burned their books. Qin aggrandizement was aided by frequent military expeditions pushing forward the frontiers in the north and south. To fend off barbarian intrusion, the fortification walls built by the various warring states were connected to make a 5 000—kilometer-long great wall. What is commonly referred to as the Great Wall is actually four great walls rebuilt or extended during the Western Han, Sui, Jin, and Ming periods, rather than a single, continuous wall. At its extremities, the Great Wall reaches from northeastern Heilongjiang Province to northwestern Gansu. A number of public works projects were also undertaken to consolidate and strengthen imperial rule. These activities required enormous levies of manpower and resources, not to mention repressive measures. Revolts broke out as soon as the first Qin emperor died in 210 B. C. His dynasty was extinguished less than twenty years after its triumph. The imperial system initiated during the Qin dynasty, however, set a pattern that was developed over the next two millennia.

Paragraph 2

T秦的暴政 **he Despotic Rule of Qin**

The First Emperor not only unified the country's territory, he also unified the laws, the written language, currency, and a system of weights and measurements. The writ of the Qin Empire spread far and wide, giving rise to its international name "China", which was a transliteration of "Qin". Unification of the country freed the people of incessant wars. The despotic rule of the emperor, however, plunged them into another abyss of suffering.

Qin law was harsh and merciless, embodied by many gruesome punishments. The death penalty could be carried out by tearing apart the convict alive by tying his four limbs and head to five wagons pulling in five directions, or slashing him into halves by the waist, cutting open his belly, or boiling him in a big pot, etc. Other punishments included the cutting off of a foot, a nose, or the inscription and inking of marks on the face, etc. Even



petty mistakes could bring on severe punishment. Also, when a man got into trouble, his family, friends, and colleagues could all be incriminated. As the First Emperor believed only in power politics, his ministers vied to cater to his whims by wantonly meting out punishment. Harsh laws and cruel officials made life near impossible for the people.

The terracotta warriors and horses in the tomb of the First Emperor and the Great Wall built on his orders are regarded as wonders of human civilization. They also stand as testimony to the sweat and blood shed by the builders. Research has shown that it would have taken two months for five to six people to construct each life-size terracotta soldier or horse. It boggles the imagination as to how many people had to toil for how long to produce the tens represent merely one of the numerous large-scale projects carried out during his reign. The population was about 20 million back then, with more than 2 million people subject to forced labor every year!

Moreover, the First Emperor did everything to control people's thinking. For instance, he ordered the burning of all books in 213 BC, with the exception of the few that were sanctioned by the government. The next year he ordered the killing of more than 460 Confucian scholars by burying them alive. These atrocities caused immeasurable damage to Chinese culture.

The First Emperor died during an inspection tour in the 7th month of 209 BC. His second son usurped the throne to become to Second Emperor. He imposed an even more barbarous rule. The people's dissent and anger were now brewing like the lava inside a volcano atop of which the dynasty stood.

Paragraph 3

S 秦二世 Second Emperor of Qin Dynasty

During his reign Qin Shi Huang made five inspection trips around the country. During the last trip with his second son Huhai (胡亥) in 210 BC, Qin Shi Huang died suddenly at Shaqiu prefecture. Huhai, under the advice of two high officials — the Imperial Secretariat Li Si (李斯) and the chief eu-



nuch Zhao Gao, forged and altered Emperor's will. The faked decree ordered Qin Shi Huang's first son, the heir Fusu (扶苏), to commit suicide, instead naming Huhai as the next emperor. The decree also stripped the command of troops from Marshal Meng Tian (蒙恬) — a faithful supporter of Fusu — and sentenced Meng's family to death. Zhao Gao step by step seized the power of Huhai, effectively making Huhai a puppet emperor.

Paragraph 4

B 焚书坑儒 Burning of Books and Burying of Scholars

1. Book burning

According to the Records of the Grand Historian, after the First Emperor of Qin annexed the State of Qi and unified China in 221 BC, his Chancellor Li Si suggested suppressing the freedom of speech, unifying all thoughts and political opinions. This was justified by accusations that the intelligentsia sang false praise and raised dissent through libel.

Beginning in 213 BC, all classic works of the Hundred Schools of Thought—except those from his own, the school of philosophy known as Legalism—were subject to burning.

Li Si proposed that all histories in the imperial archives except those written by the Qin historians be burned; that the Classic of Poetry, the Classic of History, and works by scholars of different schools be handed into the local authorities for burning; that anyone discussing these two particular books be executed; that those using ancient examples to satirize contemporary politics be put to death, along with their families; that authorities who failed to report cases that came to their attention were equally guilty; and that those who had not burned the listed books within 30 days of the decree were to be banished to the north as convicts working on building the Great Wall. The only books to be spared in the destruction were books on medicine, agriculture and divination.

2. Burial of the scholars

After being deceived by two alchemists while seeking prolonged life,



the First Emperor of Qin ordered more than 460 of them in the capital to be buried alive in the second year of the proscription, though an account given by Wei Hong in the 2nd century added another 700 to the figure. The Crown Prince Fusu counseled that, with the country newly unified, and enemies still not pacified, such a harsh measure imposed on those who respect Confucius would cause instability. However, he was unable to change his father's mind, and instead was sent to guard the frontier in a de facto exile.

The quick fall of the Qin Dynasty was attributed to this proscription. Confucianism was revived in the Han Dynasty that followed, and became the official ideology of the Chinese imperial state. However, many of the other schools of thought disappeared.

Paragraph 5

Q 秦长城 in Great Wall

After Qin Emperor Shihuang unified China, he sent forces led by general Meng Tian to suppress the Huns, and gained much land. In order to guard against the attacks from the Huns, Meng Tian led soldiers to build the world-renowned Great Wall.

In the Warring States Period (475—221BC), many states built the Great Wall as fortification. The states of Qin, Zhao and Yan all once built some sections to resist the Huns invasions. It was not until the Qin Dynasty (221—206BC) that Meng Tian connected the separate walls to form a defensive system on the northern border. It took about nine years to finish and the wall stretched from Lintao (in the eastern part of today's Gansu Province) in the west to Liaodong (in today's Jilin Province) in the east. The 5 000-kilometer-long wall not only served as a defense in the north but also symbolized the power of the emperor.

Further construction and extensions were made in the successive Han (206BC-220AD), Northern Wei (386—534), Northern Qi (550—577) and Sui (581—618) dynasties. And in terms of both length and quality, the lat-



er constructions were better than that made in Qin.

The present Great Wall in Beijing is mainly remains from the Ming Dynasty (1368—1644). During this period, bricks and granite were used when the workers laid the foundation of the wall and sophisticated designs and passes were built in the places of strategic importance. To strengthen the military control of the northern frontiers, the Ming authorities divided the Great Wall into nine zones and placed each under the control of a Zhen (garrison headquarters). The Ming Wall starts from Yalujiang River (in today's Heilongjiang Province), via today's Liaoning, Hebei, Inner Mongolia, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Ningxia, to Guansu. The total length reaches 12 700 li (over 5 000 kilometers). The Shanhaiguan Pass and the Jiayuguan Pass are two well-preserved passes at either end. Its height varied from 5 to 10 meters and watch houses were built every 130 meters. If enemies came to invade, hays blended with wolf shit was burn in the daytime, the smoke of which would rise very high so that sentinels could get the warn. At night, firewood combined with sulphur would make so bright a fire that sentinels miles away could get noticed.

We can see the remains of the Qin Wall today. Five miles to the northwest of Datong in Shanxi Province there is a purple wall whose name is Purple Pass. And ten kilometers west to the Minxian city in Gansu Province we can also find remains of the Qin Wall. The famous Badaling Great Wall we see today was built in the Ming Dynasty.

Paragraph 6

C 陈胜、吴广起义 Chen Sheng-Wu Guang Uprising

Chen Sheng-Wu Guang Uprising was the first large-scale peasant uprising in Chinese history, which led to the downfall of the Qin Dynasty (221—206BC).

In 210BC, Qin Emperor Shihuang died on his inspection travel. The eunuch Zhao Gao wrote a faked letter to Fusu in the name of the deceased emperor, ordering Fusu to commit suicide, and his younger brother Huhai,



the deceased emperor's favorite, was installed as Second Emperor. He was a cool-hearted and cruel ruler. In order to keep secret of Qin Emperor Shihuang's mausoleum, he plugged up the exit and killed all the workers in it. In his first year, rebellions of the old nobility and peasantry broke out.

In 209BC, Hu Hai, the Second Emperor, ordered 900 people in the Huaihe River region to Yuyang (today's Miyun in Beijing) to keep guard. It was July when it rained a lot. When people arrived in Dazexiang (south-west in today's Suxian County in Anhui Province), it began to rain cats and dogs; and they were bound to be late. According to the laws at that time, those who failed to observe deadlines would be sentenced to death. People had no other choice but to rise up in revolt.

Chen Sheng and Wu Guang were both from Henan Province. They led the peasants to attack and occupy finally the Chen County (today's Hengyang in Henan Province), and they established their own regime of Zhangchu. Then their army sent westward by Chen Sheng to fight against Qin army was defeated by Zhang Han. Later, Chen Sheng and Wu Guang were murdered by their subordination. And the rest of the army was surrendered to Liu Bang and Xiang Yu. In 206BC, the Qin Dynasty came to an infamous end and the glorious dynasty fell victim to the fear and mistrust bred by its own despotic excesses.

Paragraph 7

T 秦朝的灭亡 The End of Qin Dynasty

In the beginning of October 207 BC, Zhao Gao forced Huhai to commit suicide and replaced him with Fusu's son, Ziying (子婴). Note that the title of Ziying was "king of Qin" to reflect the fact that Qin no longer controlled the whole of China. The Chu-Han contention ensued. Ziying soon killed Zhao Gao and surrendered to Liu Bang (刘邦) in the beginning of December 207 BC. But Liu Bang was forced to hand over Xianyang and Ziying to Xiang Yu. Xiang Yu then killed Ziying and burned down the palace in the end of January 206 BC. Thus the Qin dynasty came to an end, three years



after the death of Qin Shi Huang, and less than twenty years after it was founded.

Although the Qin Dynasty was short-lived, its legalist rule had a deep impact on later dynasties in China. The imperial system initiated during the Qin dynasty set a pattern that was developed over the next two millennia.

Paragraph 8

C 楚汉之争 Chu-Han War

It refers to the war between Xiang Yu and Liu Bang.

After the collapse of the Qin Empire, the country fell apart again. A new round of power struggle broke out in 206 BC between two leaders of rebellion army.

One of the rivals was Xiang Yu, who was born in an aristocratic family of former Chu State in present Jiangsu Province. He received martial arts training from childhood and was versed in military matters. At the end of the Qin Dynasty (221—206 BC), he rose up and led his men to defeat the main body of Qin army, proclaimed himself King Of West Chu. The other was Liu Bang, who was also from present Jiangsu Province. It was his army who first broke into the Qin capital in 206 BC and abolished all the harsh laws set by the Qin, which help him won popularity among local people.

However, Liu Bang realized that he was inferior to Xiang Yu in military force. So when he felt the jealousy by Xiang Yu, he decided to beat a temporary retreat in Hanzhong in Shaanxi Province with the title King of Han authorized by Xiang Yu.

Liu Bang fostered his force secretly in Hanzhong. Soon he got a better hank over Xiang Yu. The tug of war lasted four years. Due to his blind arrogance and blindness to men of ability, Xiang Yu lost the battles at last and committed suicide at Wujiang River in present Anhui Province. Liu Bang became the founder of the Western Han Dynasty (206 BC—24 AD) in 206 BC, the second empire in imperial history after Qin.



秦朝简述

秦王嬴政当政以后,发动了大规模的兼并战争。

从公元前 230 年到公元前 221 年的 10 年间,秦国先后灭掉了韩、赵、魏、楚、燕、齐六国,统一了全国。

秦的统一,结束了长期以来诸侯割据称雄的局面,有利于人民的生活安定和社会生产的发展,符合当时各族人民的共同愿望。

秦朝的疆域,东到大海,西到陇西,北到长城一带,南到南海,大大超过了前代。

秦朝是中国历史上第一个统一的多民族的封建国家。

嬴政统一六国以后,以咸阳为都城,为建立封建主义中央集权制度,巩固统一,采取了一系列措施:

1. 政治措施。确立皇权的至高无上,嬴政规定封建国家的最高统治者称皇帝,国家的政治、经济、军事一切大权都集中在皇帝手里。确立中央和地方的行政机构,在中央设置丞相、御史大夫、太尉等官职,在地方推行郡县制度,全国划分为 36 郡,郡下设县。这样,皇帝把统治全国各地的权力也牢牢地控制在自己手里。

2. 经济措施。统一度量衡,使长度、容量、重量,都有统一的标准,便利了经济的发展。统一货币,把秦国的圆形方孔钱,作为统一的货币,通行全国,这对促进各民族各地区的经济交流,十分有用。

3. 文化措施。统一文字,把简化了的字体小篆作为标准字体,通令全国使用。接着,又出现了一种比小篆书写更简便的字体隶书。现在的楷书,就是从隶书演化来的。文字的统一,促进了文化交流。焚书坑儒,加强思想的控制。公元前 213 年,把秦国以外的历史书和民间收藏的诗书以及诸子百家书,通通烧毁,只有医药、卜筮和种植的书不烧。第二年,一些方士和儒生背后议论秦始皇贪权专断、滥用刑罚。秦始皇加以追查,最后活埋了 460 人。这两件事,历史上叫作“焚书”、“坑儒”。秦朝建立后,统治残暴,给人民带来了无比的痛苦和极大的灾难。秦朝的赋税沉重,兵役和徭役繁重,法律尤其严酷。

公元前 209 年 7 月,爆发了陈胜、吴广领导的起义,各地农民纷纷杀掉官吏,攻占郡县,响应起义。陈胜、吴广牺牲后,继起领导秦末农民战争的是项羽和刘邦。

公元前 207 年,项羽以少胜多,在巨鹿大败秦军主力。

公元前206年,刘邦率领的起义军攻占咸阳。号称强大的秦朝,终于被革命的农民推翻了。

秦朝灭亡后,自公元前206年开始,项羽和刘邦为争做皇帝,进行了将近4年的战争,历史上称为“楚汉战争”。

最后,刘邦战胜项羽,建立汉朝,定都长安。历史上称为西汉。

Vocabulary 妙词连珠

great national unity 大一统	administer 治理
prefectures and counties 郡县	put into death 处死
burning books and burying Confucian scholars alive 焚书坑儒	prevent 阻止
Qingshihuang Mausoleum 秦始皇陵	eliminate a scourge 除害
terra cotta warriors and horses	take into custody 押
兵马将军陶俑	tax 税
corrupt 腐败	finance 财政
violate the law 犯法	force 强迫
crime 罪	set up 设立
punish 惩罚	power 权力
stable 安定	rebel 造反
regime 政权	minister 大臣
	palace 宫



U 汉朝 Unit 2 Han Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. Liu Bang established the powerful Han Dynasty in 206 B. C.
公元前 206 年, 刘邦建立了强大的汉王朝。
2. During the Han Dynasty, agriculture, handicrafts and commerce flourished, and the population reached 50 million.
汉代的农业、手工业、商业都有了极大发展, 人口达到 5000 万。
3. During the most prosperous period of the Han Dynasty, Emperor Wudi (140—87 B. C.) expanded from the Central Plains to the Western Regions (present-day Xinjiang and Central Asia).
汉武帝刘彻在位期间(公元前 140—前 87 年)是汉王朝最为强盛的时期, 他使中央政权实际控制的地方从中原扩展到了西域(今新疆及中亚一带)。
4. Emperor Wudi dispatched Zhang Qian twice as his envoy to the Western Regions, and in the process pioneered the route known as the “Silk Road” from Chang’an (today’s Xi’an, Shaanxi Province), through Xinjiang and Central Asia, and on to the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea.
汉武帝派使臣张骞两次出使西域, 打开了从长安(今陕西西安)经新疆、中亚直抵地中海东岸的道路, 被称为“丝绸之路”。
5. China’s silk goods were traded to the West along the Silk Road.
中国绚丽的丝织品经“丝绸之路”源源西运。
6. As contacts between the East and West increased, Buddhism spread to China in the first century.
随着东西交往的密切, 佛教也于公元 1 世纪时传入中国。



7. In 105, an official named Cai Lun invented a technique for making fine paper, leading to a revolution in communications and learning.
公元 105 年,官员蔡伦总结了民间造纸的经验,发明了造纸术,使人类的交流和学习发生了根本性变化。
8. Before he defeated Xiang Yu, Liu Bang had proclaimed himself emperor in the 2nd month of 202 BC, which marked the formal beginning of the Western Han Dynasty.
打败项羽前,刘邦在公元前 202 年 2 月登上了皇位,西汉王朝从此建立。
9. He first established the capital in Luoyang (in Henan province), but soon moved it to Chang'an (present-day Xi'an, Shaanxi province).
西汉的都城最初在洛阳(今河南洛阳),不久就迁到了长安(今陕西西安)。
10. Liu Bang, or Emperor Gaozu, died in 195 BC, leaving the throne to his son Liu Ying, or Emperor Hui.
公元前 195 年,汉高祖刘邦去世,他的儿子惠帝刘盈做了皇帝。
11. Sima Qian started work on Records of the Historian in 104 BC. It took him 12 years to complete the huge project by 93 BC.
公元前 104 年,司马迁开始写作《史记》。这项工作大约在公元前 93 年才告完成。
12. During over thirty years of conflict with the Huns, Wei Qing and Huo Qubing were responsible for all three of the most important campaigns.
在抗击匈奴的 30 多年里,其间最重要的三次战役都与卫青、霍去病二人有关。
13. The prosperity of the Chinese culture in the Qin-Han dynasties was closely associated with the development of science and technology.
科技文化的发展是秦汉时期中国文化兴盛发达的重要表现之一。
14. The Han Dynasty saw the invention of papermaking technology, which created outstanding conditions for cultural transmission.
汉代发明了造纸术,为文化的传播创造了优越条件。

15. Zhang Heng invented an armillary sphere (celestial globe) and invented the world's first seismograph, enhancing science and technology in ancient China to a fairly high level.

张衡发明的浑天仪和候风地动仪,把中国古代的科技水平提高到了一个相当高的水准。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

At the end of the Qin Dynasty (221—206 BC), a present army led by Liu Bang conquered the Xianyang City in 207 BC, putting an end to the despotism period.

After four years war with his rival, Xiang Yu, Liu Bang finally got command of the whole country and established his reign—Han Dynasty in 202 BC.

The new dynasty has been divided into two historical periods. The first period is called the Western Han (206 BC—24 AD) as the capital was Chang'an (the present city of Xian in Shaanxi Province). The second period is known as the Eastern Han (25 AD—220 AD) as Luoyang became the capital city.

The Han Dynasty ruled over the second unified Chinese empire. Based on the unification created by Emperor Qin Shi Huang, a variety of different cultures were integrated. This laid the foundation for what became the common culture of Han. It was during this period that the Han ethnic group established itself as the core nation of China. It was as a consequence of their more advanced civilization that the Han people assumed a dominant position. This dominance still exists in China today, regardless of the many changes that have taken place over the centuries.

E 汉高祖 Emperor Gaozu of the Han

Emperor Gaozu, also known under the name Liu Bang, was the first emperor of the WEstern Han Dynasty (206 BC—24 AD). He was born into a peasant family in Pei (present Pei County in Jiangsu Province), and was once one of the leaders of the peasant insurrections in the late Qin Dynasty (221—206 BC).

Having suffered a lot under the despotic rule, Liu Bang rose against it at the end of the Qin Dynasty together with Xiang Yu. The two of them became two important leaders of the peasant uprisings which were taking place at the time. In 206 BC, Liu Bang started by breaking the capital city of Qin, Xianyang, thus putting an end to the notorious Qin Dynasty. He abandoned the harsh laws, reduced taxes and instituted three regulations in order to protect the interests of normal people. These actions made him popular with the people.

However, Liu Bang's actions and fame were the source of Xiang Yu's envy. Xiang Yu had the intention of becoming an emperor with control over the entire country. When Xiang Yu proclaimed himself the King of Chu, Liu Bang realized that he was inferior to Xiang Yu and adopted the suggestions of Xiao He to move to Hanzhong (present Hanzhong in Shaanxi Province) with the title "King of Han" which was conferred by Xiang Yu.

In Hanzhong, Liu Bang focused his efforts on developing the agriculture and training an army, through which he reinforced his material accumulation and military power. Before long, Liu Bang left Hanzhong and stationed in the Central Shaanxi Plain, where he launched a war now known as the Chu-Han War, against Xiang Yu.

The war lasted four years (206—202 BC) and ended with Liu Bang's victory. Having defeated Xiang Yu, Liu Bang established the Han Dynasty in 202 BC and made Chang'an (present city of Xian) his capital city. Liu Bang became historically known as Emperor Gaozu.



During the time Liu Bang was in power, he continued to use the centralism created by Qin, replaced original vassals and granted lands to his relatives. In economy, he reduced taxes and corvee and developed agriculture, but he restricted the commerce. Emperor Gaozu's efforts laid a solid foundation for the over four-hundred-year reign of the Han Dynasty.

Paragraph 3

R 文景之治 Rule of Wen and Jing

When the emperors Wen and Jing in the Western Han Dynasty (206BC—8AD) came into power, they went on with more moderate and humane policies carried by Emperor Gaozu. Historical records show that during their reigns the Han Dynasty (206BC—220AD) prospered. Untroubled by wars or natural disasters, people lived in peace. This resulted in an increase in population and the development of manufacturing industries and commerce.

The emperor Wen attached much importance to agriculture and economy. He encouraged agricultural output by further reducing taxes and asked people to grow mulberry and raise silkworms. Meanwhile, Wen introduced the reform of punishment and abolished many cruel penalties. In the 23 years of his reign, there was no reconstruction of the palace and his carriages remained the same. According to the historical records, the food supply was so ample that much got perished in the barns.

Another important factor that contributed to the prosperity of Han was that Wen & Jing endeavored to maintain a friendly relationship with Han and neighboring countries.

Paragraph 4

R 独尊儒术 Rise of Confucianism as Main State Ideology

Confucianism rose as the main state ideology during the time of Emperor Wudi in the Western Han Dynasty (206BC—8AD).



In the Qin Dynasty (221—206BC), Legalism served as the state ideology and at the beginning of the Han Dynasty (206BC—220AD), Laozi's theory that was more moderate and humane was put into practice. However, Laozi's thoughts did not fit Wudi's political ambition to consolidate his position and strengthen his power when he became the emperor. In 140BC, Confucian scholar Dong Zhongshu admonished the ruler to establish Taixue (an academy) to educate the crown prince and to produce elite for governmental offices. He did an excellent job in answering questions raised by Wudi. Wudi was deeply impressed and attached great importance to Confucians and some were even assigned to the high positions of minister.

In Dong Zhongshu's words, the ruler should pay supreme tribute to Confucianism while rejecting all other schools of thought. From then on, all government officials were required to learn and study the Confucian Classics and laws were interpreted accordingly. The orthodox Confucianism helped to establish the ideological foundation in the feudal society of China.

Paragraph 5

B开辟丝绸之路 Beginning of the Silk Road

As an interconnected series of routes, the Silk Road (丝绸之路) is through Southern Asia traversed by caravan and ocean vessel, and connecting Chang'an, China with Antioch, Syria, as well as other points. Its influence carries over on to Korea and terminates eventually in Japan.

The continental Silk Road diverges into North and South routes as it extends from the commercial centers of North China, the North route passing through the Bulgar-Kypchak zone to Eastern Europe and the Crimean peninsula, and from there across the Black Sea, Marmara Sea and the Balkans to Venice; the South Route passing through Turkestan-Khorasan, through Iran into Mesopotamia and Anatolia, and then through Antioch in Southern Anatolia into the Mediterranean Sea or through the Levant into Egypt and North Africa.

These exchanges were critical not only for the development and flower-

ing of the great civilizations of Rome, China and India, but they laid the foundations of our modern world. While goods and religious ideas may have travelled the whole way, ancient trade was probably conducted over sections of the routes and it is probable that merchants and travellers very rarely, if ever, covered the whole distance between Europe, or the Middle East, and China, by land.

These route can be traced back to Han Dynasty, from 138 BC, Emperor Wu dispatched Zhang Qian (张骞) twice as his envoy to the Western Regions, and in the process pioneered the route known as the Silk Road from Chang'an, through Xinjiang and Central Asia, and on to the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea. Following Zhang Qian's embassy and report, commercial relations between China and Central as well as Western Asia flourished, as many Chinese missions were sent throughout the 1st century BC, initiating the development of the Silk Road.

In 97 AD the Chinese general Ban Chao (班超) went as far west as the Caspian Sea with 70 000 men and established direct military contacts with the Parthian Empire, also dispatching an envoy to Rome. Several Roman embassies to China soon followed from 166 AD. Good exchanges such as Chinese silk, African ivory, and Roman incense increase the contacts between the East and West. Contacts with the Kushan Empire led to the introduction of Buddhism to China from India in the first century.

The height of the importance of the Silk Road was during the Tang dynasty, with relative internal stability in China after the divisions of the earlier dynasties since the Han. In the seventh century, the Chinese traveler Xuan Zang (玄奘) crossed the region on his way to obtain Buddhist scriptures from India.

The art and civilization of the Silk Road achieved its highest point in the Tang Dynasty. Chang'an, as the starting point of the route, as well as the capital of the dynasty, developed into one of the largest and most cosmopolitan cities of the time.

After the Tang, however, the traffic along the road subsided, along with the grotto building and art of the period. The Five Dynasties period did

not maintain the internal stability of the Tang dynasty, and again neighbouring states started to plunder the caravans. China was partially unified again in the Song dynasty, but the Silk Road was not as important as it had been in the Tang.

From its birth before Christ, through the heights of the Tang dynasty, until its slow demise six to seven hundred years ago, the Silk Road has had a unique role in foreign trade and political relations, stretching far beyond the bounds of Asia itself. It has left its mark on the development of civilizations on both sides of the continent. However, the route has merely fallen into disuse; its story is far from over.

Paragraph 6

P 西汉和亲 Policy of Pacification Through Marriage

Marrying daughters of the Han imperial family to the rulers of the minority groups was one of the foreign policies of pacification in the Western Han Dynasty (206BC—8AD). The policy had gone through two stages. At first, Han rulers took the initiative to marry daughters of the royal family and offer valuables of all kinds so that the Huns could stop harassing the northern border of the empire. When Emperor Wudi was in power, it was the Huns who proposed to Han for marriage.

In the reign of Emperor Wudi, substantial resources were available to him as a result of his own successful policies as well as those of his predecessors. Consequently, he was in a position to take an active and offensive stand against threats of invasion. He sent three expeditions led by Wei Qing and Huo Qubing against the Huns in 127BC, 121BC and 119BC respectively. By these actions, he drove them into the far north of Gobi, thus maintaining the safety of the Hexi Corridor. The threat from the Huns was resolved; however, they did not reach an agreement on the issue of the policy of pacification through marriage.

During the reign of Emperor Xuandi, the Huns was already in decline. And the ruler Huhan decided to pledge allegiance to Han by sending his



son to Han as a promise. Emperor Yuandi, to further a good relationship between the Huns and the Han people, married Wang Zhaojun, a beauty at that time, to the Khan. This action not only stabilized the relationship between the Han Dynasty and the Huns, but promoted economic and cultural exchanges between them.

Meanwhile, Han also marry daughters of royal families to rulers of Wusun tribe for pacification. In 71BC, Han in alliance with Wusun tribe gave the Huns a fatal defeat from which it never recovered.

The policy of marriage for pacification was an important policy helpful to the economic and cultural exchanges between Han and minority groups.

Paragraph 7

The Rebellion of the Seven States

In the early years of the Han Dynasty (206BC—8AD), in order to strengthen his influence, Emperor Gaozu granted many virtually autonomous vassal states to his relatives and a few generals with military merits. Inevitably, over a period of time these vassal states grew powerful. However, when Liu Bang became the emperor, his wife got the power and only assigned those with her family name Lu to important posts. And it aroused great dissatisfaction among Liu's family members.

The kingdoms that were in the hands of vassal-state rulers become a threat to the central government. During the reign of Jingdi, the minister Chao Cuo recommended to weaken the power of vassal-state rulers by eliminating their fiefdoms. And this action led to the Rebellion of the Seven Kingdoms.

In 154BC, the ruler of the Wu State rose up and then other rulers in six states followed suit. It took three months for Emperor Jingdi to quell the rebellion. Later, Emperor Wudi continued to weaken the power of the vassal states by eliminating many fiefdoms, restoring central control over the prefectures and counties of the country.



D西汉的衰落 Decline of Western Han Dynasty

Emperor Wudi's expansionist policies strengthened the empire, nevertheless they drained the imperial treasury. This resulted in sharp increases in taxes and tight control over the economy. In the long term, this had the effect of undermining the dynastic influence.

When Emperors Zhaodi and Xuandi were in power, potential social crises began to surface despite economic growth. During the last decades of the Western Han Dynasty, a series of child emperors occupied the throne. These necessitated regencies and power fell into the hands of eunuchs and empresses' relatives. This led to corruption and greater class division resulting in frequent peasant uprisings. Ultimately, the Western Han Dynasty fell after the infant Emperor Ruzi Ying succeeded to the throne. In 8 AD Wang Mang, one of the empress's relatives, deposed Ruzi Ying and proclaimed himself emperor of the Xin Dynasty (8—25AD).

Although condemned as a usurper, Wang Mang was a learned Confucian scholar. He wished to retrieve the glory of Han by adopting policies described in the Confucian classics. He renamed offices, outlawed slavery, limited land holdings and monopolized both industry and commerce. He also reduced court expenses. However, Wang Mang's unpopularity due to the issue of new coins, nationalization of gold reserves and frequent declarations of war finally led to more serious social turmoil. In 17 AD, a nationwide rebellion broke out. Six years later, in 23 AD Wang Mang was killed by rebels.

Very soon after, Liu Xiu, a member of the Han imperial family, re-established Han supremacy through what has become known as the Eastern Han Dynasty (25—220 AD).

Paragraph 9

X新朝 in Dynasty

The Xin Dynasty (新朝) was a “dynasty” (even though, contrary to the usual meaning of a dynasty, it had but one emperor) in Chinese history. It followed the Western Han Dynasty and preceded the Eastern Han Dynasty.

The Xin Dynasty's sole emperor, Wang Mang (王莽) was the nephew of Grand Empress Dowager Wang Zhengjun, and he became powerful after the death of her step-grandson, Emperor Ai in 1 BC. After several years of cultivating a personality cult, he finally took over as emperor in 8 AD. However, while he was a creative scholar and politician, he was an incompetent ruler, and his capital Chang'an was sieged in 23 AD by peasant rebels. He died in the siege.

Paragraph 10

R东汉的兴起与衰落 Rise and Fall of Eastern Han Dynasty

A distant relative of Liu royalty, Liu Xiu, led the revolt against Wang Mang with the support of the landholding families and merchants. He “re-established” the Han Dynasty at Luoyang, which would rule for another 200 years, and became Emperor Guangwu of Han China.

In 105, During Eastern Han Dynasty, an official and inventor named Cai Lun invented the technique for making fine paper. The invention of paper is considered a revolution in communication and learning, dramatically lowering the cost of education.

Nevertheless the Eastern Han emperors failed to put forward any groundbreaking land reforms after the failure of its precedent dynasty. Rife bureaucratic corruption and bribery contributed into lingering adverse consequences of land privatizations throughout the dynasty. Prestige of a newly founded dynasty during the reigns of first three emperors were barely able

to hinder the corruption; however Confucian scholar gentry turned on eunuchs for their corrupted authorities when consort clans and eunuchs struggled for power in subsequent reigns. None of these three parties was able to improve the harsh livelihood of peasants under the landholding families. Land privatizations and accumulations on the hands of the elite affected the societies of the Three Kingdoms and the Southern and Northern Dynasties that the landholding elite held the actual driving and ruling power of the country. Successful ruling entities worked with these families, and consequently their policies favored the elite. Adverse effects of the Nine grade controller system or the Nine rank system were brilliant examples.

Taiping Taoist ideals of equal rights and equal land distribution quickly spread throughout the peasantry. As a result, the peasant insurgents of the Yellow Turban Rebellion swarmed the North China Plain, the main agricultural sector of the country. Power of the Liu royalty then fell into the hands of local governors and warlords, despite suppression of the main uprising of Zhang Jiao and his brothers. Three overlords eventually succeeded in control of the whole of China proper, ushering in the period of the Three Kingdoms. The figurehead Emperor Xian reigned until AD 220 when Cao Pi forced his abdication.

In 311, around one hundred years after the fall of the Eastern Han, its capital Luoyang was sacked by barbarians.

Paragraph 11

E光武中兴 Emperor Guangwu Revitalizes the Han

War continued after Liu Xiu, Emperor Guangwu, claimed the throne. Over the next dozen years Liu Xiu wiped out the Lulin and Red-brow armies and other local forces. The country became united again in AD 36.

Liu Xiu was one of the few Chinese emperors with talent for handling both military and civil affairs. In war he was able to achieve victory using the strategy of surprise even when the enemy outnumbered his troops. He appointed people to appropriate positions based on their different abilities,



instead of their relationship with him. For instance, he promoted many commoners and ordinary soldiers to become generals. He even gave an important position to Zhu Wei, a man who had been involved in the conspiracy to murder his elder brother. After reuniting the country, Emperor Guangwu devoted most of his time attending to state affairs, rather than resting on his laurels. According to historical records, he went to the imperial court early every morning, where he would discuss important matters with his ministers until sunset. Often the meetings would last until as late as midnight. Emperor Guangwu's dedication led to the implementation of many wise policies. For example, while taking measures to strengthen the power of the imperial family, he made a point of simplifying state organization and reducing surplus personnel. He personally took the lead in reversing the extravagant trends of the late Western Han government. Growing up among the common people, Emperor Guangwu knew their hard lot and thus promulgated lenient laws and low taxes to help the people recover. He described such policies as "running the country with kindness," thus steering the Eastern Han toward a good beginning. His reign indeed came to be acclaimed as "Gangwu Revitalizing the Han." Before his death in AD 57, Emperor Guangwu decreed a simple funeral for himself because he had been "of little use to the people." By then the population of the country had reached 21 million, almost twice the figure at the beginning of the Eastern Han.

Paragraph 12

C 汉朝的文化与科技 Culture and Technology

Just as a new class of gentry was introduced, education became more important during this period. Many encyclopedias were compiled, the best known is the Book of the Mountains and Seas (山海经), which contained everything known at the time about geography, natural philosophy, the animal and plant world, and popular myths. The Han period produced China's most famous historian, Sima Qian (司马迁) whose Records of the



Grand Historian (史记) provides a detailed chronicle from the time of legendary Xia emperor to that of the Emperor Wu. Technological advances also marked this period. One of the great Chinese inventions, paper (造纸术), originate from Han times.



Cultural Links 文化链接

汉代的科技

1. 冶铁业

汉代的冶铁业作坊多,规模大。20 世纪 50 年代后,在河南、山东、北京、江苏等地发现了许多汉代冶铁遗址,其中以河南巩县铁生沟村和南阳北关瓦房庄等地遗址规模最大。从这些遗址可以看出西汉冶炼工序集中,设备齐全。河南巩县铁生沟村出土了一件铁工具,经化验有良好的球状石墨,有明显的石墨核心和放射性结构,与现行球墨铸铁国家标准一类 A 级石墨相当。同时发现炒钢炉一座。炒钢这一崭新的高效率的先进技术的出现,说明西汉的冶铁技术已达到了一个更高的发展阶段,在钢铁冶炼史上具有划时代的意义。

战国时期冶铁业一般只能冶铸农具和少数手工工具,锻制兵器还比较少。到了西汉,不仅能生产铁制长剑、长矛、环首大刀,而且生活器皿和杂用工具也广泛使用铁制,如灯、釜、炉、剪等都已在西汉中期的遗址中发现。这说明汉代铁器的使用已相当广泛。

2. 改良造纸术

造纸术的改良者为东汉和帝时中常侍蔡伦(62—121AD)。蔡伦是桂阳(今湖南郴州)人,曾任主管御用器物的尚方令。他利用树皮、麻头、破布、渔网,经过挫、捣、抄、烘等一系列工艺加工,造成了纸,于永元十七年(105 年)献给和帝。他造的纸称“蔡侯纸”。但在东汉、三国时期,纸并未普遍使用,人们的书写材料仍以简牍和缣帛为主。到了晋朝,造纸术传到长江流域,那里有丰富的造纸原料,也产生了较好的纸张,才得普遍推广。晋人盛行抄书、藏书就是得益于用纸的普及。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

thirteen prefectural governors 十三州刺史	attack 攻打
system of province 省府县制	rule 规矩
road for royal carriages 驰道	monarch 君王
give priority to agriculture while curbing the industry and business 重农抑商	even if 即使
holding only Confucianism in rever- ence 独尊儒术	resist 抵抗
study of Confucian classics 经学	surrender 投降
Silk Road 丝绸之路	institute 机构
abbreviation 简称	set up 设立
empire 帝国	stable 安定
title of a reigning dynasty 国号	water conservancy 水利
administer 治理	astronomy 天文
scholar 学者	official position 官职
perish 灭亡	abolish 废除
Confucian scholar 儒生	appoint 任命
noble 贵族	compile and correct 编修
fault 过错	observe 观测
wisdom 贤明	astronomical phenomena 天象
	instrument 仪器
	invent 发明
	take notes 记录
	Imperial College 太学

4

魏晋南北朝

The Dynasties of Wei and Jin, and the Northern and Southern Dynasties

Unit 1

三国

The Three Kingdoms



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. In AD 200 Cao Cao defeated Yuan Shao, his major rival in the north, in the battle at Guandu (northeast of present-day Zhongmu county, Henan province).
公元200年,曹操在官渡(今河南中牟县东北)击败了北方的主要竞争对手袁绍。
2. While Cao Cao fought with Yuan Shao in the north, Sun Quan took control of the areas along the lower reaches of the Yangtze River.
曹操和袁绍争夺北方的时候,南方的孙权控制了长江下游一带地区。
3. After his defeat at Chibi, Cao Cao retreated to the north. Sun Quan and Liu Bei subsequently each occupied parts of Jingzhou.
在赤壁吃了败仗的曹操只好撤回北方,孙权和刘备各自占得了荆州的一部分。
4. In AD 220 Cao Cao's son Cao Pi proclaimed himself emperor, making Luoyang his capital and calling his reign "Wei".
公元220年,曹操的儿子曹丕代汉称帝,定都洛阳,国号魏。

5. In AD 221 Liu Bei, who had been advocating the restoration of the Han, also ascended the throne.

打着复兴汉室招牌的刘备看到这种情况,也在公元 221 年自称皇帝。

6. In AD 229 Sun Quan claimed the throne and named his territory "Wu."

公元 229 年,孙权给自己加上了皇帝的尊号,国号吴。

7. The country entered a period of relative stability with the three concurrent kingdoms.

三国形成了相对稳定的对峙局面。

8. Zhuge Liang did not realize his dream of reuniting China, even though he accomplished a great feat in organizing the Kingdom of Shu.

虽然诸葛亮把蜀国管理得井井有条,但他终于没能实现统一中国的愿望。

9. During the Three Kingdoms, the Wu state and the Shu state, having founded their states in the Yangtze River basin, engaged in developing their economy.

三国时期,立国于长江流域的吴、蜀两国致力于经济的开发。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The Three Kingdoms (三国) (220—265) refers to a period of time after the fall of the Han Dynasty in China, marked by the struggle of three rival kingdoms: the Kingdom of Wei, the Kingdom of Shu, and the Kingdom of Wu for control of China. Each kingdom's ruler called himself "emperor" and believed that his "empire" should be the true successor of the Han Dy-



nasty.

Of the three, Wei was always the most powerful kingdom. It conquered the Shu kingdom in 263. By this time the Sima clan had effectively wrested control of Wei away from the Cao family; Sima Yan formally seized the throne in 265 and established the Jin Dynasty (265—420). In 280, Sima Yan succeeded in conquering the Wu kingdom and reunifying China.

Paragraph 2

B 赤壁之战 Battle of Red Cliffs

In 208, Zhou Yu and Liu Bei led their forces to fight Cao Cao. Cao Cao led a force of 300 000 to attack Wu. Zhou Yu led the Wu forces (30 000) with Liu Bei's forces (20 000).

Cao Cao had previously linked his ships together because his men were mainly composed of Northerners who were not accustomed to fighting on water; they were also sick after an epidemic.

In the mean time, Huang Gai faked himself a turncoat, seeking giving top secret of Wu's army to Cao Cao. At the night of the battle, Huang Gai fabricated his escape from the South side of the Yangtse River where Wu's camp is to the North side where Wei's base is. Near the Northern bank, Huang Gai set his tail boat on fire. The Cao Cao's armada, connected together, was caught fired in the bay and nearly totally destroyed.

Zhou Yu, at this time, sent his whole army against Cao Cao's army which lost all its morale. Cao Cao decided it would be best to retreat.

The result of the Battle of Red Cliffs greatly hindered Cao Cao's expansion across Yangtse River into the Southern China.

Paragraph 3

Z 诸葛亮北伐 Zhuge Liang's Northern Expeditions

At the end of Zhuge Liang's southern campaign, the Wu-Shu alliance came to fruition and Shu was free to move against north. In 227 Zhuge Li-

ang transferred his main Shu armies to Hanzhong, and opened up the battle for the northwest with Wei. The next year, he ordered the general Zhao Yun to attack from Ji Gorge as a diversion whilst Zhuge himself led the main force to Qishan. The vanguard Ma Su, however, suffered a tactical defeat at Jieting and the Shu army was forced to withdraw. In the next six years Zhuge Liang attempted several more offensives, but supply problems limited the capacity for success. In 234 he led his last great northern offensive, reaching the Battle of Wuzhang Plains, south of the Wei River. Due to the death of Zhuge Liang (234 AD), however, the Shu army was forced once again to withdraw.

Zhugeliang had five attempts in the north, only one of which succeeded (Tianshui) where he gained Jiang Wei after a successful defection plot. Zhugeliang's other attempts included Chencang, Mt. Qi, Jieting (supply campaign) and the Wuzhang Plains. There were also some other minor attempts to the north but they were considered as minor battles that had no major outcomes. After the death of Zhugeliang, his assistant Jiang Wan took over.

Paragraph 4

E 三国的结束 End of the Three Kingdoms

From the late 230s tensions began to become visible between the imperial Cao clan and the Sima clan. Following the death of Cao Zhen, factionalism was evident between Cao Shuang and the Grand Commander Sima Yi. In deliberations, Cao Shuang placed his own supporters in important posts and excluded Sima, whom he regarded as a threat. The power of the Sima clan, one of the great landowning families of the Han, was bolstered by Sima Yi's military victories. Additionally, Sima Yi was an extremely capable strategist and politician. In 238 he crushed the rebellion of Gongsun Yuan and brought the Liaodong region directly under central control. Ultimately, he outmaneuvered Cao Shuang in power play. Taking advantage of an excursion by the imperial clansmen to the Gaoping tombs,



Sima undertook a putsch in Luoyang, forcing Cao Shuang's faction from authority. Many protested to the overwhelming power of the Sima family; notable of which were the Seven Sages of the Bamboo Grove. One of the sages, Ji Kang, was executed as part of the purges after Cao Shuang's downfall.

Paragraph 5

T三国时期的商业与运输 **Trade and Transport in Three Kingdoms Period**

In economic terms the division of the Three Kingdoms reflected a reality that long endured. Even in the Northern Song, seven hundred years after the Three Kingdoms, it was possible to think of China as being composed of three great regional markets. (The status of the northwest was slightly ambivalent, as it had links with the northern region and Sichuan). These geographical divisions are underscored by the fact that the main communication routes between the three main regions were all man-made: the Grand Canal linking north and south, the hauling-way through the Three Gorges of the Yangtse River linking southern China with Sichuan and the gallery roads joining Sichuan with the northwest. The break into three separate entities was quite natural and even anticipated by such political foresight as Zhuge Liang.

Paragraph 6

P人口 **Population**

The population could be derived from the official record of Chen Shou's Sanguo Zhi. In terms of manpower, the Wei was by far the largest, retaining more than 660 000 households and 4 400 000 people within its borders. Shu had a population of 940 000, and Wu 2 300 000. Thus, Wei had more than 58% of the population and around 40% of territory. With these resources, it is estimated that it could raise an army of 440,000 whilst Shu and Wu could manage 100 000 and 230 000. The Wu-Shu alliance against



the Wei proved itself to be a militarily stable configuration; the basic borders of the Three Kingdoms remained almost unchanging for more than forty years.



Cultural Links 文化链接

赔了夫人又折兵

三国时,曹魏独大,吴蜀注定要结成联盟才能三分天下。

话说曹操起兵南征,想一举统一中国。被曹操追得满地乱窜的刘备联合孙权在赤壁大败曹操,并趁势取了荆州。孙权非常恼火,因为出了大力,打败了曹操,却被刘备下“山”摘了桃子。大都督周瑜给孙权出主意:以孙权的妹妹做诱饵,对外宣称要招刘备做妹夫,想借机将刘备骗到江东,以除后患。刘备在诸葛亮的谋划下,将计就计,来了个假戏真做。结果不仅孙权的妹妹真的看上了刘备,连他的母亲也是非常满意。刘备抱得美人归,孙权陪了妹妹又折兵。

赔了夫人又折兵形容事与愿违,不仅没有达到原先预期的效果,反而遭受了重大的损失。与偷鸡不成反蚀米的含义相近。

吴蜀从赤壁之战后,就开始了这种相互角力又不得不相互依靠的关系。当他们共同的敌人曹魏强兵压境的时候,他们就联合在一起抵抗魏。可局势一平静,荆州问题就成了他们角力的焦点。后来关羽大败魏军,准备北伐,吴趁荆州空虚,抄了关羽的后路,关败走麦城,连头颅都被孙权割下来送给了曹操。吴蜀关系产生了重大的裂痕,刘备愤而起兵讨吴,为兄弟关羽报仇,结果又被吴国火烧连营八百里,败走白帝城,托孤诸葛亮。

后来蜀国被魏灭掉后,唇齿相依的吴国也步了蜀国的后尘,中国终于再次统一。

赔了夫人又折兵和吴蜀的依存关系比较起来,一个是蚂蚁,一个是大象,分不清谁轻谁重,吴蜀的灭亡也是必然的啊。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Three Kingdoms 三国	station 驻守
Han nationality 汉族	retreat 撤退
outstanding 杰出	send a written declaration of war 下战书
smart 机智	victory or failure 胜负
tactics of war 兵法	pour liquid on 浇
imperial court 朝廷	dry firewood 干柴
warlord 军阀	plot 策划
dethrone 废掉	confront each other on a tripartite balance 鼎立
strategy 谋略	highly skilled doctor 神医
counselor 谋士	appoint... as... 立……为……
military officer 武将	crown prince 太子
stable 安定	tripartite confrontation 鼎立
censure 指责	situation 局面
fight a life-and-death battle 决一死战	beanstalk 豆萁
supreme headquarters 大本营	straw mat 草席
go to a friend or a place for shelter 投奔	faithfulness 义气
prime minister (in feudal China) 丞相	honour 信义
	Son of Heaven 天子



U 晋朝

Unit 2 Jin Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Jin Dynasty (265—420) is divided into the Western Jin and the Eastern Jin by historians.
晋朝(公元 265—420 年),历史上分为西晋和东晋。
2. The regime with its capital at Luoyang is referred to as the Western Jin (265—316).
公元 265—316 年,国都在洛阳的政权,称为西晋。
3. The regime that existed from 317 to 420 established its capital at Jiankang (present-day Nanjing, Jiangsu Province). Because Jiankang was to the east of Luoyang, hence the name the Eastern Jin.
公元 317—420 年国都在建康(今江苏南京),因建康在洛阳的东边,所以称为东晋。
4. In AD 266 Sima Yi's grandson Sima Yan deposed Cao Huan and ascended the throne of Wei. That was the end of the Kingdom of Wei and the beginning of the Western Jin.
公元 266 年,司马懿的孙子司马炎取代曹奂做了皇帝,西晋建立了。
5. The country was united under the Western Jin in AD 280, when Sun Quan's son Sun Hao surrendered to the Western Jin.
公元 280 年,孙权的儿子孙皓向晋军投降,中国又恢复了统一。
6. Yet the western Jin did not last long. It enjoyed peace only in the 25—year reign of Sima Yan, or Emperor Wu.
西晋的统治好景不长,只有晋武帝司马炎在位的 25 年算得上安定。
7. When he died in AD 290, his mentally retarded son Sima Zhong succeeded the throne to become Emperor Hui.



公元 290 年,司马炎去世,他近乎白痴的儿子司马衷登上了皇位,是为晋惠帝。

8. During the 16 years of Emperor Hui's reign, the Western Jin was deeply divided by strife between members of the imperial family, until he was poisoned to death in AD 306.

晋惠帝在位期间西晋王朝成员之间发生了长达 16 年的内乱,直到公元 306 年他中毒身亡,内乱才告结束。

9. Liu Yuan's son Liu Cong overthrew the Western Jin in AD 316. Northern China was again torn apart by incessant war.

刘渊的儿子刘聪于公元 316 年攻灭西晋,中国北方再度进入四分五裂、连年战乱的时期。

10. In AD 317 Sima Rui, a member of the Western Jin imperial family, established the Eastern Jin in Jiankang (present-day Nanjing, Jiangsu province), with the support of aristocrats in the south.

公元 317 年南方贵族拥立西晋皇族司马睿在建康(今江苏南京)即位,重建了晋朝,史称东晋。

11. During the tumultuous years of the Eastern Jin, troubled by both internal unrest and external aggression, many people fled from the north to the south.

西晋的内乱和少数民族的进攻使中国北方的百姓流离失所,纷纷南下逃难。

12. Xianbei: an ethnic group in ancient China, who lived in present day Northeast and Inner Mongolia of China.

鲜卑族是中国古代的一个民族,居住在今东北、内蒙古一带。

13. Qiang: an ethnic group in ancient China, who lived in present day Qinghai and Gansu provinces.

羌族是中国古代的一个民族,居住在今青海、甘肃一带。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

At the end of the Three Kingdoms Period, Sima family became prominent in the Wei. In 265 AD, Sima Yan (司马炎) usurped the power and founded a new dynasty Jin. They also conquered the Wu, thus ending the period of The Three Kingdoms. Jin was historically divided into two periods: the Western Jin (西晋) with Luoyang (洛阳) as its capital city and Eastern Jin (东晋) as Jiankang (建康) (present Nanjing) became the capital city.

Jin Dynasty was the only period which unified the country during the period between the Wei, the Jin and the Southern and Northern Dynasties (220—589), though this kind of achievement was not lasting.

Although Jin Dynasty was short and full of conflicts, the mix between nationalities was accelerated through the long-term contacts and mutual influences.

Paragraph 2

W 西晋 estern Jin

Cao Pi established the Wei Kingdom with the support from General Sima Yi. Throughout the Wei period the Sima family assisted three out of five kings of the Wei Kingdom. Gradually, they gained the control of the executive and military powers of the kingdom. After the death of Sima Yi, both of his two sons consequently became the dominant men of the kingdom.

In 265 AD, Sima Yan, the grandson of Sima Yi, deposed the emperor of Wei and established his own regime Jin, making Luoyang his capital city. Historically the dynasty is known as the “Western Jin Dynasty” and Sima Yan was known as Emperor Wu. In 280 AD, the Western Jin wiped out the

Wu, the last surviving regime of the Three Kingdoms Period (220—265) and reunified the south and north.

Emperor Wu conferred dukedoms to many of his kinsmen due to their contributions in the founding and consolidation of the empire. Since the Jin was based on the power of hereditary aristocrats, measures were taken to protect the interests of the privileged, which often upset the big family. And consequently, conflicts between the aristocratic families increased. They contested with each in the accumulation of wealth and the enjoyment of the luxurious life. Thus the power of the Jin imperial government was seriously impaired.

Meanwhile, the struggle for power intensified in the imperial court. From 291 onwards, eight dukes of the royal family stirred up a series of wars against each other. These wars lasted 16 years, greatly dislocating the social economy and weakening the empire's power.

After these disturbances, the country was deep in chaos. In 308, Liu Yuan, the chief of the Huns tribe, crowned himself the king of Han. His army captured Luoyang, the capital of the Western Jin Dynasty and captured the emperor. The survivors of the Jin named another emperor in Chang'an (present Xi'an), the Huns army broke into Chang'an in 316 and put an end to the Western Jin Dynasty.

The Western Jin Dynasty ruled fifty-one years with four emperors on the throne. After it, China went into another troubled period of disunity for 272 years.

Paragraph 3

C 西晋和东晋时期的文化艺术 Culture and Art in Western and Eastern Jin

In the world of literature, Lu Ji (261—303) and Zuo Si (250—305) of the Western Jin excelled in poetry. Lu Ji's special treatise On Poetry Writing, contributed to the development of China's literary thought. The Ode to the Three Capitals (of the Three Kingdoms), written by Zuo Si in a vigorous style, created such a stir among the men of letters that it was copied and

passed from hand to hand, causing a shortage of paper supply in the capital city of Luoyang. Tao Yuanming (365—427), the poet and prose writer of the Eastern Jin, was famous for his five-character poems full of poetic imagination and the flavor of rustic life. Formerly an Eastern Jin official, Tao Yuanming resigned after becoming disillusioned with the corrupt government to lead a secluded life in the countryside. His outstanding prose piece, *Peach Blossom Stream*, a description of a Chinese Arcadia, expressed his longing for a society without power struggle, cut-throat competition, lying and cheating. During the Western and Eastern Jin period, the *pian ti wen* (a flowery antithetic style of writing) was very popular. It was gorgeous in form but lacked depth.

Calligraphy and painting reached a high level of development in the Eastern Jin. Wang Xizhi (321—379 or 306—361) absorbed the essence of calligraphy of the Han-Wei period and created a style of his own to earn his fame as the “Sage Calligrapher”. Gu Kaizhi (345—406) was noted for his portraits of human figures with highly expressive eyes. The mural painting of *Vimalakirti*, a lay Buddhist, done for the Waguan Temple of Jiankang, impressed art-lovers with its brightly coloured and finely drawn lines. His work, *On the Art of Painting*, was a masterpiece on painting techniques.

The Western and Eastern Jin period turned out more historical works than ever. There were an outpouring of history books on the Eastern Han, the Three Kingdoms, the Jin and the Sixteen States, notably the *History of the Three Kingdoms* by Chen Shou (233—297), *An Extension of the History of the Han Dynasty* by Sima Biao (? —306) and *Records of the Later Han Dynasty* by Yuan Hong (328—376). The *History of the Three Kingdoms* enjoys a fame only next to that of *Records of the Historian* and *History of the Han Dynasty*. Written in biographical form, it describes the rise, growth and fall of the Three Kingdoms. *An Extension of the History of the Han Dynasty* originally had 80 *juan* but only 30, about the institutions and statutes of the Eastern Han Dynasty, survive. *Records of the Later Han Dynasty*, *annals of the Eastern Han*, shows innovation in the preservation and compilation-of historical material.

W 八王之乱 ar of Eight Princes

The War of the Eight Princes or Rebellion of the Eight Kings was a civil war for power among princes or kings of the Chinese Jin Dynasty from AD 291 to AD 306. It devastated the country and triggered the Wu Hu ravaging. The term stemmed from biographies of eight princes collected in chapter 59 of the "History of Jin Dynasty" (Jinshu).

The resultant winner was last surviving major prince, Sima Yue. The struggle depopulated northern China and greatly weakened the strength of the Jin Dynasty.

The eight princes included:

Sima Liang (司马亮), son of Sima Yi (司马懿), titled the Prince of Runan (汝南王).

Sima Wei (司马玮), son of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Chu (楚王).

Sima Lun (司马伦), son of Sima Yi, titled the Prince of Zhao (赵王).

Sima Jiong (司马冏), nephew of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Qi (齐王).

Sima Ying (司马颖), son of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Chengdu (成都王).

Sima Yi (司马乂), son of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Changsha (长沙王).

Sima Yong (司马颙), distant cousin of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Hejian. (河间王).

Sima Yue (司马越), distant cousin of Emperor Wu, titled the Prince of Donghai (东海王).



Paragraph 5

E东晋 **Eastern Jin**

After the collapse of the Western Jin Dynasty (265—316), the Han government retreated to the east of the Yangtze River. In 317, Sima Rui, a member of the Jin royal family stationed in Jiankang (present city of Nanjing in Jiangsu Province), re-established Jin supremacy, through what has become known as the Eastern Jin Dynasty (317—420). The Eastern Jin Dynasty had lasted for 103 years with eleven emperors over fourteen generations until it was substituted by the Song Dynasty founded in 420.

Paragraph 6

T淝水之战 **The Battle of Fei River**

The Battle of Fei River (淝水之战) was a battle in 383, where Fu Jian (苻坚) of the Former Qin (前秦) was decisively defeated by the numerically inferior army of Eastern Jin (东晋). The battle is considered to be one of the most significant battles in the history of China, with the far-reaching consequences of postponing the unification of China by more than two hundred years. The aftermath of the battle includes the Former Qin empire falling into massive civil war and its eventual destruction, ensuring the survival of Eastern Jin and other regimes south of the Yangtze River.

Paragraph 7

T十六国 **The Sixteen States**

The Sixteen Kingdoms (十六国), or less commonly the Sixteen States, were a collection of numerous short-lived sovereignties in China proper and neighboring areas from AD 304 to 439 after the retreat of the Jin Dynasty (265—420) to South China and before the establishment of the Northern Dynasties. Originally, the term was first introduced by Cui Hong in the lost

historical record, Shiliuguo Chunqiu (the Spring and Autumn Annals of the Sixteen Kingdoms) and restricted to sixteen kingdoms of this era, namely the states of Han Zhao, Later Zhao, Cheng Han, Former Liang, Later Liang, Northern Liang, Western Liang, Southern Liang, Former Yan, Later Yan, Northern Yan, Southern Yan, Former Qin, Later Qin, Western Qin and Xia. The term has been broadened to include all sovereignties from 304 to 439. These do not all exist through the entire period.

A less used term, the Period of Sixteen Kingdoms represents this turbulent era from 304 to 439.

Almost all rulers of the kingdoms were part of the Wu Hu ethnicity and claimed to be the emperors and wangs (kings). The Han Chinese founded the four states: Northern Yan, Western Liang, Former Liang and the state of Wei. Six Chinese rulers of the Former Liang remained titularly under the government of the Jin Dynasty. The Northern Wei Dynasty is not counted as one of the Sixteen Kingdoms even though it was founded during the Period.



Cultural Links

文化链接

匈奴贵族称汉帝

从汉魏开始,中原周边民族不断向内地迁徙,到西晋末年,他们已经广泛分布于中原各地。那时政局动荡,匈奴、鲜卑、羯(jié)、氐(dī)、羌(qiāng)等少数民族的上层人物纷纷起兵,各自建立政权。从公元303年到460年的一百多年时间中,北方先后有过十六个政权,史称“十六国”。

首先利用北方民族矛盾和阶级矛盾在中原起兵的,是匈奴贵族刘渊。刘渊是十六国时期汉国的建立者,世袭匈奴左部帅。

在“八王之乱”的折腾中,匈奴部落的日子也十分难过,其中有些贵族凑在一起商议对策。有个老人说:“从汉朝开始,我们匈奴就和汉人结为兄弟了,曾经十分风光过。可是现在,匈奴单于的后代虽然有封号,但自己连一寸土地都没有,和一般人有什么不同?趁现在晋朝诸王你争我斗、一片混乱的机会,我们可以夺回过去失去的一切!”

这些匈奴贵族都觉得他说得对,但没有一个有能力、有胆量的人带头干。大家商量,只有把有胆有识的刘渊请回来当单于,才有可能起事并获



得成功。

当时刘渊在邺城(今河南安阳北),充任成都王司马颖部队的将军,专管五部匈奴军队。他很乐意地答应了匈奴部落要他回去当单于的请求,马上以回匈奴葬父亲的理由,向司马颖请假。司马颖没有同意,刘渊就叫五部匈奴暗地里集结人马,逐渐朝南渗入。直到司马颖在“八王之乱”中失败逃到洛阳,才同意刘渊回匈奴去带人马来助战。

刘渊回到左国城(今山西离石东北)后,被推举为大单于。他集结了五万人马,一路南下,协同晋朝军队围歼鲜卑兵马。手下有人不解地问道:“为什么不快点去灭掉晋朝,反而去帮助晋军打仗呢?”

刘渊解释道:“要消灭晋朝是很容易的,但老百姓不一定会向着我们。我想来想去,只有一个办法。大家知道,我们的祖先冒顿和呼韩邪,贵为单于,都娶了汉朝公主为妻。我们匈奴有个风俗习惯,虽然有自己的姓氏,但凡是尊贵者都跟母亲姓。就因为这个缘故,我们这些冒顿和呼韩邪的子孙,都姓了刘。塞外这么多刘姓匈奴后裔,都奉汉高祖刘邦为始祖。汉朝立国时间长,在民间影响大,我们为什么不能用继承汉朝的名义来夺取政权,赢得中原百姓的支持呢?”

大家都支持刘渊的想法,拥戴他做了汉王。

刘渊打起反晋兴汉的旗号,先后攻克上党、太原、河东、平原等几个郡,势力扩张得很快。到了公元308年,他就干脆称帝了,把都城建在平阳(今山西临汾西南)。

刘渊称帝后,必须灭掉晋朝,所以就集中兵力进攻洛阳,但却遭到了顽强的抵抗,两次出兵都无功而返。

刘渊去世后,他的儿子刘聪继承汉国皇位。他又派兵猛攻洛阳,终于在公元311年占领了这座都城,晋怀帝司马炽成了阶下囚。不久,刘聪就把晋怀帝给杀了。

在长安的晋朝官员听到晋怀帝死去的消息后,就拥立晋怀帝的侄儿司马邺继承皇位,称晋愍(mǐn)帝。公元316年,长安也被刘聪攻破。晋愍帝在受尽凌辱后被杀,西晋灭亡。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

facial features 相貌	situation 局面
the cover of a cart 车篷子	give expression to 抒发
imperial court 朝廷	sinister 阴险
break out 爆发	crafty 狡猾
noble 贵族	knee 膝盖
suppress 镇压	go to for shelter 投靠
position in the family hierarchy 辈分	plot 策划
threat 威胁	overthrow 推翻
suspect 怀疑	calligrapher 书法家
ambition 志向	pond 池塘
military counsellor 军师	inkstone 砚台
occupy 占据	preface 序
strategically located and difficult of access 险要	precious 珍贵
restore 复兴	one's original handwriting or painting 手迹
take office 上任	family heirloom 传家宝
corrupt officials 贪官污吏	copy 临摹
on the contrary 反而	



U 南北朝

Unit 3 Northern and Southern Dynasties



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Southern Qi, the Liang and the Chen regimes ruled the south one after another.
在南方,依次出现了南齐、梁、陈三个朝代。
2. In the north-south conflict, the south was at a military disadvantage most of the time. The balance tilted badly for the south with the turmoil at the end of Liang.
南方在南北对抗中大部分时间处于军事上的劣势,梁朝末年的大乱更使南方政权元气大伤。
3. The Chen regime, which replaced Liang in AD 557, did little to improve the situation. The inclination of the north to unite with the south became inescapable.
公元 557 年建立的陈朝也无力挽回这种局面,北方统一南方已经是大势所趋。
4. The ambitious and hardworking Emperor Wu, Yuwen Yong of the Zhou regime, destroyed Northern Qi in AD 577.
励精图治的周武帝宇文邕在公元 577 年灭了北齐。
5. In AD 420 General Liu Yu dethroned the Eastern Jin emperor to establish the Song Dynasty. That year marked the beginning of the period of the Southern and the Northern Dynasties in Chinese history.
公元 420 年,东晋大将刘裕废黜东晋皇帝并建立了刘宋政权,中国在这一年进入了南北朝时期。



6. The north was again torn asunder by wars after the fall of the Former Qin. Not until AD 439 was northern China reunited by the Northern Wei regime established by the Xianbei people.
前秦衰落后,北方又经历了分裂和战乱,直到公元439年才被鲜卑族建立的北魏政权重新统一。
7. In AD 471 Tuoba Hong ascended the throne to become the sixth emperor, Xiaowen, of the Northern Wei.
公元471年,北魏第六代君主拓跋宏即位,是为魏孝文帝。
8. The Northern Wei government implemented the "decree of equal land for all" in AD 485, by which all arable and waste lands were equally distributed among the people.
公元485年,北魏颁布了“均田令”(即将国有土地及荒地按人口进行分配的政策)。
9. Emperor Xiaowen carried on the reform measures of his grandmother, placing special emphasis on the adoption of Han culture.
孝文帝延续祖母的改革措施,在推行汉化方面更是不遗余力。
10. In AD 493 he moved the capital from Pingcheng (northeast of present-day Datong, Shanxi province) to Luoyang, the cultural center of the Han people.
公元493年,他把北魏都城从平城(今山西大同东北)迁到了汉族文化中心洛阳。
11. Emperor Xiaowen of the Northern Wei carried out a number of political reforms adjusted to the social customs of the Han people, a hallmark that the integration virtually completed of the Han and the other peoples in the north.
北魏孝文帝的改革是一个重要的里程碑,它标志着当时北方民族大融合的基本完成。
12. The blending of their culture brought about a more valuable treasury of nation's culture than before.
胡汉文化的交融,使民族文化的宝库更加绚烂多彩。



13. The introduction of Buddhism served as the first foreign impact on traditional Chinese culture from the outside world.

佛学的传入,是外来文化对中国传统文化的第一次重大冲击。

14. Buddhist monasteries first appeared in China at the end of the Western Han Dynasty, but it was only until the Wei-Jin period that Buddhism began to spread and flourish.

佛学在西汉末年进入中国,直到魏晋之后才获得广泛传播。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

Southern and Northern Dynasties (南北朝 420—589) followed Jin Dynasty and preceded Sui Dynasty in China and was an age of civil wars and disunity.

During this period the process of sinicization accelerated among the non-Chinese arrivals in the north and among the aboriginal tribesmen in the south. This process was also accompanied by the increasing popularity of Buddhism (introduced into China in the first century A. D.) in both north and south China.

Despite the political disunity of the times, there were notable technological advances. The invention of gunpowder (at that time for use only in fireworks) and the wheelbarrow is believed to date from the sixth or seventh century. Advances in medicine, astronomy, and cartography are also noted by historians.

N 北魏 Northern Wei Dynasty

The Northern Wei Dynasty (北魏 386—534) is most noted for the unification of northern China in 440, it was also heavily involved in funding the arts and many antiques and art works from this period have survived.

In 493 AD the dynasty moved its capital from Datong to Luoyang and started the construction of the artificial Longmen Caves. More than 30 000 Buddhist images from the time of this dynasty have been found in the caves.

It is thought the dynasty originated from the Tuoba clan of the non-Han Xianbei tribe. The Tuobas renamed themselves the Yuans as a part of systematic Sinicization.

The official state religion was Taoism as a result of the influence of Kou Chienchih.

Towards the end of the dynasty there was significant internal dissidence resulting in a split into Eastern and Western Wei.

R 孝文帝改革 Reform by Emperor Xiaowen

Emperor Xiaowen implemented a drastic policy of sinicization, intending to centralize the government and make the multi-ethnic state more easy to govern. These policies included changing artistic styles to reflect Chinese preferences and forcing the population to speak the language and to wear Chinese clothes. He forced his own Xianbei people and others to adopt Chinese surnames, and changed his own family surname from Tuoba to Yuan. He also encouraged intermarriage between Xianbei and Han.

In 494, Emperor Xiaowen moved the Northern Wei capital from Pingcheng (平城, in modern Datong, Shanxi) to Luoyang, a city long acknowledged as a major center in Chinese history. The shift in the capital



was mirrored by a shift in tactics from active defense to passive defense against the Rouran. While the capital was moved to Luoyang, the military elite remained centered at the old capital, widening the differences between the administration and the military. The population at the old capital remained fiercely conservative, while the population at Luoyang were much more eager to adopt Xiaowen's policies of sinicization. His reforms were met with resistance by the Xianbei elite. In 496, two plots by Xianbei nobles, one centered around his crown prince Yuan Xun, and one centered around his distant uncle Yuan Yi (元颢). By 497, Xiaowen had destroyed the conspiracies and forced Yuan Xun to commit suicide.

Unfortunate for Emperor Xiaowen, his sinicization policies had their downsides — namely, he adopted the Jin Dynasty social stratification methods, leading to incompetent nobles being put into positions of power while capable men of low birth not being able to advance in his government. Further, his wholesale adoption of Han culture and fine arts encouraged the nobles to be corrupt in order to afford the lifestyles of the Han elite, leading to further erosion to effective rule. By the time of his grandson Emperor Xiaoming, Northern Wei was in substantial upheaval due to agrarian revolts, and by 534 had been divided into two halves, each of which would soon be taken over by warlords.

Paragraph 4

A南北朝时期的科技成就 **Achievement on Science and Technology**

During this period of near-constant political and military strife, achievements on agriculture, chronometer and mechanical manufacture found a farther way. Jia Sixie who is a viceroy of Northern Wei compiled a book named Essential Skills in Improving People's Life in which he summed up laboring people's experience and skills in farming and husbandry. The practice of some advanced skill of planting and drought control narrated in the book had been proved to be effective. Another important geographic work is Notes on Water Classic, written by Li Daoyuan. This comprehensive geo-

graphic work recorded the hydrology of the Yangtze River area including detailed records of the source, vegetation, relief and networks of 1252 rivers and watercourses with ample illustrations and maps. Ancient watermarks in the form of 14-scaled fish and inscriptions have been found in White Crane Ridge in today's Chongqing. Those records of the hydrology of the Yangtze River accord with the narration in this book.

Zu Chongzhi (429—500), an outstanding scientist invented a kind of millstone driven by water power. This mill effectively relieved people of the heavy and inefficient handiwork. What makes him known is that he had correctly placed the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter between 3.1415926 and 3.1415927 while the western mathematician didn't figure it out until several centuries later.

Paragraph 5

L 艺术与文学 Literature and Art

Up to the Southern and Northern Dynasties, poets became increasingly interested in more lyric verses in which poetries sang their feeling and emotion by narrations of natural landscapes. Xie Lingyun is a typical one. Another form of poet is Yuefu Shi—a more populace one generated from the common people. It takes a more rustic way rather than stylish and the contents mainly concern labors and people's daily life. With prevail of literature, some literature critiques appeared and among them Wen Xin Diao Long written by Liu Xie of the Northern Qi is remarkable.

Paragraph 6

P 佛教与道教的盛行 revail of Taoism and Buddhism

During the Northern and Southern Dynasties, since most emperors believed in it, Buddhism grew rapidly despite the demolition incidents. Buddhism found a receptive audience in China, while the influence of Confucianism waned. During Northern Wei period, the rulers were the most gen-



erous patrons in both the north and south. They took Buddhism as a nationwide religion in order to enforce his dominion.

In the north, large amounts of Buddhist caves and temples were built. Mogao Grottoes in today's Dunhuang, Yungang Grottoes in Datong and Longmen Grottoes in Luoyang were four flourishing centers of Buddhist culture in its glory.

Buddhist monastic establishment grew rapidly at that time. By 477 there were reportedly 6 478 Buddhist temples and 77 258 monks and nuns in the north. The south was said to have 2 846 temples and 82 700 clerics some decades later. Emperor Wu of Liang had even contributed himself to experience as a Buddhist disciple in a temple for three times. In Jiankang (present Nanjing city in Jiangsu Province), Buddhist temples added up to 500 with 10000 monks. Women turned to Buddhism as readily as men.

Originally one philosophy school of dozens schools in the Spring and Autumn Period, Taoism grew up into a religion in the late Eastern Han Dynasty (25—220 AD). At first, it only gain the popularity among civilians and during the Jin Dynasty (265—420) it became a prevalence in the upper society and in the succession of Northern Qi and Northern Liang, Taoism gained good graces of the ruler and once play a critical role in court. Taoist activities and ceremonies were held for worship purpose.



Cultural Links

文化链接

魏孝文帝改革风俗

北魏自从太武帝死去后,政治腐败,鲜卑贵族和大商人压迫人民,不断引起北方人民的反抗。公元471年,魏孝文帝即位后,决心采取改革的措施。

魏孝文帝规定了官员的俸禄,严厉惩办贪官污吏;实行了“均田制”,把荒地分配给农民,成年男子每人四十亩,妇女每人二十亩,让他们种植谷物,另外还分给桑地。农民必须向官府交租、服役。农民死了,除桑田外,都要归还官府。这样一来,开垦的田地多了,农民的生产和生活比较稳定,北魏政权的收入也增加了。



魏孝文帝是一个政治上有作为的人,他认为要巩固魏朝的统治,一定要吸收中原的文化,改革一些落后的风俗。为了这个,他决心把国都从平城(今山西大同市东北)迁到洛阳。

他怕大臣们反对迁都的主张,先提出要大规模进攻南齐。有一次上朝,他把这个打算提了出来,大臣纷纷反对,最激烈的是任城王拓跋澄。

孝文帝发火说:“国家是我的国家,你想阻挠我用兵吗?”拓跋澄反驳说:“国家虽然是陛下的,但我是国家的大臣,明知用兵危险,哪能不讲。”

孝文帝想了一下,就宣布退朝,回到宫里,再单独召见拓跋澄,跟他说:“老实告诉你,刚才我向你发火,是为了吓唬大家。我真正的意思是觉得平城是个用武的地方,不适宜改革政治。现在我要移风易俗,非得迁都不行。这回我出兵伐齐,实际上是想借这个机会,带领文武官员迁都中原,你看怎么样?”

拓跋澄恍然大悟,马上同意魏孝文帝的主张。

公元493年,魏孝文帝亲自率领步兵骑兵三十多万南下,从平城出发,到了洛阳。正好碰到秋雨连绵,足足下了一个月,到处道路泥泞,行军发生困难。但是孝文帝仍旧戴盔披甲骑马出城,下令继续进军。

大臣们本来不想出兵伐齐,趁着这场大雨,又出来阻拦。孝文帝严肃地说:“这次我们兴师动众,如果半途而废,岂不是给后人笑话。如果不能南进,就把国都迁到这里。诸位认为怎么样?”

大家听了,面面相觑,没有说话。孝文帝说:“不能犹豫不决了。同意迁都的往左边站,不同意的站在右边。”

一个贵族说:“只要陛下同意停止南伐,那么迁都洛阳,我们也愿意。”许多文武官员虽然不赞成迁都,但是听说可以停止南伐,也都只好表示拥护迁都了。

孝文帝把洛阳一头安排好了,又派任城王拓跋澄回到平城去,向那里的王公贵族,宣传迁都的好处。后来,他又亲自到平城,召集贵族老臣,讨论迁都的事。

平城的贵族中反对的还不少。他们搬出一条条理由,都被孝文帝驳倒了。最后,那些人实在讲不出道理来,只好说:

“迁都是大事,到底是凶是吉,还是卜个卦吧。”

孝文帝说:“卜卦是为了解决疑难不决的事。迁都的事,已经没有疑问,还卜什么。要治理天下的,应该以四海为家,今天走南,明天闯北,哪有固定不变的道理。再说我们上代也迁过几次都,为什么我就不能迁呢?”

贵族大臣被驳得哑口无言,迁都洛阳的事,就这样决定下来了。

孝文帝把国都迁到洛阳以后,决定进一步改革旧的风俗习惯。

有一次,他跟大臣们一起议论朝政。他说:“你们看是移风易俗好,还是因循守旧好?”

咸阳王拓跋禧说:“当然是移风易俗好。”

孝文帝说:“那么我要宣布改革,大家可不能违背。”

接着,孝文帝就宣布几条法令:改说汉语,三十岁以上的人改口比较困难,可以暂缓,三十岁以下、现在朝廷做官的,一律要改说汉语,违反这一条就降职或者撤职;规定官民改穿汉人的服装;鼓励鲜卑人跟汉族的土族通婚,改用汉人的姓。北魏皇室本来姓拓跋,从那时候开始改姓为元。魏孝文帝名元宏,就是用了汉人的姓。

魏孝文帝大刀阔斧的改革,使北魏政治、经济有了较大的发展,也进一步促进了鲜卑族和汉族的融合。

Vocabulary 妙词连珠

Dark Learning 玄学	guard 戒备
wisdom 智慧	prime minister 丞相
symbol 象征	melancholy 忧郁
collective 集体	emperor 皇上
control 控制	confront each other 对峙
strategically located and difficult of access 险要	civil and military ministers 文武大臣
observe 观察	natural barrier 天险
become an official 出山	horsewhip 马鞭
resist 抵抗	morality and justice 道义
have a foothold somewhere 立足	forestall the enemy 先发制人
embezzle 贪污	discourage 挫伤
corrupt 腐败	morale 士气
threaten 威胁	be suspicious 疑神疑鬼
hollow 空虚	retreat 撤
relax 放松	crane 鹤
	grotto 石窟

5 隋唐时期

The Sui Dynasty and the Tang Dynasty

Unit 1 Sui Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The super-emperor died of illness at the age of 22 in AD 581. His father-in-law Yang Jian took the opportunity to usurp the throne and established the Sui Dynasty.
公元 581 年, 只有 22 岁的太上皇病死了, 他的岳父杨坚趁机机夺权, 建立了隋朝。
2. The Sui Dynasty existed for only 37 years. Still, it left its indelible marks on history.
只存在了 37 年的隋朝是一个短命王朝, 但它也在历史上留下了不可磨灭的印迹。
3. The imperial examination system, was in during Sui. With improvements during the Tang Dynasty, it continued to be instituted by later dynasties as the basic system for selecting government officials.
以考试选拔官员的科举制在隋朝开始出现, 它在唐代得到完善并成为此后历代王朝选拔官吏的基本制度。
4. The Grand Canal, running 2 400 kilometers from Beijing in the north to Hangzhou in the south, was a gigantic project comparable to the Great Wall.

长达 2400 多公里、贯通今日的北京和杭州的大运河是长城之后又一项伟大工程。

5. Although Chang'an and Luoyang were world-renowned metropolises of the Tang Dynasty, they were actually built in the Sui Dynasty.
唐代的长安和洛阳是举世闻名的大都市,但它们实际上都是在隋代营建起来的。
6. The fall of Sui was quite similar to that of Qin.
隋朝灭亡的方式与秦朝十分近似。
7. Yang Guang's passion for extravagance and the grandiose was beyond common imagination. Not satisfied with the already magnificent Chang'an city, he ordered the construction of the eastern capital Luoyang and the Grand Canal in the same year he assumed power.
杨广的奢侈和好大喜功到了令人咋舌的地步。宏伟的长安城不能令他满足,他即位伊始就下令营建东都洛阳并在同年开始开凿运河。
8. To boost the strength of the dynasty, Emperor Yang launched three wars on the Korea Peninsula from AD 612 to 614. More than one tenth of the country's population was involved in the wars. The suffering of the people directly led to the fall of Sui.
为了显示国力强盛,他在 612 年至 614 年间 3 次出兵进攻高丽。全国近 1/10 的人口卷入了对高丽的战争,这直接导致了隋朝的崩溃。
9. With uprisings erupting across the land, the Sui Dynasty was torn apart.
起义在全国各地爆发,隋王朝迅速四分五裂。
10. Knowing it was the beginning of the end, Emperor Yang fled to Jiangdu to hide.
自知时日无多的隋炀帝躲到了江都。
11. In AD 618 Emperor Yang was strangled to death by his ministers.
公元 618 年,隋炀帝被臣下勒死。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

By the end of the Northern and Southern Dynasties, China had undergone disunity and chaos for about 270 years. In 577, the Northern Zhou (北周) conquered the Northern Qi (北齐) and reunified the North China. Then in 581, Emperor Wen (隋文帝) who reigned the Northern Zhou founded the Sui Dynasty (隋朝), and held its capital at Chang'an (长安 present Xi'an). After the founding of Sui Dynasty, the emperor carried out a series of military steps to unify the whole country quickly. Finally in 589, Emperor Wen wiped out the Chen Dynasty (陈朝) and reunified the south and the north.

Sui Dynasty lasted for only 38 years with two generations. History shows it was one of the short-lived Chinese dynasties.

Paragraph 2

S 社会经济 Social Economy

A series of economical reforms were necessary in order to overcome the financial crisis with which Emperor Wen was faced. A crisis due to the long period of wars and conflict prior to his succession.

In order to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor, the Sui reverted to the "land equalization system". While controlling the possession of the land by the rich, this law provided for land distribution to all families on the basis of the number of the people in each household. The people were able to farm the land they owned but were precluded from selling it. By permitting people to retain their land holdings much remained in the hands of landlords. Nevertheless, in spite of this, the farmer's enthusiasm



enhanced and great progress in agricultural productivity was achieved during this period.

At the same time, the government unified the coinage, nationalized the mints and standardized weights and measures. Furthermore, Emperor Wen levied lower taxes on the farmers and merchants, greatly promoting the development of social economy.

To improve means of transport between the south and north the construction of the Grand Canal was commenced and completed during the reigns of Emperor Wen and his son, Emperor Yang. This great project connected the Yellow River with the Yangtze River and had the effect of greatly increasing cultural and economic exchange between the two areas.

Moreover, defense works such as the Great Wall, mainly the sections in Ninxia and Inner Mongolia areas, were built in this period to withstand the attack of Tujue (Turks) tribe.

Paragraph 3

T三省六部制 Three Departments and Six Ministries

The Three Departments and Six Ministries System was initiated during the Sui Dynasty (581—618). Subject to some adjustments at different times, the system was employed by subsequent dynasties right up to and including the Qing (1644—1911).

During the Sui Dynasty, the three departments were known as the Shangshu, Menxia and Neishi.

The Shangshu Department was in charge of the administrative affairs of the country.

The Neishi Department dealt with the issue of imperial orders.

The Menxia Department handled the verification of orders and policies.

The three boards restricted and oversaw each other. The senior official of each department was equivalent to Zaixiang, namely prime minister. "Six Ministries" referred to the six branches of the Shangshu Department.

The Ministry of Civil Affairs—responsible for the appointment, training

and dismissal of officials.

The Ministry of Rites—responsible for the emperor's religious obligations and ceremonial, schools, examinations, reception of foreign guests, and selection of officials.

The Ministry of Military Affairs—responsible for the military affairs, such as conscription, training army, declaring war, ordnance, and etc.

The Ministry of Punishments—responsible for law enforcement and judiciary.

The Ministry of Finance—responsible for household registration and finance.

The Ministry of Public Works—responsible for building new facilities and bringing wasteland under cultivation.

Of these, the Ministry of Civil Affairs ranked highest. The senior secretary of each ministry was called Shangshu and the assistant Shilang.

Paragraph 4

T 大运河的开凿 he Grand Canal

The Grand Canal (大运河) of China, also known as the Beijing-Hangzhou Grand Canal (京杭大运河) is the largest ancient canal or artificial river in the world. The oldest parts of the canal can be traced back to 5th century B. C.

In the year of 604, Emperor Yang Jian (杨坚) of Sui Dynasty (隋朝) left Chang'an, and made his rounds in Luoyang. In 605, the emperor gave an order to build two projects: transferring the capital from Chang'an to Luoyang and excavating the Grand Canal linking Beijing and Hangzhou. It took over six years to build the Grand Canal linking all the canals along it and connecting Haihe (海河), Yellow River (黄河), Huaihe (淮河), Yangtze (长江) and Qiantangjiang rivers (钱塘江). The Grand Canal starts north in Beijing and ends south in Hangzhou (杭州) with a total length of 1794 kilometers.

As the earliest and longest man-made canal in the world, the canal is



the economic and cultural communication bridge of the north and south, which was first built in the 5th century BC and was substantially extended twice during the Sui and Yuan dynasties. In nowadays, the speedy urbanization process and the enormous landscape change projects such as the water diverting projects from the south to the north, offer great opportunities to the sustainable development of our country.

Paragraph 5

D 隋朝的衰亡 Decline of Sui Dynasty

The Sui Dynasty's early demise was attributed to the government's tyranny and ceaseless wars.

Emperor Wen died unexpectedly in 604 and his second son Yang Guang, historically known as Emperor Yang, succeeded to the throne. In the early part of his reign Emperor Yang benefited from the reforms introduced by his father and the Sui Dynasty achieved full economic prosperity.

However, lulled by his easy success, Emperor Yang soon began to abuse his power. On the one hand, he continued to carry out lavish construction projects, such as the Great Wall, the Great Canal and the relocation of his capital in Luoyang. On the other, he repeatedly went on pleasure trips and all too frequently launched wars on his neighbors. Some of Emperor Yang's policy did contributed a lot to the social development and the stability of the country, however, they made the ordinary people "all out at the elbows".

Emperor Yang's extravagance and putridness finally led to the exhaustion of the country's resources. Beginning in 613, rebellions broke out one by one. In 616, forced by the chaotic situation, Emperor Yang, retreated to Jiangdu (present Yangzhou City in Jiangsu Province). With the emperor absent, Li Yuan, a general stationed in Taiyuan, conquered Chang'an and put a new emperor on the throne.

In 618, Emperor Yang was murdered in Jiangdu by one of his aides. Quickly, Li Yuan deposed the new emperor and established his own dynas-

ty in Chang'an—the Tang Dynasty, declaring himself Emperor.



Cultural Links

文化链接

制定开皇律

隋文帝在建国之初,便非常重视刑律的建立。开皇元年(581年),即命大臣高、郑译、杨素“更定新律”,即对过去北朝齐、周以来的律令做一次大的改革。开皇三年,又命苏威、牛弘进行第二次改革,主旨在于“权衡轻重,务求平允,废除酷刑,疏而不失”,由是订出刑律十二篇,这就是著名的《开皇律》。

《开皇律》共十二篇,其名为:名例律、卫禁律、职制律、户婚律、厩库律、擅兴律、贼盗律、斗讼律、诈伪律、杂律、捕亡律、断狱律。其篇目虽然是根据《北齐律》所编,但内容却简明得多。《北齐律》定罪九百四十九条,但《开皇律》定罪只五百条;此外死刑只分绞、斩二种,流放服刑不超过五年;杖刑分六十至一百共五等,民有枉屈得依次上诉至朝廷。可见《开皇律》对百姓的压迫,比前代有所减轻,其亦多为后世立法所沿用。炀帝大业二年,又命牛弘重新制定律令,称之为《大业律》,条目虽仍是五百条,但却恢复了酷刑。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

the Sui and the Tang Dynasties 隋唐	以弱胜强
imperial civil examination system	support 拥护
科举制	monarch 君主
warlord 军阀	brilliant 辉煌
a tangled warfare 混战	hinder 妨碍
foresee 预见	perish 消灭
strategy 战略	frank 直爽
defeat a strong and superior force	capture alive 活捉
with a weak and back-ward force	be convinced 服气

admire 佩服

garrison 驻守

supply 供应

cut off 切断

objective 客观

distant 遥远

U 唐朝

Unit 2 Tang Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Tang Dynasty, established by Li Yuan in 618 with its capital at Chang'an (Xi'an).
李渊于公元 618 年建立了唐朝,定都长安(今西安)。
2. During the Tang Dynasty cultural relations were established with many countries, including Japan, Korea, India, Persia and Arabia.
在唐代中国与日本、朝鲜、印度、波斯、阿拉伯等许多国家建立了广泛的经济和文化联系。
3. By the 660s, China's influence had firmly taken root in the Tarim and Zhungcer basin and Ili River valley in today's Xinjiang in the West, even extending to many city-states in Central Asia.
7 世纪 60 年代,中国的力量不仅在塔里木盆地、准噶尔盆地、伊犁河流域牢牢扎根,甚至扩展到中亚的许多城邦。
4. Up to AD 624 the Tang Dynasty had wiped out all opposing forces and united the whole country.
到公元 624 年,唐军基本消灭了所有敌对势力,中国恢复了统一。
5. Emperor Taizong adopted policies of pacification towards smaller ethnic groups, taking military action only against hostile forces.
唐太宗对周边的少数民族采取了以安抚为主的政策,只对威胁唐王朝统治的敌对势力使用武力。
6. Emperor Taizong eventually married Princess Wencheng of the imperial family to him. Princess Wencheng arrived in Tubo in AD 641, bringing with her various grains, vegetables, and fruit seeds. She also brought a large number of books on medicine, engineering, technology, astronomy and calendars.

公元 641 年,文成公主嫁到吐蕃,跟她一起去到那里的还有许多吐蕃没有的粮食和蔬果种子、药材、蚕种以及大批医药、工程技术、天文历法等方面的书籍。

7. The Marriage between Princess Wencheng and King Songtsan Gambo strengthened the good relations between the Han and the Tibetan peoples. It also contributed to the economic and cultural development of the Tibetan people.

文成公主入藏加强了汉藏两族人民的友好联系,促进了藏族经济、文化的发展,具有重要的历史意义。

8. After Emperor Taizong died of illness, his son Li Zhi inherited the throne to become Emperor Gaozong.

唐太宗逝世以后,他的儿子李治当了皇帝,是为唐高宗。

9. An Lushan and his son, along with his subordinate Shi Siming and his son, continued to wage rebellion against the Tang Dynasty. The country was ravaged by war for years on end.

安禄山父子及其部将史思明父子相继统率叛军对抗唐朝,战火经年不息。

10. The open policy of Sui-Tang indicated the self-confidence and great momentum derived from the overall national strength and the advanced spiritual civilization.

文化上的开明和开放,从一个侧面反映了建立在强大的综合国力和高度发达的精神文明基础上的隋唐文化的大气。

11. A gem of the Chinese culture, Tang poetry attained its peak in the celebrated poets Li Bai, Du Fu, Wang Wei and Bai Juyi, who left behind tens of thousands of poems, giving the world an inexhaustible treasure and incomparable heritage.

唐诗是中国文化的瑰宝,诗歌创作在唐代出现了一个高峰,涌现出李白、杜甫、王维、白居易等伟大的诗人,留下了几万首脍炙人口的诗篇。

12. The art of papermaking and block printing was passed on to other nations and continents and as a result the Chinese made a tremendous contribution to the world culture.

造纸术与印刷术传向海外,对世界文化的发展做出了重大的贡献。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The Tang Dynasty (唐朝) (June 18, 618—June 4, 907) followed the Sui Dynasty and preceded the Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms Period in China. The dynasty was interrupted by the Second Zhou Dynasty (October 16, 690—March 3, 705) when Empress Wu Zetian seized the throne. The dynasty was founded by the Li (李) family.

The Tang Dynasty, with its capital at Chang'an (present-day Xi'an), the most populous city in the world at the time, is regarded by historians as a high point in Chinese civilization—equal to or surpassing that of the Han Dynasty. Its territory, acquired through the military campaigns of its early rulers, was greater than that of the Han period, and rivaled that of the later Yuan Dynasty and Qing Dynasty.

Paragraph 2

E 唐朝的建立 Establishment

Li Yuan, who was a former governor under the Sui dynasty rose in rebellion after being urged on by his second son (later Tang Taizong). Li Yuan installed a puppet child emperor of the Sui dynasty in 617 but he eventually removed the child emperor and established the Tang dynasty in 618. Li Yuan ruled until 626 before being deposed by his son, Li Shimin, known



as “Tang Taizong” in history. Taizong then set out to solve internal problems within the government. Internal problems had constantly plagued past dynasties. The Emperor had three administrations (省, shěng), which were obliged to draft, review, and implement policies respectively. There were also six divisions (部, bù) under the administration that implemented policy, each of which was assigned different tasks.

It was during the Tang dynasty that the only female ruler of China, Empress Wu Zetian, made her mark. Her rule was one of only a handful of examples in which women seized power and ruled China, and was the only example of a woman who ruled in her own right.

The 7th to the 8th century was generally considered the zenith point of the Tang dynasty, and arguably the whole Chinese civilization. Emperor Tang Xuanzong brought the Middle Kingdom to its golden age and Tang hegemony reached all the way to Japan and Korea in the east, Indochina in the south and central and western Asia in the west. China was the protector of Kashmir and master of the Pamirs. Its authority as far as Tokmak in present-day Uzbekistan (west of Lake Issyk Kul in Kyrgyzstan), Tohuolu or Kabul in Afghanistan, and as far west as the Aral Sea and the Caspian Sea.

Some of the major kingdoms paying tribute to the Tang Dynasty included Kashmir, Neparo (Nepal), Vietnam, Japan, Korea, over nine kingdoms located in Amu Darya and Syr Darya valley in south of mid-Asia. Nomadic kingdoms addressed the Emperor of Tang respectfully as Tian Kehan (Celestial Kaghan) (天可汗). Due to its prosperity, the Tang dynasty was also an era of development of a highly educated society. The Tang dynasty became synonymous to the birth of famous poems and literatures created by individuals such as Li Bai, Du Fu, Meng Haoran and many others. They wrote some of the most famous poems of their time which are still recited to this day.



Paragraph 3

P贞观之治 rosperity of Zhenguan

The Tang Dynasty (618—907) witnessed the first period of florescence in the reign (627—649) of Emperor Taizong, which was called the Prosperity of Zhenguan, an era of peace and prosperity.

During his 23 years of reign, Taizong did more for the empire than any emperor before him. Through firm leadership and a positive example, the new emperor set about reforming agriculture, manufacturing and commerce. In his words: the waters can both float and capsize a vessel. This view led to humane policies, a strong economy and the commercial enterprise, which became second to none throughout the known world.

Political progress was achieved by the overhaul of the examination system first introduced by the Sui Dynasty (581—618) for the appointment of officials. This system ensured only the best men regardless of their class or background could be appointed to vital posts within the government of the country. Political corruption was virtually unknown as a result of these sound administrative structures. He adopted favorable policies for agriculture to reduced taxes and reward farming.

Taizong endeavored to promote exchanges between nations. Princess Wencheng left Chang'an (present-day Xi'an in Shaanxi Province) to marry Songtsan Gambo, king of the Tubo kingdom, which was located about 3 000 kilometers to the west. This pioneered amicable relations between the Tang and the Tubo and contributed to the development of China as a multinational country.

Paragraph 4

H开元盛世 heyday of Kaiyuan

During the Kaiyuan reign (713—741) of Emperor Xunzong, Tang (618—907) Empire justifiably became the largest, richest, most sophisti-



cated state in the world at that time.

In the first year of Kaiyuan reign (713), Emperor Xuanzhong was able to pacify political chaos and brought a peaceful and prosperous life to his people. During his reign, Xuanzhong started construction on irrigation works and attached importance to commerce. People enjoyed their safe and comfortable lives with abundant food and cloth, cheap products and convenient transportation. The prosperity of economy contributed to the development of literature and art, in which Tang poems earned the most credit. Artworks in music, painting and sculpture also achieved great success.

Greatly and widely admired abroad, the influence of Tang in the Kaiyuan reign spread to Asia, Europe and Africa. Neighboring countries sought and established ties with the empire and Chang'an (today's Xi'an City) became the center of cultural exchange between the East and the West.

Paragraph 5

L 文学与艺术 Literature and Art

The Tang period was the golden age of Chinese literature and art. A government system supported by a large class of Confucian literati selected through civil service examinations was perfected under Tang rule. But perhaps an even greater consideration for the Tang rulers, aware that imperial dependence on powerful aristocratic families and warlords would have destabilizing consequences, was to create a body of career officials having no autonomous territorial or functional power base. As it turned out, these scholar-officials acquired status in their local communities, family ties, and shared values that connected them to the imperial court. From Tang times until the closing days of the Qing Empire in 1911, scholar officials functioned often as intermediaries between the grassroots level and the government.



B 佛教 Buddhism in Tang Dynasty

Buddhism had been introduced to China via the Silk Road during the Western Han Dynasty (206 BC—24 AD). After five hundred years of peaks and troughs, it reached its height during the Tang Dynasty. Chang'an, the capital became the main center of Buddhist learning in East Asia. Monasteries and temples were built throughout the country in order to bring the teachings to the people. Some of the emperors adopted Buddhism as their religion. Due to its dominance during the Tang Dynasty, the influence of Buddhism can be seen in a variety of aspects of social life.

The expansion enjoyed by the faith resulted in an increase in temples and the numbers of monks. Shaolin Monastery, one of the most famous Buddhist temples in China, amassed wealth and influence during the Tang and became a place of pilgrimage for both monks and laymen alike. In the capital, Chang'an (present day Xi'an), Daxingshan Temple, Straw Hut Temple, Xingjiao Si and Xiangji Temple still exist as witness to the glory of Buddhism during the Tang era.

The spread of Buddhism in China increased mutual understanding and links with other countries, promoting friendly relations and cultural exchanges. Many monks traveled into India. The Big White Goose Pagoda and Small White Goose Pagoda serve as reminders of these famous pioneers, such as Monk Xuanzang (602—664), who was a prominent Buddhist traveller and translator and Monk Yijing.

Xuanzang, concerned by the diversification of Buddhism at home, decided to go to India in order to study original texts and teachings. He left Chang'an in 629 to make his pilgrimage. After seventeen years of untold hardships and a journey of some 50 000 kilometers, Xuanzang returned to China bringing with him a large volume of Buddhist scriptures. He then spent twelve years at the Da Ci'en Temple translating the scriptures. The famous novel A Journey to the West is based on his true story.



Another famous monk worthy of mention is Jianzhen (688—763). He was invited to preach in Japan and finally arrived there after five abortive attempts to undertake the journey there. His statue is still enshrined in some Japanese temples to this day.

Paragraph 7

C商业贸易 Commerce

The rapid growth of both agriculture and manufacturing industry enabled commerce to flourish and created the need for an improved transport system.

So as to speed the transport of grain from the rich area around the Yangtze River to the north of the country, the Grand Canal was extended. Yilu (post roads) were opened running through the country and stimulating trade. The famous Silk Road enabled trade to flourish between China, central Asia and Arabia. After the Rebellion of An and Shi, the Silk Road by sea blossomed. Merchant ships from countries in Asia and Africa flooded in with cargos of spices, medicines and jewellery to be exchanged for Chinese silks and porcelain.

The capital, Chang'an, became the richest and most populous city in the world. It had one million inhabitants, including people from other ethnic groups and countries. Fortified with a wall and moat, the city was divided into quarters including two markets full of shops and stores. These included more than two hundred types of businesses dealing in a wide variety of goods from home and abroad.

Paragraph 8

M军事力量 Military Power

The Sui had instituted an army of professional soldiers known as Fubing, a basis for a standing army that was adopted by the Tang. Military service was rotated between defence of the national frontiers and duty in



the capital. Using this army together with auxiliaries recruited from ethnic groups the Tang rulers pushed back invaders and so extended their territorial control beyond China proper. At its peak of power, the Tang controlled large parts of central Asia all the way into Iran as well as Manchuria, most of the Korean peninsula and into the Ili Valley. The Tang became the greatest power in Asia.

Paragraph 9

F外交 Foreign Relations

The Tang Dynasty also marked a golden age of relations with foreign powers. The excellence of its advanced civilization rendered the Chinese Empire the envy of countries throughout Asia, Europe and Africa. Each in their turn sent envoys and merchants to trade with the Tang, whose empire was to become a world center for trade and cultural exchange.

The Tang was trading with more than seventy countries. To foster this trade, the government allowed tax concessions to foreigners, who were permitted to settle in China and to marry Chinese citizens. Some even went on to secure positions within the government. Many foreign countries began to call the Chinese “Tang people”, an appellation that survives in some countries to this day.

Paragraph 10

A安史之乱 An Shi Rebellion

The An Shi Rebellion (安史之乱) occurred in China, during the Tang Dynasty, from 756 to 763. It is also known as the Tianbao Rebellion (天宝之乱), because An Lushan started it in the 14th year of the namesake era. The alternative term An Lushan Rebellion neglected the participation of Shi Siming, a subordinate of An Lushan and later leader of the rebellion after murdering An Lushan's son An Qingxu.

An Lushan was a general of non-Han Chinese ancestry. He was ap-



pointed by the emperor Tang Xuanzhong to be commander (节度使) of three garrisons in the north, Pinglu, Fanyang and Hedong, in effect giving An Lushan control over the entire area north of the lower reaches of the Yellow River. With such power and land in his control (the total military power of An Lushan in those three garrisons alone was about 164 thousand strong), An Lushan planned a revolt, taking advantage of the decadent Tang bureaucracy and the absence of strong troops around the palace to achieve his aims. He avoided suspicion by pleasing the Emperor in as many ways as possible, even calling himself the adopted son of Xuanzhong's favorite concubine, Yang Guifei. In this way, he was protected from criticism, even when the Chief Minister, Yang Guozhong, demanded his dismissal.

In 755, An Lushan revolted under the pretense of punishing Yang Guozhong. His army surged down from Fanyang in modern Hebei province, moving rapidly along the Grand Canal and capturing the city of Luoyang within the year. There, An Lushan declared himself the Emperor of the Great Yan dynasty (大燕皇帝). He was blocked from the imperial capital at Chang'an by loyal troops placed in impregnable defensive positions in the intervening mountain passes. However, Yang Guozhong, with grossly inept military judgement, ordered the troops in the passes to attack An's army on open ground. They were demolished, and the road to the capital lay open. Seeing that Chang'an was now under imminent threat, Xuanzong fled to Sichuan. On the way at Mawei Inn in Shaanxi, Xuanzong's bodyguard troops demanded the death of the much-hated Yang Guozhong, and his cousin, Lady Yang. With the army on the verge of mutiny, the Emperor had no choice but to agree, ordering the execution of Yang Guozhong and the suicide of Lady Yang. Meanwhile, the crown prince, the eventual emperor, fled in the other direction to Lingwu in modern-day Ningxia province. After reaching Sichuan, Xuanzong abdicated in favour of his son.

Suzong, (3rd or 4th) son of Xuanzong, was then proclaimed emperor, although another group of local officials and Confucian literati proclaimed another prince at Jinling (modern-day Nanjing). One of Suzong's first acts as emperor was to appoint the generals Guo Ziyi and Li Guangbi to

deal with the rebellion. The generals, after much discussion, decided to borrow troops from an offshoot of the Turkish Tujue Tribe, the Huihe tribe (ancestors of the modern-day Uighurs) to suppress the rebellion. In this way the Imperial forces recaptured Chang'an and Luoyang.

Meanwhile the imperial forces were helped by internal dissent in the newly-formed dynasty. An Lushan was killed by his son, An Qingxu not long after his ascent to the throne. (An's virulent paranoia posed too much of a threat to his entourage.) His son was then killed by the subordinate Shi Siming, a companion of An Lushan during the rebellion; he recaptured the city of Luoyang soon after. However Shi Siming was then killed by his own son, Shi Chaoyi. By this time, it was clear that the new kingdom would not last long, and generals and soldiers alike started to defect to the Tang army. Finally after Luoyang was taken by the Tang forces for the second time, Shi Chaoyi committed suicide in 763, thus ending the 8-year long rebellion.

The rebellion spanned the reigns of three emperors, starting during the reign of Xuanzong and ending during the reign of Daizong. The toll of dead and missing caused by the rebellion according to various sources, including suppression and famine, is estimated at 36 million, which was 2/3 of the total tax roll population. Numerically, this was the highest death toll for any event for nearly 1200 years, until World War II surpassed it with over 62 million deaths. The Tang Dynasty's desire for peace after this turbulent period also resulted in the pardoning of many rebels. Indeed, some were even given their own garrisons to command. This effectively ended rule by the central government, with the emperor becoming only a puppet of sorts, set to do the strongest garrison's bidding. In addition, by borrowing troops from neighbouring tribes, the Tang Dynasty greatly lowered its prestige in the eyes of the barbarians, who eventually began raiding Tang settlements again. (So far had Tang power collapsed during the rebellion that Chang'an was briefly occupied by the Tibetan army in 764.)

Thus, the An-Shi Rebellion is regarded by most Chinese historians to be the turning point in the Tang Dynasty's fortunes. For the next 144 years



the Tang ceased to exist in all but name, a far cry from the glory days under Taizong and Xuanzong.

Paragraph 11

F 大唐衰落 fall of Tang Dynasty

Near the end of the Tang Dynasty, regional military governors took advantage of their increasing power and began to function more like independent regimes on their own right. At the same time, natural causes such as droughts and famine due to internal corruptions and incompetent emperors contributed to the rise of a series of rebellions. The Huang Chao rebellion of the 9th century, which resulted in the sacking of both Chang'an and Luoyang was the most destructive and took over 10 years to suppress. In 907, after almost 300 years in power, the dynasty was ended when one of the military governors, Zhu Wen, deposed the last emperor and took the throne for himself which thereby inaugurated the Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms Period.



Cultural Links

文化链接

唐朝统一全国

唐朝建立时,各派政治力量继续在进行角逐。李渊则以关中为根据地,不断发展自己的力量,着手进行统一全国的战争。

当时,威胁唐政权的是陇右的薛举、河西的李轨、河东的刘武周。不过,这三处势力较弱,所以,唐朝先集中力量消灭这三大敌人。武德元年(618年)六月,李世民率唐军攻打金城的薛举、薛仁果父子,九月,薛举死,至十一月,薛仁果兵败出降,唐军占有了陇右地区。武德二年(619年)五月,唐又以反间计使李轨集团内部矛盾激化,从而俘虏了李轨,不费刀兵便尽有河西之地。

李渊兵进关中时,留下四子李元吉守太原,刘武周勾结突厥攻破太原,长驱南下至河东。武德三年(620年),李世民率军还击,消灭了刘武周,恢复了对代北的统治。

经过三次军事政治活动,唐朝不仅关中根据地巩固了,而且扩大了地盘,势力得到发展,可以集中力量经营中原和江南,实现统一目标。

到武德三年,瓦岗军已瓦解,山东大部分郡县已降唐,幽州的罗艺也归附了唐朝。中原地区还有洛阳的王世充和河北军窦建德两大势力。武德三年七月,李世民率唐军进攻洛阳,王世充不支,便向窦建德求援。武德四年(621年)二月,窦建德率军援助王世充。李世民与窦建德相峙于虎牢。五月,李世民唐军大败窦建德,窦建德被俘,七天后王世充投降。此后至武德六年(623年)唐军镇压了河北地区刘黑闥起义军,割据鲁南的徐园朗、割据冀北的高开道,相继败亡。唐朝在河南、河北、山东地区确立了自己的统治。

武德四年九月,李渊命李孝恭、李靖率军进攻占有两湖地区的萧铣。萧铣在江陵请降,不久,岭南各地也归附唐朝。江淮地区的杜伏威,早在武德二年便已降唐,并被封为吴王、尚书令,武德五年(622年)调往长安。部将辅公柘便于武德六年八月起兵反唐,第二年被镇压,江南平定。

到武德七年(624年),除朔方的梁师都以外,唐朝已在全国建立了自己的统治。梁师都依靠突厥贵族的庇护,才得以割据朔方。贞观二年(628年),唐太宗乘突厥衰乱,派兵攻灭了梁师都。这样,唐朝重新统一了全国。

李渊、李世民父子,利用了农民起义的力量消灭隋军主力,削弱割据势力的大好时机,依靠了自己的政治军事经验,完成了统一全国的宏伟事业。一个统一强大的唐帝国,出现在中国历史上和屹立于世界的东方。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

neglect one's duty 失职

put sb. in an important position 重用

heir 继承人

conquer 征服

capture alive 活捉

any menace from the rear 后顾之忧

give up 放弃

tactics 策略

be broken down slowly 拖垮

sneer at 耻笑

fright sb. off 吓跑

be right and proper 名正言顺

will 遗嘱

doubt 怀疑

commemorate 悼念

officers and soldiers 将士

expand 扩张

seize 夺取

compete 较量

assault 攻打

6

宋辽金时期

The Dynasties of Song, Liao and Jin

U

五代十国

Unit 1

Five Dynasties and Ten States



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. Following the Tang Dynasty came a period of almost continual warfare known as the Five Dynasties and Ten States.
唐亡后,经历了五代十国战乱频繁的时期。
2. From AD 907 to 960, five regimes ruled the north of the country successively, namely Later Liang, Later Tang, Later Jin, Later Han, and Later Zhou. These 53 years have come to be known as the Five Dynasties period.
从 907 年到 960 年,中国北方先后出现了后梁、后唐、后晋、后汉、后周 5 个政权,这就是“五代”时期。
3. During the same period ten regional regimes ruled the other parts of the country, including Former Shu, Later Shu, Southern Tang, Wuyue, Northern Han, etc. They were called the Ten States.
同一时期,其他地区也相继出现了许多地方割据势力,其中影响相对较大的有前蜀、后蜀、南唐、吴越、北汉等十个区域政权,也就是所谓的“十国”。
4. Later Liang existed for 17 years, the longest of the Five Dynasties.
后梁存在了 17 年,是五代中最长命的政权。



5. With the support of the Khitan emperor, Shi Jingtang soon destroyed Later Tang and become ruler of the north, moving his capital to Kaifeng.

石敬瑭在契丹支持下很快灭掉了后唐,成为中国北方的主人,并把都城迁到了开封。

6. The Khitan emperor adopted the Han-style reign title of Liao in AD 947 and set about taking control of the entire north.

契丹在公元 947 年按汉族的仪式改国号为辽,打算逐渐控制中国北方。

7. The rule of Later Han lasted for only three years, replaced in AD 951 by the Later Zhou Dynasty set up by General Guo Wei of Later Han.

后汉的统治只持续了短短的三年。公元 951 年,后汉大将郭威建立了后周政权。

8. Later Zhou was a politically upright regime. Guo Wei's adopted son and successor Chai Rong, Emperor Shizong, was an able monarch.

后周是五代时期一个政治比较清明的政权,郭威的养子、后继者周世宗柴荣更是一个有为的君主。

9. In AD 959 Emperor Shizong led Later Zhou troops on an expedition against Liao, winning successive victories, reclaiming large swathes of land.

公元 959 年,周世宗率军北伐,后周军连战连捷,从辽国手中收复了大片土地。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

Chinese feudalism experienced the later period of its ascendancy during the Five Dynasties, the Song and the Yuan. This was also a period of



transition from separate feudal regimes to the establishment of a central authority over the whole country. By the Five Dynasties are meant the later Liang, the Later Tang, the Later Jin, the Later Han and the Later Zhou. These states had all been founded at one time or another, between 907 to 960 on China's Central Plains. During this period there were altogether 13 emperors who ruled for a total of 53 years. Between 960 and 1279 there were the Northern Song and the Southern Song dynasties, jointly known as the Song Dynasty. There were 9 emperors of 7 generations during the Northern Song, covering a period from 960 to 1127. There were 7 emperors of 7 generations during the Southern Song, covering the period from 1127 to 1276. The Yuan Dynasty had 11 emperors of 6 generations between 1271 and 1368. During the Five Dynasties, there were in addition ten small kingdoms known as the Ten States and also the state of Liao established, there were in North China the Liao, the Xixia (Western Xia), the Jin and the Mongol regimes and, in the southern and western parts of the country, such kingdoms as Gaochang, Xiliao (Western Liao), Tubo and Dali. Though its capital was taken by the enemy as early as 1276, the Southern Song carried on its anti-Yuan struggle until 1279.

Paragraph 2

T五代 **he Five Dynasties**

There were five successive dynasties that dominated the Yellow River Valley in this period. They were the Later Liang (907—923), Later Tang (923—936), Later Jin (936—946), Later Han (947—950), and Later Zhou (951—960). The prefix “Later” was added to distinguish these dynasties from the earlier ruling houses of the same name.

The actual territorial limits varied from one dynasty to another with the Later Liang ruling the smallest while the Later Tang controlled the largest of them. Each dynasty was founded by the frontier commanders of their former states. Military expansion, frequent warfare and administrative change became the hall mark of the period.



Paragraph 3

T十国 he Ten States

The Ten States in the Five Dynasties period included the state of Wu founded by Yang Xingmi, the state of Wuyue by Qian Liu, the state of Southern Han by Liu Yian, the state of Chu by Ma Yin, the state of Former Shu by Wang Jian and finally, the state of Min by Wang Shenzhi. 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 part of the Tang Dynasty. Gao Jixing, a garrison commander during the period of the Later Liang had been exterminated. The state was the smallest among the Ten States. The state of Later Shu founded by Meng Zhixiang, the state of Southern Tang by Xu Zhigao, and the state of Northern Han by Liu Chong appeared somewhat later than the others, as they were established, respectively, towards the end of the Later Tang, early during the Later Jin, and early during the Later Zhou.

Paragraph 4

C文化 ulture

Regardless of the chaos which prevailed during this period, it was important in terms of Chinese culture.

1. Printing

Facilitated by the advancements made in printing and despite the political changes of the period, there remained a high regard for cultural tradition. During the period 932 to 953 the first of the Nine Confucian Classics was published by the Imperial Academy. This became the prototype for all subsequent editions.

2. Art

The noteworthy developments in the field of art during this time were twofold. The first was the continued refinement of the techniques used in



the production of porcelain. The translucent porcelain was used throughout China and was widely sought abroad, thus becoming a valuable export.

The second development was in painting. A distinctive style known as Wu-tai painting “monumental ink landscapes” dominated. This was inspired by the Taoist notion that mountains were essentially sacred pillars linking heaven and earth. Artists, using black ink on silk, depicted the natural world as the source of harmony and enlightenment.

Gu Hongzhong’s painting the “Evening Feasting held by Han Xizai” is a highly revered work of this period.

Paragraph 5

E 分裂的结束 End of the Division

Towards the end of the Five Dynasties, Guo Wei, emperor of the Later Zhou, introduced political and economical reforms. Rents and taxes were reduced, sentences for committing crimes lightened, and corrupt officials punished. Favourable conditions for agricultural production were thus created. Hundreds of thousands of people flocked from other places to the Later Zhou for settlement. In 954, shortly after Guo Wei died, Liu Chong of the Northern Han, who had jurisdiction over present-day Shanxi Province, formed an alliance with the khitan to attack the Later Zhou. Chai Rong took personal command of the Later Zhou’s army and engaged Liu Chong at Gaoping (modern Gaoping County, Shanxi) where he exacted a heavy toll of the Northern Han army. Liu Chong fled with a hundred or so of his surviving cavalymen. After this battle, Chai Rong began to think seriously of unifying the country. He rectified the discipline of his army. To rehabilitate the agricultural economy of the Central Plains, he paid attention to a fair exaction of rents and taxes and the construction of water conservancy projects. With his territory extending as far south as the northern bank of the Yangtse River, he succeeded in recovering a number of strategic points from Khitan, such as Ningzhou (modern Qingxian County, Hebei), Yijianguan Pass and Yukouguan Pass (modern Baxian County, Hebei), Waqiaoguan Pass (mod-

ern Xiongxian County, Hebei), Mozhou (modern Renqiu County, Hebei), Yingzhou (modern Hejian County, Hebei). All this had paved the way for the Northern Song, during a later period, to bring to an end of the prolonged division of the country and to establish a central authority over all of China.



Cultural Links

文化链接

五代十国时期的南方经济

1. 制茶业与瓷器

五代时期,南方的制茶业最为发达,统治者和民间都十分重视茶叶的生产。楚王马殷“令民自造茶”,每年仅向中原王朝贡茶就达 25 万斤。南唐在建安地区(福建西北部)有茶焙(制茶场所)1336 处,其中官焙 38 处。当时,茶叶已成为重要的商品,南平首都江陵是当时全国最大的茶市。

瓷器业的进步也很快。吴越的越州秘色瓷器,胎质釉色都比以前有进步,是当时瓷器的最上品,专供吴越王室使用,也用来贡献给中原诸王朝。同时,越窑还产“金扣”(镶边)瓷器,动辄以万计,是向外输出的大宗商品,可见当时越窑的烧造技艺已经很高。

织染业同样有新的发展。丝织方面规模日益扩大。在杭州城内,专为吴越王织锦的工人就有二百多人,在染色方面,南唐时发明了一种“天水碧”的颜色,由宫女“染碧(青绿色),夕露于中庭,为露所染,其色特好”。故名“天水碧”。

2. 繁荣的大都市

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、七宝市,市场交易量很大。此外,当时的海上贸易也相当活跃。

可以说,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。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

enforce 推行	salary 薪水
crown prince 太子	embezzle 贪污
imperial court 朝廷	punish 惩办
regime 政权	conservative 保守
relative 相对	noble 贵族
empress 皇后	humble 低微
take charge of 主持	reduce to a lower rank 降职
government administration 政务	dismiss from office 罢官
deserted 荒废	investigate 考察
registered permanent residence 户口	merge 融合
tax revenue 税收	



U 宋朝

Unit 2 Song Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. In 960, Zhao Kuangyin, a general of the State of Later Zhou, established the Song Dynasty (960—1279).
公元960年,后周大将赵匡胤建立了宋朝(960—1279年)。
2. China in the Song Dynasty was in the forefront of the world in astronomy, science and technology.
宋代天文、科技均居世界前列。
3. Bi Sheng invented movable type printing in the 1040s, ushering in a major revolution in the history of printing.
毕昇于1040年代发明的活字印刷,堪称人类印刷史上的一大革命。
4. During the Song-Yuan period, the “four great inventions” in science and technology of the Chinese people in ancient times — paper-making, printing, the compass and gunpowder — were further developed, and spread abroad.
造纸、印刷术、指南针、火药是中国古代科技的“四大发明”,至宋元时期成熟并相继传到世界各地。
5. Zhao Kuangyin became the first emperor, Taizu, of the Song Dynasty, which was to last for more than 300 years.
赵匡胤成了宋太祖,统治中国三百多年的宋王朝也从此建立了。
6. Zhao Kuangyi succeeded his elder brother to become Emperor Taizong of the Song Dynasty.
赵匡胤死后,他的弟弟赵光义继位,是为宋太宗。



7. The Song Dynasty had the smallest of territories of all the Chinese dynasties.

宋朝是中国历史上(统一的)王朝中疆域最小的一个。

8. The northern part of the country was always under the control of one or another smaller ethnic group.

这期间中国北部边疆始终在少数民族政权控制之下。

9. Yuanhao assumed the title of emperor in 1038 and established the Western Xia regime, with the capital in Xingqing (present-day Yinchuan, Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region). War ensued with Song after the establishment of Western Xia.

公元 1038 年,元昊自称皇帝,建立西夏政权,都城在兴庆(今宁夏银川)。宋与西夏之间的战争从此开始。

10. In 1044, the Song Dynasty reached a peace accord with Western Xia, with the former buying the latter's nominal subordination with a vast amount of money. The two sides were at peace with each other for nearly 20 years.

公元 1044 年,西夏与宋达成和议,宋朝以大量钱财换取西夏名义上的臣附,两国间维持了近二十年的和平。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

The fall of the Tang Dynasty and the disruption of the empire did not mean an obvious break with the past. The Five Dynasties were all eager to reunify China and the Later Zhou (后周) had brought much of the country back under a single governance by 959 AD. The ruling elite remained unaltered and the civil service continued the routine tasks of government with no serious disruption. The Ten States in the south showed the same obvious



continuity and the examination system there continued. When Zhao Kuangyin (赵匡胤) seized power by a coup in Chenqiao (陈桥兵变) in 960 AD, he was able to consolidate and extend his control in a methodical manner. The Song Dynasty that he founded has been divided into two periods. Firstly, the Northern Song (北宋) when the capital was in Kaifeng (开封) from 960 to 1127. Secondly, the Southern Song (南宋), with the capital in present day Hangzhou (杭州) from 1127 to 1279.

During the Song Dynasty, there were many threats from the northern borders by the Khitans (契丹) from the Liao Dynasty (辽国), Tanguts from the Western Xia (西夏) Dynasty, and the Jurchens (女真) from the Jin dynasty (金国). The Song dynasty itself can be divided into two distinct periods: the Northern Song and Southern Song. The Northern Song (北宋, 960—1127) signifies the time when the Song capital was in the northern city of Kaifeng (开封) and the dynasty controlled most of inner China. The Southern Song (南宋, 1127—1279) refers to the time after the Song lost control of northern China to the Jurchen Jin dynasty. The Song court retreated south of the Yangtze River (长江) and made their capital in Hangzhou (杭州).

Paragraph 2

N北宋 Northern Song Dynasty

In 959, following the death of Emperor Shizong who had been a wise monarch, a seven year old child succeeded to the throne as Emperor Gong. In the next year, Zhao Kuangyin seized power and forced Emperor Gong to abdicate in his favour. Zhao took the name Taizu and established his capital city in Dongjing (present city of Kaifeng). His first task was to ensure that there would be no further military coups and he did this by establishing a professional army loyal to the dynasty with its military commanders under the strict control of the central government. For the remainder of his reign, Taizu concentrated his efforts upon winning over the southern states. Such was his success that by the time of his death in 976 apart



from Zhejiang, Shanxi, Nanzhao and the area ruled by the Khitan, the country had come under Song's control. The activities of the warlords had been brought to an end.

Taizu was succeeded by his brother, Taizong who brought Zhejiang and Shanxi back into the fold. He was unsuccessful in his two attempts to drive out the Khitan and was forced to deal with them on equal terms. From then on the Song Dynasty sought to defend its borders against invasion and unlike the Tang never ruled a universal empire.

Important steps were taken to strengthen the administration under the autocratic control of the emperor. These developments were supported by important changes in the recruitment to the bureaucracy and the running of the examination system. The control over the military and the replacement of aristocratic power with something akin to a meritocracy brought about a stability that allowed the country to enjoy a period of prosperity due to the expansion of industry, commerce and agriculture. These factors in turn led to the development of new cities as centres of administration, trade, commerce and industry.

The period of reforms lasted until the death of Emperor Shenzong in 1086. From that time onwards there was a decline due to differences between ruling factions and rebellions by peasants. The increased military skills of the three rival powers, the Liao, Jin and Western Xia meant they were able to take advantage of the weakened country and in 1126 the Jin army conquered Kaifeng after a long siege. In the following year the Northern Song Emperor was deposed and along with his son was taken off to Manchuria.

Paragraph 3

J靖康之变 Jingkang Incident

The first 25 years at the beginning of the 12th century saw the darkest age ruled by the fatuous and self-indulgent Emperor Huizong. Although Huizong usefully kept down the two large-scale peasant uprisings, his dy-



nasty was doomed with the rising Nuzhen tribe.

There lived in the Changbai Mountains and the Helongjiang Valley the ancestors of the Nuzhen people long before. The name “Nuzhen” did not appear in historical records until the Five Dynasties Period (907—960) when it was under the control of the Khitan. In 1115, the great headman of the Nu zhen tribe Wanyan Aguda established a new dynasty — the Jin Dynasty in 1115 and proclaimed himself emperor. Historically, Wanyan Aguda was called as Emperor Taizu. In 1125, the emperor of Liao surrendered to Jin and the state of Liao came to its end. Then Jin started to invade Northern Song. In 1127, Emperors Huizong and Qinzong were deposed, ending the Northern Song Dynasty (960—1127). This event was referred to as Catastrophe of Jingkang in the history.

In the same year, Zhao Gou, the younger brother of Song Emperor Qinzong, ascended the throne in Yingtianfu (today's Nanjing) after the withdrawal of the Jin troops, and later moved the capital to Lin'an (western Hangzhou City of Zhejiang Province). Zhao Gou still called his regime the “Great Song”, which became known as the Southern Song, and chose the reign title of Jianyan.

Paragraph 4

R北宋王安石变法 Reform Instituted by Wang Anshi as Prime Minister

The Northern Song Dynasty suffered poverty as well as weakness. The redundancy of officials and soldiers, and extravagant expenditure resulted in a severe financial crisis. Ever since the early years of the Song Dynasty, peasant uprisings had increased and the royal government faced political crisis. Although it maintained a large army, they lost every battle in the war with the Liao Regime and the Western Xia Regime. Therefore, it had to pay them a great deal of money every year. Since its founding, the Northern Song Dynasty had struggled in misery and crises, never having a strong national power.

A sense of misery impelled many reformers of political foresight to initi-

ate reform and seek the way to build a prosperous country with efficient military forces. In 1069, Song Shenzong, Emperor who was eager to find the way of governing the country, appointed Wang Anshi, vice prime minister, to carry out reform. The reform was pursued mainly in financial and military areas.

The chief content and purpose of Wang Anshi's political reform lay in bringing about national prosperity and powerful military forces. He restrained himself from putting forward such crucial proposals as reducing the number of redundant officials, cutting down redundant expenditure and controlling annexation of land. His reform achieved remarkable success in the increase of national revenue, the construction of water conservancy works, and the improvement of combat effectiveness. In spite of this, the old liners were still strongly opposed to the reform, throwing obstacles in its way. After Song Shenzong's death, the conservatives came to power, and the reform ended in failure.

Paragraph 5

S南宋 Southern Song Dynasty

The military weakness of the Northern Song (960—1127) eventually took its toll. In 1127, the Jin army sacked the Northern Song capital of Kaifeng, taking Emperor Huizong and most of his family hostage. Huizong's ninth son, Zhaogou, fled to the south. That same year, the Song court re-established itself in Lin'an (present Hangzhou City), where it continued to rule for another 150 years as the Southern Song Dynasty. Zhaogou is known historically as Emperor Gaozong.

The period of the Southern Song is neither a period of power nor stability and the dynasty only controlled the area south of the Yangtze River. When the dynasty was newly established, instead of appointing competent people to carry out reforms and devise effective defensive strategies, Emperor Gaozong did the opposite. By blocking the efforts of his talented Prime Minister Ligang he reversed the dominant military strategy from one

of active resistance to passive defence. In addition, talented people were supplanted and less able and often incapable ones were appointed to very important positions.

Paragraph 6

S南宋抗金 **Southern Song's Resistance Against the Jin**

Before the arrival of the Jurchens the Song Dynasty for centuries was engaged in a stand-off against the Western Xia and the Khitan Liao Dynasty. This balance was disrupted when the Song Dynasty developed a military alliance with the Jurchens in annihilating the Liao Dynasty. This balance of power disrupted, the Jurchens then turned on the Song Dynasty, resulting in the fall of the Northern Song and the subsequent establishment of the Southern Song.

A new triangular arrangement was formed, between the Song, Jin and Western Xia. The Southern Song deployed several military commanders, among them Yue Fei and Han Shizhong. Yue Fei in particular had been preparing to recapture Kaifeng (or Bianjing as the city was known during the Song period), the former capital of the Song dynasty and the then southern capital of the Jin dynasty, after a streak of uninterrupted military victories. The possible defeat of the Jurchens however threatened the power of the new emperor of the Southern Song, Gaozong and his premier Qin Hui. The reason was that Qinzong, the last emperor of the Northern Song was living in Jin-imposed exile in Manchuria and had a good chance of being recalled to the throne should the Jin Dynasty be destroyed. Emperor Gaozong signed the Treaty of Shaoxing in 1141, which conceded most of the territory regained through the efforts of Yue Fei. Yue Fei in particular was executed under the terms of the treaty in 1142.



A 宋朝的艺术、文化与经济 Arts, Culture and Economy

The founders of the Song dynasty built an effective centralized bureaucracy staffed with civilian scholar-officials. Regional military governors and their supporters were replaced by centrally appointed officials. This system of civilian rule led to a greater concentration of power in the emperor and his palace bureaucracy than had been achieved in the previous dynasties.

The Song dynasty is notable for the development of cities not only for administrative purposes but also as centers of trade, industry, and maritime commerce. The gentry-landed scholar-officials, sometimes collectively referred to as the gentry, lived in the provincial centers alongside the shopkeepers, artisans, and merchants. A new group of wealthy commoners—the mercantile class—arose as printing and education spread, private trade grew, and a market economy began to link the coastal provinces and the interior. Landholding and government employment were no longer the only means of gaining wealth and prestige. The development of paper money and a unified tax system meant the development of a true nationwide market system.

Accompanying this was the beginnings of what one might term the Chinese industrial revolution. For example the historian Robert Hartwell has estimated that per capita iron output rose sixfold between 806 and 1078 (AD), such that, by 1078 China was producing 125 000 tons of iron per year. This iron was used to mass produce ploughs, hammers, needles, pins, cymbals (etc.) for an indigenous mass market and for trade with the outside world, which also expanded greatly at this point. Concurrently the Chinese invented or developed gunpowder, the cannon, the flamethrower, printing technology, amongst many other things. As a result of these innovations (and the concurrent agricultural revolution) China boasted some of the largest cities of the world at this time. For example it has been estimated that Hangzhou had 500 000 inhabitants at this point: far larger than



any European city.

Culturally, the Song refined many of the developments of the previous centuries. Included in these refinements were not only the Tang Dynasty ideal of the universal man, who combined the qualities of scholar, poet, painter, and statesman, but also historical Chinese classic texts/writings, Chinese painting, calligraphy, and hard-glazed porcelain. Song intellectuals sought answers to all philosophical and political questions in the Confucian Classics. This renewed interest in the Confucian ideals and society of ancient times coincided with the decline of Buddhism, which the Chinese regarded as foreign and offering few practical guidelines for the solution of political and other mundane problems.

The Song Neo-Confucian philosophers, finding a certain purity in the originality of the ancient classical texts, wrote commentaries on them. The most influential of these philosophers was Zhu Xi (1130—1200), whose synthesis of Confucian thought and Buddhist, Taoism, and other ideas became the official imperial ideology from late Song times to the late 19th century. As incorporated into the Imperial examination system, Zhu Xi's philosophy evolved into a rigid official creed, which stressed the one-sided obligations of obedience and compliance of subject to ruler, child to father, wife to husband, and younger brother to elder brother. The effect was to inhibit the societal development of premodern China, resulting both in many generations of political, social, and spiritual stability and in a slowness of cultural and institutional change up to the 19th century. Neo-Confucian doctrines also came to play the dominant role in the intellectual life of Korea, Vietnam, and Japan.

Paragraph 8

W 西夏 Western Xia

Western Xia, was the kingdom of the Tibetan-speaking Tanguts tribes that was established in the 11th century and flourished through the early 13th century until it was conquered by the Mongols of the Yuan dynasty. It was



located in what are now the northwestern Chinese provinces of Kansu (Gansu) and Shensi (Shaanxi).

Occupying the area along the trade route between Central Asia and the West, the Tangut were formally a tributary state of first the Song and then the Jin. In actuality, they were defacto independent, and the interaction between the Jin, the Song, and the Western Xia is of interest to historians of diplomacy because they are an example of diplomatic relations between states of defacto equal power but within a diplomatic framework in which one state was formally superior.



Cultural Links 文化链接

杯酒释兵权

宋太祖即位后不出半年,就有两个节度使起兵反对宋朝。

宋太祖亲自出征,费了很大劲儿,才把他们平定。

为了这件事,宋太祖心里总不大踏实。有一次,他单独找赵普谈话,问他说:“自从唐朝末年以来,换了五个朝代,没完没了地打仗,不知道死了多少老百姓。这到底是什么道理?”

赵普说:“道理很简单。国家混乱,毛病就出在藩镇权力太大。如果把兵权集中到朝廷,天下自然太平无事了。”

宋太祖连连点头,赞赏赵普说得好。

后来,赵普又对宋太祖说:“禁军大将石守信、王审琦两人,兵权太大,还是把他们调离禁军为好。”

宋太祖说:“你放心,这两人是我老朋友,不会反对我。”

赵普说:“我并不担心他们叛变。但是据我看,这两个人没有统帅的才能,管不住下面的将士。有朝一日,下面的人闹起事来,只怕他们也身不由己呀!”

宋太祖敲敲自己的额角说:“亏得你提醒一下。”

过了几天,宋太祖在宫里举行宴会,请石守信、王审琦等几位老将喝酒。

酒过几巡,宋太祖命令在旁侍候的太监退出。他拿起一杯酒,先请大家干了杯,说:“我要不是有你们帮助,也不会有现在这个地位。但是你们



哪儿知道,做皇帝也有很大难处,还不如做个节度使自在。不瞒各位说,这一年来,我就没有一夜睡过安稳觉。”

石守信等人听了十分惊奇,连忙问这是什么缘故。宋太祖说:“这还不明白?皇帝这个位子,谁不眼红呀?”

石守信等听出话音来了。大家着了慌,跪在地上说:“陛下为什么说这样的话?现在天下已经安定了,谁还敢对陛下三心二意?”

宋太祖摇摇头说:“对你们几位我还信不过?只怕你们的部下将士当中,有人贪图富贵,把黄袍披在你们身上。你们想不干,能行吗?”

石守信等听到这里,感到大祸临头,连连磕头,含着眼泪说:“我们都是粗人,没想到这一点,请陛下指引一条出路。”

宋太祖说:“我替你们着想,你们不如把兵权交出来,到地方上去做个闲官,买点田产房屋,给子孙留点家业,快快活活度个晚年。我和你们结为亲家,彼此毫无猜疑,不是更好吗?”

石守信等齐声说:“陛下给我们想得太周到啦!”

酒席一散,大家各自回家。第二天上朝,每人都递上一份奏章,说自己年老多病,请求辞职。宋太祖马上照准,收回他们的兵权,赏给他们一大笔财物,打发他们到各地去做节度使。

历史上把这件事称为“杯酒释兵权”(“释”就是“解除”)。

过了一段时期,又有一些节度使到京城来朝见。宋太祖在御花园举行宴会。太祖说:“你们都是国家老臣,现在藩镇的事务那么繁忙,还要你们干这种苦差,我真过意不去!”

有个乖巧的节度使马上接口说:“我本来没什么功劳,留在这个位子上也不合适,希望陛下让我告老回乡。”

也有个节度使不知趣,唠唠叨叨地把自己的经历夸说了一番,说自己立过多少多少功劳。宋太祖听了,直皱眉头,说:

“这都是陈年老账了,尽提它干什么?”

第二天,宋太祖把这些节度使的兵权全部解除了。

宋太祖收回地方将领的兵权以后,建立了新的军事制度,从地方军队挑选出精兵,编成禁军,由皇帝直接控制;各地行政长官也由朝廷委派。通过这些措施,新建立的北宋王朝开始稳定下来。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

the Northern Song Dynasty 北宋	punish 处罚
separatist rule by military governors 藩镇割据	compound surname 复姓
the Southern Song Dynasty 南宋	engraving printing 雕版印刷
chaos caused by war 战乱	dark 黑暗
rob 抢劫	aspiration 抱负
move the capital to another place 迁都	corrupt 腐败
get rid of 摆脱	flatter 吹捧
minister 大臣	bully and oppress 欺压
ability 才能	insult 侮辱
pub sb. in an important position 重用	break with 决裂
dethrone 废掉	live in seclusion 隐居
choose 选拔	live and work in peace 安居乐业
award 奖赏	experience 经历
	describe 描写
	clay movable letters 泥活字
	movable-type printing 活字印刷术



U 辽朝

Unit 3 Liao Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Khitan emperor adopted the Han-style reign title of Liao in AD 947 and set about taking control of the entire north.
契丹在公元 947 年按汉族的仪式改国号为辽,打算逐渐控制中国北方。
2. Since the Khitan soldiers were given free rein to plunder the people, rebellions erupted in areas along the Yellow River.
由于契丹纵容士兵大肆抢掠,黄河南北的人民不断起兵反抗。
3. In AD 986, Song troops launched a major campaign against Liao.
公元 986 年,宋军大举攻辽。
4. After the campaign in AD 986, the Song Dynasty went from the offensive to the defensive against Liao.
公元 986 年的大战之后,宋不再主动对辽发动进攻,转而采取防御策略。
5. The Liao troops attacked Song on a large scale in 1004.
公元 1004 年,辽大举进攻宋。
6. In 1101, one year after Emperor Huizong ascended the Song-dynasty throne, Emperor Tianzuo succeeded to the Liao throne.
宋徽宗即位一年之后的 1101 年,辽的末代皇帝天祚帝登上了皇位。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

The Khitan were originally nomadic cattle breeders from the Siramuren Valley, a region where pastoral lifestyles were practiced. Chinese farmers who had established themselves in the region lived side by side with Turkish and Mongol tribes. Due to the proximity of the Chinese, the Khitan were quick to become sinicized. During the year 924, the Khitan launched numerous attacks towards the West in order to join the Tangut & Tuyuhun. The following year they then destroyed the Kingdom of Bohai. During the time of their attacks in the Peking area, Emperor Yelu Ruan officially gave their growing empire the name of Liao. Liao is the Chinese term for Siramuren Valley.

In 946 the Khitan of the Liao Dynasty attacked as far as Kaifeng, where they stole maps archives, water clocks, musical instruments, the Classics and kidnapped craftsmen and scholars. They then decided to move further into the present day provinces of Hebei and Shanxi. By 986, the Khitan of Liao had expanded into Manchuria and had made incursions into the Yellow River Valley. In 1004, the Song were forced to sign a peace treaty at Tanyuan, near the lower areas of the Yellow River. By this time, the Liao Dynasty had covered much of Manchuria, Eastern Mongolia, Northern Shanxi, and Beijing.

Paragraph 2

S 社会经济 ocial Economy

The Liao went through different stages of economic development. In its early years, it mainly depended on outward expansion, slavery and



thievery, so its development remained slow and disrupted. It was not until the reign of Emperor Shengzong when the Liao managed to institute feudal reform, its economy attained some distinct progress. 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.

The Liao economy was based on horse and sheep raising and agriculture. Fishing also played an important complementary role. Those engaged in agriculture were mostly the Han people who lived in the southern area and the Bohai people who lived in the eastern area. The nomadic zone consisted of various northern grassland nationalities and the fishing-hunting zone covered the Khitan area between the Xar Moron and Tuhe rivers, and the Jurchen people's area in the northeast. The integration of the three economic zones into a political system sped up communication between different nationalities and promoted a higher level economic development. The southern economy, which had been feudal for a long time, dominated the whole economy.

Besides, the supply of salt was controlled by government monopoly and provided an important source of revenue. Iron smelting was also an important industrial contribution to the wealth of the dynasty.

Paragraph 3

C文化
ulture

Culturally, the Liao achieved mainly in astronomy, the calendar, medicine and architecture. Not only did the Liao calendar keep 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 and accommodating the Khitan cus-

toms, achieved its own unique style.

The Liao honored Confucian philosophy but the rulers patronized Chinese Buddhism. The Khitan dialect and the Han language were the main languages used by the Liao.

Paragraph 4

F 对外联系 Foreign Contact

From the time of the empire's creation all the way to its decline, the Liao Dynasty was recognized by Korea. The Khitan were also in contact with Japan and the Abassid empire, and the court of Baghdad once asked for a Khitan princess for marriage. These relations established the Khitans all across the steppes, before the Mongol expansion. Commercial activity allowed the Khitans to make their name known beyond the Pamirs and in Europe.

Paragraph 5

D 衰落 Decline

By the mid 11th century, the Khitan had lost their morale and started adopting a defensive attitude towards their neighbors. This was in part due to the influence of Buddhism and the fact that they had absorbed much of Chinese culture, which had a negative effect on their manners. Around the 12th century, the empire's slow decline sped up as a result of succession problems, natural disasters, and the positive progress of the Jurchen in the north east. More pressure was put on the Khitan when the Jurchen & Song made an alliance against them and in 1124—1125, the Khitan Empire collapsed.



Cultural Links

文化链接

辽朝简史

勃兴于东北的契丹族,在耶律阿保机的领导下于916年建国,统一塞北辽阔地区。耶律德光时,获得燕云十六州,势力又进入长城以内。在中原先进制度的影响下,辽朝逐渐向封建化过渡。适应境内不同民族和不同生产方式的状况,辽朝建立了南北面官制,“因俗而治”。辽朝先与北宋交战,“澶渊之盟”后,双方长期维持平稳关系。辽中叶后,统治集团日益腐朽,社会矛盾不断激化,各民族起义风起云涌。当女真族展开强大攻势之后,辽帝国迅速走向灭亡。

辽朝时期,社会生产保持了自己独特的发展方式,既有草原牧业,也有耕地农业,狩猎和捕鱼仍有一定的经济地位。在内地先进技术的影响下,纺织、矿冶、陶瓷、建筑以及马具等手工业较为发达。辽朝拥有自己民族独特的文字——契丹文,但其文化深受汉族影响。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

retreat 撤退

send a written declaration of war

下战书

offence 攻势

resist 抵抗

throne n. 王座, 君主

Yellow River 黄河

Mongolia n. 蒙古

Peking n. 北京的旧称

controlled adj. 受约束的, 克制的

calendar n. 日历, 历法

medicine n. 药, 医学, 内科学

confucian 孔门弟子; 儒家

morale n. 士气, 民心

empire n. 帝国, 帝权



U 金朝 Unit 4 Jin Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Nuzhen people in the northeast were originally under the rule of the Liao Dynasty.
女真是生活在中国东北地区的少数民族,最初处于辽的统治之下。
2. The various tribes of the Nuzhen organized themselves into a large military federation at the beginning of the 12th century, with the Wanyan tribe at its core.
12 世纪初,女真族各部以完颜部为核心形成了庞大的军事部落联盟。
3. This prosperous people could no longer put up with the rule of the Liao.
强盛起来的女真族不再甘于辽的奴役。
4. With his initial victory over Liao, Akutta established the Jin Dynasty in 1115. His imperial title was Taizu.
在取得对辽的初步胜利后,阿骨打于 1115 年建立金政权,他也就是金太祖。
5. During its campaign against Liao, the Jin Dynasty maintained good relations with Song and Western Xia. It first allied with Song to attack Liao, and then bought Western Xia's submission with land.
金在对辽作战期间与宋以及西夏保持着友好关系,先是联合宋朝共同攻辽,后又用土地换取西夏对金称臣。
6. The Liao Dynasty lost battle after battle with Jin and was eventually defeated in the 3rd month of 1125.

辽在对金的战争中节节失利,最终于1125年3月为金所灭。

7. Now that Liao was destroyed, Jin turned against Song.

辽既已灭亡,金就把矛头转向了宋朝。

8. The Jin army marched southward upon the Song Dynasty in the 10th month of 1125.

公元1125年10月,金军大举南下,进攻宋朝。

9. Emperor Huizong of the Song Dynasty was an accomplished calligrapher and painter, but had no talent for running state affairs.

宋徽宗是有相当艺术造诣的书法家和画家,但治国显然非其所长。

10. Seeing the Jin army sweeping through like a hot knife cutting through butter, he hastily abdicated the throne to his son Qinzong.

眼看金军势如破竹,宋徽宗匆匆传位给儿子宋钦宗。

11. Jin troops entered Kaifeng in 1127. Both Huizong and Qinzong were captured and taken to the north, where they eventually died in humiliation.

公元1127年,金军进入宋朝首都开封。徽宗和钦宗被金军掳去北方,屈辱地死在了异邦。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

T 金的崛起 The Rise of the Jin

The Nuzhen people in the northeast were originally under the rule of the Liao Dynasty. In 1101, one year after Emperor Huizong ascended the Song-dynasty throne, Emperor Tiaozuo succeeded to the Liao throne. While the Song and Liao declined by the day under the rule of these two inept monarchs, the Nuzhen people gradually gained in strength.

The various tribes of the Nuzhen organized themselves into a large military federation at the beginning of the 12th century, with the Wanyan tribe



at its core. This prosperous people could no longer put up with the rule of the Liao. When during a banquet in 1112, Emperor Tianzuo of Liao ordered the chieftains of the Nuzhen tribes to dance for him, everyone obeyed except Akutta of the Wanyan tribe, who resolutely defied the order. As soon as he became chief of the Nuzhen federation a year later, Akutta began to make active preparations to rebel against the Liao Dynasty. With his initial victory over Liao, Akutta established the Jin Dynasty in 1115. His imperial title was Taizu.

Paragraph 2

C与辽、宋的战争 **Conquest of the Liao and the Song**

For a long period, Jin people were oppressed by the Khitan people. So, soon after winning a decisive victory in the battle of Hubudagang, the Jin carried out its plan to conquer the Liao. In 1120, the Jin Dynasty made an alliance with the Northern Song (960 -1127) to defeat the Liao. In 1125, the Liao Emperor Tianzuo was captured and his dynasty collapsed. The Jin then took total control of Northern China.

Soon afterwards, the Jin then turned against the Northern Song. Emperor Taizong (Wanyan Sheng), greatly encouraged by the victory over the Liao, launched a general war against the Song. The Song put up a strong resistance but due to the weak court and ineffective leadership, the Jin army gained successive victories. In 1127, the Jin army took Kaifeng, the capital city and captured the Song emperor. Following the fall of the Northern Song, the remainder of the court fled south and established a new dynasty—Southern Song (1127—1279).

The newly founded Southern Song (1127—1279) soon became a target for the Jin. However, this proved less successful due to the resistance of Yuefei, Han Shizhong and other heroes. The Jin army suffered heavy setbacks and could no longer match the Song. Thus a period of coexistence between the two rival powers came into being.

K 迁都开封 Kaifeng as the Jin Capital

In 1153, Jin Emperor Wanyan Liang (完颜亮) moved the empire's capital from Huining Fu in northern Manchuria (south of present-day Harbin) to Zhongdu (now Beijing). Four years later in 1157, he razed Beijing, including the nobles' residences, and moved the Jurchen "southern" capital from Beijing to Kaifeng, former seat of the Song Dynasty, and began to reconstruct it (since its sack in 1127).

Emperor Wanyan Liang attacked the Southern Song in 1161. Meanwhile, two simultaneous rebellions of Jurchen nobles, led by soon-to-be crowned Jin Emperor Wanyan Yong (完颜雍), and Khitan tribesman erupted in Manchuria, forcing the Jin Dynasty to withdraw its troops from southern China to quell the uprisings. The Jin navy was wiped out by a smaller Song fleet because of their use of gunpowder, the first recorded use in military history. Emperor Wanyan Liang failed in taking the Song and was assassinated by his own generals in December of 1161. His son and heir was also assassinated in Kaifeng. Although crowned in October, Emperor Wanyan Yong was not officially recognized as the 5th successive Jin Emperor until the murder of Wanyan Liang's heir.

Paragraph 4

S 社会经济 Social Economy

During the early years of the Jin, the frequency of hostilities caused the economy to stagnate. With a view to promoting commercial development, Emperor Taizu, adopted a policy of reducing trade barriers which included the establishment of a trading relationship with the Song. This soon had an effect and expedited the recovery and development of commerce. Furthermore, he revitalized agriculture through tax reduction and exemptions so as to encourage the farming community to trade with the neighbouring tribes.



This brought about economic prosperity from the reign of the Prince of Hailing to the reign of Emperor Zhangzong. The flourishing economy also benefited from a monetary reform that was introduced in 1198 during the reign of Emperor Zhangzong. For the first time, silver was used as legal tender. This reform was an important milestone in the history of currency and was to have a far-reaching influence on the currency system of later dynasties and even modern times.

Paragraph 5

C 文化
ulture

The Jin rulers adopted a positive attitude towards the Han culture. Chinese, Khitan and Jurchen script were used simultaneously, although later, the Khitan script was abolished so as to encourage the popular use of Chinese calligraphy. Emperor Zhangzong became a keen collector of books written in Chinese which did much to promote cultural development. Many writers emerged during this period and one named Yuan Haowen was especially eminent in the fields of poetry, prose and treatise. His work is representative of the highest literary achievements of the Jin. The Jin Dynasty made an important contribution to the field of art. They had inherited the characteristics of Liao architecture and absorbed that of the Song. One of the finest examples of their architecture is the Lugou Bridge. Completed between 1188 and 1192, it is the oldest existing multi-arched stone bridge in the Beijing area. The exquisite sculptures on the bridge and its ornamental columns demonstrate a practical application of the aesthetic principles of unity and variation which are a great attraction to this day.

D 衰亡 Decline

Starting from the early 13th century the Jin Dynasty began to feel the pressure of Mongols from the north. Genghis Khan first led the Mongols into Western Xia territory in 1205 and ravaged them four years later. In 1211 about 50 000 Mongols on horses invaded the Jin Empire and began absorbing Khitan and Jurchen rebels. The Jin army had a half million men with 150 000 cavalry but abandoned the “western capital”. The next year the Mongols went north and looted the Jin “eastern capital”, and in 1213 they besieged the “central capital”. In 1214 the Jin made a humiliating treaty but retained the capital. That summer, Jin Emperor Xuanzong (宣宗) abandoned the central capital and moved the government to the “southern capital” of Kaifeng, making it the official seat of Jin Dynasty power. In 1216 a war faction persuaded Xuanzong to attack the Song, but in 1219 they were defeated at the same place by the Yangtze River, where Prince Hailing had been defeated in 1161. Jin Emperor Aizong (哀宗) won a succession struggle against his brother and then quickly ended the war and went back to the capital. He made peace with the Tanguts, who had been allied with the Mongols. Genghis Khan died in 1227 while his armies were conquering the Tangut Empire. His son Gedei Khan invaded the Jin Empire in 1232. The Jurchens tried to resist; but when Kaifeng was attacked, Aizong fled south. The Mongols looted the capital in 1233, and the next year Aizong committed suicide to avoid being captured, ending the Jin dynasty in 1234.



Cultural Links

文化链接

头鱼宴上的阿骨打

童贯镇压了方腊起义没多久,东北的金朝派人到东京,催促北宋攻打燕京,夹攻辽朝。

原来,辽朝经过几次内乱和各族人民起义力量的打击,渐渐腐朽衰落。在这时期,我国东北地区的女真族(我国古代少数民族之一)逐渐强大起来。女真人民长期受辽朝贵族的统治和压榨,早就产生了强烈的反抗情绪。

公元1112年的春天,辽天祚(音 zuò)帝耶律延禧到东北春州(在今吉林省)巡游,兴致勃勃地在混同江(今松花江)捕鱼,并且命令当地的女真各部酋长都到春州朝见。

按照当地风俗,在每年春季最早捉到的鱼,要先给死去的祖先上供,并且摆酒宴庆祝。这一年,辽天祚帝在春州举行了头鱼宴,请酋长们喝酒。辽天祚帝几杯酒下肚,有了几分醉意,叫酋长们给他跳舞。那些酋长虽然不愿意,但是不敢违抗命令,就挨个儿离开座位,跳起民族舞蹈来。

接下去轮到一个人,他神情冷漠,两眼直瞪瞪地望着天祚帝,一动也不动。这个青年就是女真族完颜部酋长乌雅束的儿子,名叫阿骨打。

辽天祚帝见阿骨打居然敢当着大家的面顶撞他,很不高兴,一再催他跳;一些酋长怕他得罪天祚帝,也从旁劝他。可是不管好说歹说,阿骨打拿定主意不跳,叫天祚帝下不了台阶。

这场头鱼宴闹得不欢而散。辽天祚帝当场没发作,散席之后,他跟大臣萧奉先说:“阿骨打这样跋扈,实在使人没法容忍。不如趁早杀了他,免得发生后患。”

萧奉先认为阿骨打没有大过失,杀了他怕引起其他酋长的不满,就说:“他是个粗人,不懂得礼节,不值得跟他计较。就算他有什么野心,小小一个部落,也成不了气候。”

辽天祚帝觉得萧奉先说得有道理,也就把这件事搁在一边。

阿骨打当然不是不会跳舞,他是个性格刚强的人,多年来对辽朝贵族欺负女真人民,早就不满。现在,眼看辽朝越来越腐败,就决心独立门户。

不久,阿骨打的父亲乌雅束死去,阿骨打继任完颜部首领,他建筑城堡,修理武器,训练人马,逐步统一了女真各部,准备反辽。

辽天祚帝得知阿骨打备战,一面派使者到阿骨打那里去责问,一面调动河北几路人马到东北威胁。

阿骨打对部下说:“现在辽人快要动手了,我们要先发制人,免得被动。”他集中女真各部骑兵二千五百人,亲自率领袭击辽朝。辽将没有准备,狼狈奔逃。辽天祚帝得知消息,立刻派大军镇压,在混同江边,遭到阿



骨打骑兵的痛击。女真兵乘胜追击,兵力发展到一万人。

公元1115年,阿骨打在会宁(今黑龙江阿城南)正式称帝,国号大金。他就是金太祖。

金太祖即位后,攻打辽朝东北重镇黄龙府(今吉林农安县)。辽天祚帝派了二十多万步兵、骑兵到东北去防守,被金兵打得太败,连武器、耕具都丢得精光。辽天祚帝想跟金朝讲和,金太祖可不答应,指名道姓要辽天祚帝投降。

辽天祚帝恼羞成怒,组织兵力七十万,亲自带领到黄龙府去。

金太祖命令将士筑好营垒,挖掘壕沟,准备抵抗。正在这个时候,辽朝发生内乱,辽天祚帝下令撤兵。金太祖趁机追击,几十万辽军一下就垮了下来。辽天祚帝一天一夜逃了几百里,才算保住了一条命。

这时候,辽朝兵力大部丧失,北方人民不满辽朝贵族的统治,纷纷起义。

有人向宋徽宗提议,辽朝快要灭亡,收复北方燕云失地,这可是个好机会。宋徽宗派人从山东渡海,前往金朝会见金太祖,表示愿意夹攻辽朝。双方约定灭掉辽朝之后,北宋收回后晋时期割让给辽朝的燕云十六州失地,北宋把每年送给辽朝的银、绢,如数转送给金朝,历史上把这件事称作“海上之盟”。

金兵向南进攻,接连攻下了辽朝四座京城。还留下一个燕京,按照双方约定,应该由宋军攻打。

童贯刚刚镇压了方腊起义军,就带领十五万大军赶到北方,攻打燕京。他满以为辽兵的主力已经被金军消灭,打下燕京可以不费多大劲儿。哪知道辽兵虽然虚弱,比宋军还强得多。童贯一连打了两次败仗,不但燕京没有收复,而且损兵折将,把多年以来积存的粮草、武器全都丢光。

童贯为了逃避失败的责任,暗地派人请金军攻燕京。金军一举拿下了燕京,不肯还给北宋。童贯只好答应把燕京的租税每年一百万贯钱献给金朝,才把燕京赎了回来。这一来,北宋王朝的腐朽可让金朝看穿了。公元1125年,金太祖的弟弟金太宗完颜晟(音 shèng)派辽将追杀辽天祚帝,灭了辽朝。接着发兵南下,把进攻矛头转向北宋王朝。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

defeated general 败将

battle 战役

be caught in 陷入

split 分裂

situation 局面

leader 首领

regime 政权

attack 攻打

surrender 归顺

presumptuous 狂妄

cut off 截断

go against 违背

refute 驳斥

surrender 投降

typical example 典型

appoint 任命

commander-in-chief 统帅

decisive battle 决战

capture 俘虏

bare 光秃秃

scared 惊慌

contact 联络

narrate 叙述

contribute 贡献

colourful 五彩缤纷

roll over 辗轧

catapult 弹弓

innovate 革新

7

元明清时期

The Dynasties of Yuan, Ming and Qing

U

元朝

Unit 1

Yuan Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. In 1206, Genghis Khan established the Mongolian Khanate.
1206 年,成吉思汗建立蒙古汗国。
2. In 1271, Kublai, a grandson of Genghis Khan, conquered the Central Plains, founded the Yuan Dynasty (1271—1368), and made Dadu (today's Beijing) the capital.
成吉思汗的孙子忽必烈 1271 年入主中原,建立元朝(1271—1368 年),定都大都(今北京)。
3. Kublai ended the centuries-long situation in which many independent regimes existed side by side by forming a united country that brought Xinjiang, Tibet and Yunnan under its sway.
忽必烈结束了长达数百年的多政权并立的局面,实现了包括今新疆、西藏及云南地区在内的全国大一统。
4. Genghis Khan and his unrivalled cavalry soon defeated the Western Xia and Jin Dynasties. They also destroyed the Western Liao Dynasty in present-day Xinjiang.
成吉思汗率领的蒙古骑兵所向披靡,接连打败西夏和金,又消灭了占有今日新疆一带的西辽。

5. In the 7th month of 1227, Genghis Khan died after an illness.
1227 年 7 月,成吉思汗病逝。
6. The vast Yuan Empire maintained frequent exchanges of communication and visits with many other countries.
疆域广大的元朝与当时世界上许多国家进行着频繁的交往。
7. The technologies of printing and firearms using gunpowder were introduced into Europe during this period.
印刷术和火药武器也正在这时期传入了欧洲。
8. Of the numerous envoys and merchants coming to China, Marco Polo of Venice was the most famous.
来华的欧洲商人数众多,其中最著名的是威尼斯的马可·波罗。
9. By the 13th century, another nomadic invasion of the north led to the second massive migration southwards. This reversed the balance of economic strength between the north and the south.
公元 13 世纪,蒙古人的南侵再一次引起大规模的移民浪潮。这一次的移民潮扭转了南北经济实力对比的格局。
10. When Marco Polo stayed in China, the south was definitely economically stronger.
马可·波罗旅居中国时,江南的经济实力毋庸置疑地已超过中原了。
11. The Yuan Dynasty ruled for about 100 years.
元朝的统治持续了大约一百年。
12. Politics were corrupted further as Emperor Shun, who started as a wise monarch, deteriorated into a lecherous ruler in his later years. The days of the dynasty were numbered.
原本勤政的元顺帝在后期变成了一个沉迷于肉欲的昏君,政治因之更加腐败,元朝的灭亡也就不远了。
13. In the 8th month of 1368 the Ming troops seized the Yuan capital Dadu. Emperor Shun fled Dadu, marking the end of the Yuan Dynasty.
1368 年 8 月,明军攻克大都,元顺帝弃城而逃,元朝灭亡。

14. The cultural representative of this period was Li Xue, a Confucian school of idealist philosophy, also known as Neo-Confucianism or Cheng-Zhu Li Xue school of confucianism.

宋元文化的典型代表是理学。理学又称“道学”，是吸引了部分佛、道思想而形成的一种新的儒学体系。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The Yuan Dynasty (1271—1368) ended to the 370—year divisive period following the downfall of the Tang Dynasty and again unified the whole country, paving the way for a lasting unification through the Ming-Qing period.

The Yuan regime can be roughly divided into three periods: the early, middle and late periods. The early period began from the reign of Kublai Khan, Yuan Emperor Shizu, until 1294. During this period rulers adopted laws from the Han nationality and set up political, economic and cultural systems that promoted social development.

The middle years (1307 to 1323) marked a period of decline. During this period, social conflicts and the competition for imperial power became intensified and included continuous uprisings all around the country. The New Deal carried out by Emperor Yingzong was like a flash in the pan, but it could not save the Yuan Dynasty from declining. Finally, the New Deal failed and Emperor Yingzong died an unnatural death.

From 1329 in the late-Yuan period, peasant uprisings accelerated the decline of the regime. Zhu Yuanzhang joined a peasant force and later took command to defeat other forces and rebuild the dynasty of the Han nationality, namely the Ming Dynasty.



Paragraph 2

T蒙古的崛起 **he Rise of Mongols**

The Mongols were formerly a tribe roaming the upper reaches of the Argun River. Later they moved to live in the Valleys of the Onon and Kerulen rivers. With the passage of time, they rose to become a powerful tribe. During the period from the late 12th to the early 13th century, Temujin consolidated all the Mongol tribes and placed under his leadership a centralized Khanate which brought the Mongols to a new stage of development. In 1206, he had a clan conference held on the bank of the Onon River, at which he was proclaimed the Great Khan, with the reign title of Genghis Khan. He was later known as Emperor Taizu of the Yuan Dynasty.

Genghis Khan organized his army and all the adults of his Mongol tribe according to a decimal system. He personally selected an elite force of 10 000 which served as a basic striking unit. He transformed customary laws into written laws so as to specify the special privileges of the nobility and to tighten the control of the herdsman slaves. The enforcement of military discipline and the completion of written laws added to the strength of the Mongol Khanate based on slavery.

For a long period, Genghis Khan and his successors Ogdai Khan and Mangu Khan conquered and seized territories both in the south and in the western regions. In the south their attacks were directed against the Xia, the Jin, and the Song; in the western regions, their conquest extended as far as Central Europe.

Paragraph 3

S社会经济与文化 **Social Economy and Culture**

As in other periods of alien dynastic rule of China, a rich cultural diversity developed during the Yuan dynasty. The major cultural achievements were the development of drama and the novel and the increased use of the



written vernacular. Given the unified rule of central Asia, trades between East and West flourished. The Mongols' extensive West Asian and European contacts produced a fair amount of cultural exchange. Western musical instruments were introduced to enrich the Chinese performing arts. From this period dates the conversion to Islam, by Muslims of Central Asia, of growing numbers of Chinese in the northwest and southwest. Nestorianism and Roman Catholicism also enjoyed a period of toleration. Lamaism (Tibetan Buddhism) flourished, although native Taoism endured Mongol persecutions. Confucian governmental practices and examinations based on the Classics, which had fallen into disuse in north China during the period of disunity, were reinstated by the Mongols in the hope of maintaining order over Han society. Advances were realized in the fields of travel literature, cartography, and geography, and scientific education. Certain key Chinese innovations, such as printing techniques, porcelain production, playing cards, and medical literature, were introduced in Europe, while the production of thin glass and cloisonne became popular in China. The first records of travel by Westerners date from this time. The most famous traveler of the period was the Venetian Marco Polo, whose account of his trip to "Cambaluc" the Great Khan's capital (now Beijing), and of life there astounded the people of Europe. The Mongols undertook extensive public works. Road and water communications were reorganized and improved. To provide against possible famines, granaries were ordered built throughout the empire. The city of Beijing was rebuilt with new palace grounds that included artificial lakes, hills and mountains, and parks. During the Yuan period, Beijing became the terminus of the Grand Canal, which was completely renovated. These commercially oriented improvements encouraged overland as well as maritime commerce throughout Asia and facilitated the first direct Chinese contacts with Europe. Chinese and Mongol travelers to the West were able to provide assistance in such areas as hydraulic engineering, while bringing back to the Middle Kingdom new scientific discoveries and architectural innovations. Contacts with the West also brought the introduction to China of a major new food crop—sorghum—along with

other foreign food products and methods of preparation.

Paragraph 4

T元朝的衰败及灭亡 **he Decline and Fall**

Despite the act that the Mongolian emperors sought to emulate much of the Chinese style of rule they continued to be regarded by the Chinese as unwelcome invaders and this may well have been the cause of their eventual failure as rulers. There is evidence of the declining ability of the Mongolian rulers to exercise control. The court was beset by intrigue which undermined the administration. Toghon Temur, the last Yuan ruler relied heavily on his councilors. When he dismissed the Mongolian Toghto his action precipitated the disintegration of the government.

The loss of military advantage brought about by the deterioration of the military system through a lack of funding and equipment plus the fact that the military leaders had to turn to agriculture for their survival contributed to the fall of the Yuan. The garrison system set up to control local disturbances fell into disarray. Rebellion became increasingly frequent from the 1330's. The most important of these was to become known as the Red Turban Rebellion. Based upon a religious sect, these rebels were to rise up in several places in the Huaihe River region and elsewhere. The massive recruitment of labor to re-route the Yellow River was the cause of unrest and while some uprisings were led by religious fervor others were class led as the efforts were directed against landlords and officials. The Yuan allowed these people to raise peasant armies to quell rebellion but a second round of revolt that proved more successful was led by Zhu Yuanzhang, who in 1368 was to become the first Ming emperor.

In many respects the Mongolian occupation of China is seen as unproductive but there were important developments in literature and drama. The other important feature concerns the military establishment. Prior to the Yuan period the concept of conscription was tantamount. This could only work efficiently under a strong and effective central government. The Tang



abandoned this idea and relied upon mercenaries, a practice followed also by the Song. The Yuan instituted a system of hereditary military families and this was to be continued by the Ming (1368—1644) and Qing (1644—1911). The practice played a part in ensuring dynastic strength but it also encouraged despotism. Finally, the legal system left a legacy. One notable aspect was the imposition of a responsibility upon a wrong doer to provide financial support for his victim in addition to any penalty.



Cultural Links

文化链接

统一江南

北方政局稳定后,忽必烈决定采用南宋降将刘整建议,集中力量攻取南宋汉水中游南北岸两大军事重镇襄阳(今湖北襄樊市汉水南市区)、樊城(襄樊市汉水北市区)。从1268年(至元五年)起,经过六年的围攻,终于在1273年正月破樊城,二月襄阳守帅吕文焕出降,撤除了南宋长江中游的屏障。

1274年六月,忽必烈命伯颜为统帅,分两路大军南进。左军由合答统率,以刘整为前锋,由淮西出师。右军由伯颜和阿术统领,九月,自襄阳出发,沿汉水入长江。同时,命董文炳自淮西正阳南逼安庆,以为呼应。十二月,元水师入长江,克宋江防要塞阳罗堡。宋汉鄂舟师统帅夏贵逃走,汉阳、鄂州宋军降。伯颜留阿里海牙经略荆湖,自领水陆大军顺流而东,以吕文焕为前锋。宋沿江诸帅多为吕氏旧部,皆不战而降。1275年二月,贾似道被迫督诸路精兵,抵拒元军。这时,他仍企图奉币称臣议和,被伯颜拒绝,只好在池州下游丁家洲勉强与元军会战。宋军因内部不和,一触即溃。同年秋,伯颜从建康(今江苏南京)分兵三道趋宋都临安(今浙江杭州)。伯颜和阿塔海由中道节制诸军,水陆并进。1276年(至元十三年)正月,元军会集临安城北,二月,宋幼帝赵昀上表降元,宋亡。1279年,元军全部占领四川,又迫灭南宋卫王于崖山(今广东新会县南海岛),完成了全国的统一。元朝的统一,结束了自唐末藩镇割据以来国内南北对峙的分裂和战乱局面,促进了多民族统一国家的巩固和发展。

Vocabulary
妙词连珠

scholar-officials 士大夫

Poetry of the Song Dynasty and Oper-
as in the Yuan Dynasty 宋词, 元曲

diligent 勤劳

fisherman 渔民

hunting 打猎

poetic drama set to music 杂剧

tragedy 悲剧

cave residence 窑

fine 出色

dramatic 戏剧性

the Confucian or feudal ethical code

礼教

paragraph 段落

interlude 过场戏

be widely read 传诵

realism 现实主义

synthesize 综合

unjust ease 冤案

local authorities 官府

reflect 反映

indignantly resent 愤恨

redress an injustice 申冤

model 塑造

extol 歌颂

U 明朝

Unit 2 Ming Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. In 1368, Zhu Yuanzhang established the Ming Dynasty (1368—1644) in Nanjing, reigning as Emperor Taizu.
1368 年,明太祖朱元璋在南京建立了明朝(1368—1644 年)。
2. When his son and successor Zhu Di (1360—1424) ascended the throne, he built and expanded the palaces, temples, city walls and moats in Beijing. In 1421, he officially moved the capital to Beijing.
其子朱棣(1360—1424 年)即位后,开始大规模营建北京城池和宫殿,并于 1421 年正式迁都北京。
3. He dispatched an eunuch named Zheng He to lead a fleet of many ships to make seven far-ranging voyages.
他派太监郑和率领庞大的船队进行了七次规模巨大的海上远航。
4. Passing the Southeast Asian countries, the Indian Ocean, Persian Gulf and Maldives Islands, Zheng He explored as far as Somalia and Kenya on the eastern coast of Africa.
郑和的船队途经东南亚各国、印度洋、波斯湾、马尔代夫群岛,最远到达非洲东海岸的索马里和肯尼亚。
5. These were the largest-scale and longest voyages in the world before the age of Columbus.
这是哥伦布时代以前世界上规模最大、航程最远的海上探险。
6. By 1387 the Ming Dynasty had basically reunited the entire country.
到 1387 年,明朝基本统一了全国。

7. With its first few emperors being wise and enlightened, the Ming Dynasty enjoyed prosperity for 60—odd years under their reign.
明朝前期的几个皇帝比较贤明,他们在位的六十多年是明朝的盛世。
8. It began to decline after Yingzong ascended the throne in 1435.
自 1435 年明英宗即位开始,明朝逐步走向衰退。
9. In the meanwhile, the Qirat tribe of the Mongol people in the north had grown strong enough to covet Ming territory.
与此同时,北方蒙古族的瓦剌部强盛起来,开始对明朝虎视眈眈。
10. The 500 000—strong Ming troops suffered heavy casualties at Tumubao (east of present-day Huailai county, Hebei province). Many high officials were killed and Emperor Yingzong himself was captured alive.
明朝的 50 万大军在土木堡(今河北怀来东)被打得大败,许多重要的大臣战死,明英宗也做了瓦剌的俘虏。
11. Japanese pirates plagued China's coastline throughout the Ming Dynasty.
在整个明代,中国沿海地区一直遭到日本海盗的侵扰。
12. Political, economic, military and financial crisis erupted in the Ming Dynasty by the end of the 16th century. Ominous signs appeared everywhere.
从 16 世纪末开始,明朝在政治、经济、军事、财政各方面都出现了严重危机,呈现出一片末世景象。
13. In 1627 Zhu Youjian succeeded his brother to become Emperor Chongzhen.
公元 1627 年,朱由检接替哥哥做了皇帝,是为崇祯帝。
14. With the capital Beijing occupied by the Qing army, the Ming court moved its center of power to Nanjing, the secondary capital of the Ming.
清军进入北京以后,明朝又在陪都南京建立了政权。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The Ming Dynasty (1368—1644) followed the Yuan Dynasty and preceded the Qing Dynasty in China. The dynasty was founded by the Zhu family.

Among the populace there were strong feelings against the rule of “the foreigners”, which finally led to a peasant revolt that pushed the Yuan dynasty back to the Mongolian steppes and established the Ming Dynasty in 1368. This dynasty started out as a time of renewed cultural blossom: arts, especially the porcelain industry, reached an unprecedented height; Chinese merchants explored all of the Indian Ocean, reaching Africa with the voyages of Zheng He. A vast navy was built, including 4 masted ships displacing 1 500 tons; there was a standing army of 1 million troops. Over 100 000 tons of iron per year were produced in North China. Many books were printed using movable type. Some would argue that Early Ming China was the most advanced nation on Earth.

Paragraph 2

B 修建长城 Building the Great Wall

After the Ming army defeat at Battle of Tumubao and later raids by the Mongols under a new leader, Altan Khan, the Ming adopted a new strategy for dealing with the northern horsemen: a giant impregnable wall.

Almost 100 years earlier (1368) the Ming had started building a new, technically advanced fortification which today is called the Great Wall of China. Created at great expense the wall followed the new borders of the Ming Empire. Acknowledging the control which the Mongols established in

the Ordos, south of the Huang He, the wall follows what is now the northern border of Shanxi and Shaanxi provinces. Work on the wall largely superseded military expeditions against the Mongols for the last 80 years of the Ming dynasty and continued up until 1644, when the dynasty collapsed.

The Great Wall seen today was built during the Ming Dynasty (明朝), on a much larger scale and with longer lasting materials than any wall built before. The primary purpose of the wall was not to keep out people, who could climb the wall, but make it difficult for semi-nomadic people outside the wall to cross with their horses or return with stolen property.

The Ming Dynasty Great Wall starts on the eastern end at Shanhai Pass, near Qinhuangdao, in Hebei Province, next to Bohai Gulf. Spanning nine provinces and 100 counties, the final 500 kilometers have all but turned to rubble, and today it ends on the western end at the historic site of Jiayu Pass (嘉峪关), located in northwest Gansu Province at the limit of the Gobi Desert and the oases of the Silk Road (丝绸之路). Jiayu Pass was intended to greet travelers along the Silk Road. Even though The Great Wall ends at Jiayu Pass, there are many watchtowers (烽火台) extending beyond Jiayu Pass along the Silk Road. These towers communicated by smoke to signal invasion.

The Kokes Manchus crossed the Wall by convincing an important general Wu Sangui (吴三桂) to open the gates of Shanhai Pass and allow the Manchus to cross. Legend has it that they took three days for the Manchu armies to pass. After they conquered China, the Wall was of no strategic value as the people whom the Wall was intended to keep out were ruling the country.

Paragraph 3

M 郑和下西洋 Maritime Expeditions of Zheng He

During the Ming period, the emperors sent seven maritime expeditions probing down into the South Seas and across the Indian Ocean. Yongle Emperor (永乐帝) strenuously tried to extend China's influence beyond her

borders by encouraging other rulers to send ambassadors to China to present tribute. The Chinese armies reconquered Annam and blocked Mongol expansionism, while the Chinese fleet sailed the China seas and the Indian Ocean, cruising as far as the east coast of Africa. The Chinese gained a certain influence over Turkestan. The maritime Asian nations sent envoys with tribute for the Chinese emperor. Internally, the Grand Canal was expanded to its farthest limits and proved to be a stimulus to domestic trade.

The most extraordinary venture, however, during this stage was the dispatch Zheng He's (郑和) seven naval expeditions, which traversed the Indian Ocean and the Southeast Asian archipelago. An ambitious Muslim eunuch of Hui descent, a quintessential outsider in the establishment of Confucian scholar elites, Zheng He led seven expeditions from 1405 to 1433 with six of them under the auspices of Yongle. He traversed perhaps as far as the Cape of Good Hope.

The first expedition in 1405 consisted of 62 ships and 28 000 men—then the largest naval expedition in history. Zheng He's multi-decked ships carried up to 500 troops but also cargoes of export goods, mainly silks and porcelains, and brought back foreign luxuries such as spices and tropical woods.

The economic motive for these huge ventures may have been important, and many of the ships had large private cabins for merchants. But the chief aim was probably political, to enroll further states as tributaries and mark the reemergence of the Chinese Empire following nearly a century of barbarian rule. The political character of Zheng He's voyages indicates the primacy of the political elites. Despite their formidable and unprecedented strength, Zheng He's voyages were not intended to extend Chinese sovereignty overseas.

Zheng He sailed from China to many places throughout South Pacific, Indian Ocean, Persian Gulf and distant Africa in seven epic voyages from 1405 to 1433, some 80 years before Columbus's voyages. These explorations have impressed themselves deeply into the voyage history of the world.

F 明朝的灭亡 Fall of the Ming Dynasty

The fall of the Ming Dynasty was a protracted affair, its roots beginning as early as 1600 with the emergence of the Manchu under Nurhaci. Under the brilliant commander, Yuan Chonghuan, the Ming were able to repeatedly fight off the Manchus, notably in 1623 (where Nurhaci himself was killed by a much smaller force commanded by Yuan.) and in 1628. But the tragic killing of General Yuan in 1630 by the futile Ming emperor began to change things around; the succeeding general proved unable to eliminate the Manchu threat. Earlier, however, in Yuan's command he had securely fortified the Shanhai Pass, thus blocking the Manchus from crossing the pass to attack Liaodong Peninsula.

Unable to attack the heart of Ming directly, the Manchu instead bided their time, developing their own artillery and gathering allies. They were able to enlist Ming government officials and generals as their strategic advisors. Large part of the Ming Army mutinied to the Manchu banner. In 1633 they completed a conquest of Inner Mongolia, resulting in a large scale recruitment of Mongol troops under the Manchu banner and the securing of an additional route into the Ming heartland.

By 1636 the Manchu ruler Huangtaiji was confident enough to proclaim the Imperial Qing Dynasty at Shenyang, which had fallen to the Manchu in 1621, taking the Imperial title Chongde. The end of 1637 saw the defeat and conquest of Ming's traditional ally Korea by a 100 000 strong Manchu army, and the Korean renunciation of the Ming Dynasty.

On May 26, 1644, Beijing fell to a rebel army led by Li Zicheng. Seizing their chance, the Manchus crossed the Great Wall after Ming border general Wu Sangui opened the gates at Shanhai Pass, and quickly overthrew Li's short-lived Shun Dynasty. Despite the loss of Beijing (whose weakness as an Imperial capital had been foreseen by Zhu Yuanzhang) and the death of the Emperor, Ming power was by no means destroyed.

Nanjing, Fujian, Guangdong, Shanxi and Yunnan could all have been and were in fact strongholds of Ming resistance. However, the loss of central authority saw multiple pretenders for the Ming throne, unable to work together. Each bastion of resistance was individually defeated by the Qing until 1662, when the last real hopes of a Ming revival died with the Yongli emperor, Zhu Youlang. Despite the Ming defeat, smaller loyalist movements continued till the proclamation of the Republic Of China.

Paragraph 5

T郑成功收复台湾 **he Recapture of Taiwan by Zheng Chenggong**

As an island in East Asia, Taiwan (台湾) is located off the coast of mainland China, south of Japan and north of the Philippines. It is bounded to the east by the Pacific Ocean, to the south by the South China Sea, to the west by the Taiwan Strait and to the north by the East China Sea. The island is 245 miles long and 89 miles wide and consists of steep mountains covered by tropical and subtropical vegetation.

Evidence of human settlement in Taiwan dates back 30 000 years. Records from ancient China indicate that Han Chinese might have known of the existence of the main island of Taiwan since the Three Kingdoms period, having assigned offshore islands in the vicinity names like Greater and Minor Liuqiu (琉球), though none of these names have been definitively matched to the main island of Taiwan. It has been claimed but not verified that Zheng He (郑和 Ming Dynasty) visited Taiwan between 1403 and 1424.

In 1624, the Dutch established a commercial base on Taiwan and began to import workers from Fujian and Penghu as laborers, many of whom settled. The Dutch made Taiwan a colony with its colonial capital at Tainan.

In 1661, Zheng Chenggong (郑成功) led his troops to a landing at Lu'ermen to attack Taiwan. By the end of the year, he had chased out the Dutch, who had controlled Taiwan for 38 years. Following the fall of the Ming dynasty (明朝), he retreated to Taiwan as a self-styled Ming loyalist,

and established the Kingdom of Dongning (东宁王国 1662—1683). Zheng Chenggong establishing his capital at Tainan and he and his heirs continued to launch raids on the east coast of mainland China well into the Qing dynasty, in an attempt to recover the mainland.

At the age of 39, Zheng Chenggong died of malaria, although speculations said that he died in a sudden fit of madness upon hearing the death of his father under the Qing. His son, Zheng Jing (郑经), succeeded as the King of Taiwan.

In 1683, the Qing dynasty (清朝) defeated the Zheng holdout, and formally annexed Taiwan, placing it under the jurisdiction of Fujian province. Following the defeat of Zheng's grandson to an armada led by Admiral Shi Lang, Zheng's followers were expatriated to the farthest reaches of the Qing empire, leaving approximately 7 000 Han on Taiwan. The Qing government wrestled with its Taiwan policy to reduce piracy and vagrancy in the area, which led to a series of edicts to manage immigration and respect aboriginal land rights. Illegal immigrants from Fujian continued to enter Taiwan as renters of the large plots of aboriginal lands under contracts that usually involved marriage, while the border between taxpaying lands and "savage" lands migrated east, with some aborigines while others retreated into the mountains. During this time, there were a number of conflicts involving Han Chinese from different regions of China, and between Han Chinese and aborigines. The bulk of Taiwan's population today, the "native" Taiwanese, claim descent from these migrants.



Cultural Links

文化链接

明代小说

明代的小说已达到很高的艺术成就,而且产生了大量的以历史、神怪、公案、言情和市民日常生活为题材的长篇章回小说和短篇的话本、拟话本。其中《三国演义》、《水浒传》和《西游记》,堪称一代巨著。

元明之际文学家罗贯中在民间传说的基础上,参采史乘,写成了《三国演义》这部巨作。作者在描写东汉末年军阀混战和三国相争的历史画卷的

同时,还用浓墨塑造了许多个性鲜明的人物形象,具有很强的艺术感染力。这部小说长期被人们所喜爱。

南宋以来,在民间就流传宋江起义的故事。在民间群众创作的基础上,施耐庵加工写成了《水浒传》。《水浒传》以极大的热情歌颂了晁盖、李逵、鲁智深、武松、林冲等农民英雄反抗封建统治的武装斗争,描写了他们不同的经历和悲惨的遭遇,以及从个人反抗到聚义梁山,形成强大起义队伍的斗争过程。小说还深刻揭露了封建统治的罪恶和黑暗,挖掘了产生农民起义的社会根源。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

be destroyed 灭亡

religion 宗教

call together 召集

do obeisance 拜

idea 观念

peaceful and tranquil 太平

cheer 欢呼

luxury 奢侈

surround 包围

scared 惊慌

regime 政权

encamp 扎营

raid 袭击

campsite 营地

wake up 惊醒

route 路

ask for help 求救

pursuit 追求

ancestral hall or temple 祠堂

U 清朝 Unit 3 Qing Dynasty



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The Manchus of northeast China established the Qing Dynasty (1644—1911) in 1644.
中国东北部的满族人于 1644 年建立清朝 (1644—1911 年)。
2. The best known of the Qing Dynasty emperors, Kangxi (r. 1661—1722) restored the central empire's rule over Taiwan, and resisted invasions by tsarist Russia.
清朝最著名的皇帝康熙 (1661—1722 年在位) 统一了台湾, 遏止了沙俄入侵。
3. During the early 19th century, the Qing Dynasty declined rapidly.
19 世纪初, 清王朝迅速衰败。
4. Many countries, including Britain, the United States, France, Russia and Japan forced the Qing government to sign various unequal treaties following the Opium War.
鸦片战争之后, 英、美、法、俄、日等国家不断强迫清政府签订各种不平等条约。
5. China was gradually relegated to a semi-colonial, semi-feudal country.
中国逐渐沦为半殖民地半封建社会。
6. In 1616 Nurhachi, chieftain of the Nuzhen people, claimed the title of "Khan". He named his reign "Great Jin", known historically as Later Jin.
1616 年, 女真首领努尔哈赤即位称汗, 国号大金, 史称后金。

7. In 1636 Nurhachi's son, Huangtaiji, ascended the throne in Shenyang. This was the beginning of the Qing Dynasty.

1636 年,努尔哈赤的儿子皇太极在沈阳称帝,建立了清朝。

8. In an effort to promote culture and also to unify thought, Emperor Qianlong organized scholars from across the country to catalogue all the documents prior to the Qing. The Complete Library in the Four Branches of Literature, completed in 1782, encompasses a collection of 3,500 titles in 79 300 volumes.

为了发展文化,也为了统一思想,乾隆组织全国学者对流传下来的全部文献进行整理,在 1782 年编成了《四库全书》。这部书中收入了约 3500 种书,总计 79300 多卷。

9. In the 1st month of 1851, Hong Xiuquan started the uprising by setting up the Taiping Kingdom in Jintian village, Guiping county, Guangxi. His army, also named "Taiping".

1851 年 1 月,洪秀全在广西桂平县金田村发动起义,建号太平天国,军队号为太平军。

10. After Hong Xiuquan died from illness in the 6th month of 1864, Qing troops under the direction of Zeng Guofan seized Nanjing the following month. Thus ended the Taiping Kingdom, 14 years after its founding.

1864 年 6 月,洪秀全病逝。7 月,曾国藩指挥的清军攻破南京,历时 14 年的太平天国起义失败了。

11. These ministers advocated and participated in the Westernization Movement in the 1860s through 1890s.

在这些人的倡导和参与下,19 世纪 60 至 90 年代之间的中国兴起了洋务运动。

12. The Hundred-Day Reforms played a crucial role in liberating the minds of the Chinese people, although its political achievements were extremely limited.

百日维新作为政治运动成果极为有限,但它却对解放中国人的思想发挥了至关重要的作用。

13. By the end of the 18th century, the escalating corruption in the Qing court led to increasingly severe social conflicts.

18 世纪末,清王朝的统治日益腐败,社会矛盾在愈加尖锐。

14. The Qing government was forced to impose a ban on the opium trade.

清政府不得不采取严厉措施查禁鸦片。

15. In the 8th month of 1842, on a British warship representatives of the Qing court signed the humiliating Treaty of Nanking. The war ended in China's defeat.

1842 年 8 月,清廷代表在英国军舰上与英国签订了丧权辱国的《南京条约》,鸦片战争至此结束。

16. The Opium War marked the beginning of China's modern history. The Treaty of Nanking is the first unequal treaty in this period.

鸦片战争标志着中国近代史的开始,而《南京条约》是中国近代史上第一个不平等条约。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 General

The Qing Dynasty (清朝), sometimes known as the Manchu Dynasty, was founded by the Manchu clan Aisin Gioro (爱新觉罗), in what is today northeast China expanded into China proper and the surrounding territories of Inner Asia, establishing the Empire of the Great Qing (大清帝国), which was founded not by the Han Chinese people, but by the Manchus, a semi-nomadic people not even known by that name when they first rose to prominence in what is now northeastern China. Taking advantage of the political instability and popular rebellions convulsing the Ming dynasty, the highly organized military forces of the Manchus swept into the Ming capital of Beijing

in 1644, and there remained until the Qing dynasty was overthrown in the Xinhai Revolution (辛亥革命) of 1911, with the last emperor abdicating early in 1912. The Qing was the last imperial dynasty of China.

Paragraph 2

R满族的崛起 **Rise of the Manchu**

In the early 1600s Aixinjueluo Nurhaci formed the nomadic Manchu State known as Manchuo (满洲). He united four of the Manchu Flagged Factions that and later collected power of all eight of the flagged factions. In the later periods of his reign, he moved the capital to Shenyang.

When Lindan Khan, the last grand-Khan of the Mongols, died on his way to Tibet in 1634, his son Ejei surrendered to the Manchu and gave the great seal of the Yuan Emperor to Huangtaiji. As a result, Huangtaiji established the new dynasty of Qing as the successor of the Yuan Dynasty in 1636.

After years of civil unrest, the Ming capital Beijing was sacked by a coalition of rebel forces led by one Li Zicheng (李自成). The Ming Dynasty officially came to an end when the last Ming Emperor committed suicide by hanging himself on a tree on the hill overlooking the Forbidden City. After taking Beijing in April 1644, Li Zhicheng led an army of 60 000 strong to confront Wu Sangui (吴三桂), the general commanding Ming's 100 000 strong garrison stationed at ShanhaiPass(山海关). ShanhaiPass is the pivotal northeastern pass of the Great Wall of China located fifty miles north-east of Beijing and for years its defenses were what kept the Manchus at bay and out of China. Wu caught between two enemies decided to cast his lots with the Manchus and made an alliance with Dorgon, regent to the then six-year old Shunzhi, son of Huangtaiji who had passed away the year before.

Together the two armies met Li Zhicheng's rebel forces in battle on May 27, 1644. Even though the rebel forces were routed, Wu's army was so weakened by the day's fighting that he had no choice but to join the Man-



chus forces as they captured Beijing on June 6 and began their conquest of the whole of China. The process took another seventeen years of battling Ming loyalists, pretenders and rebels. The last Ming pretender Prince Gui sort refuge in Burma but was turned over to a Qing expeditionary force headed by Wu Sangui who had him brought back to Yunnan province and executed in early 1662.

Paragraph 3

T第一次鸦片战争 **he First Opium War**

Roughly between the Congress of Vienna and the Franco-Prussian War, Britain reaped the benefits of being the world's sole modern, industrial nation. Following the defeat of Napoleon, Britain was the "workshop of the world", meaning that its finished goods were no longer produced so efficiently and cheaply that they could often undersell comparable, locally manufactured goods in almost any other market. If political conditions in a particular overseas markets were stable enough, Britain could develop its economy through free trade alone without having to resort to formal rule or mercantilism. Britain was even supplying half the needs in manufactured goods of such nations as Germany, France, Belgium, and the United States. As these other newly industrial powers, the United States, and Japan after the Meiji Restoration began industrializing at a rapid rate, however, Britain's comparative advantage in trade of any finished good began diminishing.

Sovereign areas already hospitable to informal empire largely avoided formal rule during the shift to New Imperialism. China, for instance, was not a backward country unable to secure the prerequisite stability and security for western-style commerce, but a highly advanced empire unwilling to admit western (often drug-pushing) commerce, which may explain the West's contentment with informal "Spheres of Influences". China, unlike tropical Africa, was a securable market without formal control. Following the First Opium War, British commerce, and later capital invested by other

newly industrializing powers, was securable with a smaller degree of formal control than in Southeast Asia, West Africa, and the Pacific. But in many respects, China was a colony and a large-scale receptacle of Western capital investments. Western powers did intervene militarily there to quell domestic chaos, such as the horrific Taiping Rebellion and the anti-imperialist Boxer Rebellion. For example, General Gordon, later the imperialist “martyr” in the Sudan, is often accredited as having saved the Manchu dynasty from the Taiping insurrection.

Paragraph 4

T太平起义 The Taiping Rebellion

During the mid-nineteenth century, China's problems were compounded by natural calamities of unprecedented proportions, including droughts, famines, and floods. Government neglect of public works was in part responsible for this and other disasters, and the Qing administration did little to relieve the widespread misery caused by them. Economic tensions, military defeats at Western hands, and anti-Manchu sentiments all combined to produce widespread unrest, especially in the south. South China had been the last area to yield to the Qing conquerors and the first to be exposed to Western influence. It provided a likely setting for the largest uprising in modern Chinese history—the Taiping Rebellion.

The Taiping rebels were led by Hong Xiuquan (1814—1864), a village teacher and unsuccessful imperial examination candidate. Hong formulated an eclectic ideology combining the ideals of pre-Confucian utopianism with Protestant beliefs. He soon had a following in the thousands who were heavily anti-Manchu and anti-establishment. Hong's followers formed a military organization to protect against bandits and recruited troops not only among believers but also from among other armed peasant groups and secret societies. In 1851 Hong Xiuquan and others launched an uprising in Guizhou Province. Hong proclaimed the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace (or Taiping Tianguo) with himself as king. The new order was to reconsti-

tute a legendary ancient state in which the peasantry owned and tilled the land in common; slavery, concubinage, arranged marriage, opium smoking, footbinding, judicial torture, and the worship of idols were all to be eliminated. The Taiping tolerance of the esoteric rituals and quasi-religious societies of south China——themselves a threat to Qing stability——and their relentless attacks on Confucianism——still widely accepted as the moral foundation of Chinese behavior——contributed to the ultimate defeat of the rebellion. Its advocacy of radical social reforms alienated the Han Chinese scholar-gentry class. The Taiping army, although it had captured Nanjing and driven as far north as Tianjin, failed to establish stable base areas. The movement's leaders found themselves in a net of internal feuds, defections, and corruption. Additionally, British and French forces, being more willing to deal with the weak Qing administration than contend with the uncertainties of a Taiping regime, came to the assistance of the imperial army. Before the Chinese army succeeded in crushing the revolt, however, 14 years had passed, and well over 30 million people were reported killed.

To defeat the rebellion, the Qing court needed, besides Western help, an army stronger and more popular than the demoralized imperial forces. In 1860, scholar-official Zeng Guofan (1811—1872), from Hunan Province, was appointed imperial commissioner and governor-general of the Taiping-controlled territories and placed in command of the war against the rebels. Zeng's Hunan army, created and paid for by local taxes, became a powerful new fighting force under the command of eminent scholar-generals. Zeng's success gave new power to an emerging Han Chinese elite and eroded Qing authority. Simultaneous uprisings in north China (the Nian Rebellion) and southwest China (the Muslim Rebellion) further demonstrated Qing weakness.

The Westernization Movement

The rude realities of the Opium War, the unequal treaties, and the mid-century mass uprisings caused Qing courtiers and officials to recognize the need to strengthen China. Chinese scholars and officials had been examining and translating “Western Learning” since the 1840s. Under the direction of modern-thinking Han officials, Western science and languages were studied, special schools were opened in the larger cities, and arsenals, factories, and shipyards were established according to Western models. Western diplomatic practices were adopted by the Qing, and students were sent abroad by the government and on individual or community initiative in the hope that national regeneration could be achieved through the application of Western practical methods.

Amid these activities came an attempt to arrest the dynastic decline by restoring the traditional order. The effort was known as the Tongzhi Restoration, named for the Tongzhi Emperor (1862—1874), and was engineered by the young emperor's mother, the Empress Dowager Ci Xi (1835—1908). The restoration, however, which applied “practical knowledge” while reaffirming the old mentality, was not a genuine program of modernization.

The effort to graft Western technology onto Chinese institutions became known as the Self-Strengthening Movement. The movement was championed by scholar-generals like Li Hongzhang (1823—1901) and Zuo Zongtang (1812—1885), who had fought with the government forces in the Taiping Rebellion. From 1861 to 1894, leaders such as these, now turned scholar-administrators, were responsible for establishing modern institutions, developing basic industries, communications, and transportation, and modernizing the military. But despite its leaders' accomplishments, the Self-Strengthening Movement did not recognize the significance of the political institutions and social theories that had fostered Western advances and

innovations. This weakness led to the movement's failure. Modernization during this period would have been difficult under the best of circumstances. The bureaucracy was still deeply influenced by Neo-Confucian orthodoxy. Chinese society was still reeling from the ravages of the Taiping and other rebellions, and foreign encroachments continued to threaten the integrity of China.

The first step in the foreign powers' effort to carve up the empire was taken by Russia, which had been expanding into Central Asia. By the 1850s, tsarist troops also had invaded the Heilong Jiang watershed of Manchuria, from which their countrymen had been ejected under the Treaty of Nerchinsk. The Russians used the superior knowledge of China they had acquired through their century-long residence in Beijing to further their aggrandizement. In 1860 Russian diplomats secured the secession of all of Manchuria north of the Heilong Jiang and east of the Wusuli Jiang (Ussuri River). Foreign encroachments increased after 1860 by means of a series of treaties imposed on China on one pretext or another. The foreign stranglehold on the vital sectors of the Chinese economy was reinforced through a lengthening list of concessions. Foreign settlements in the treaty ports became extraterritorial—sovereign pockets of territories over which China had no jurisdiction. The safety of these foreign settlements was ensured by the menacing presence of warships and gunboats.

At this time the foreign powers also took over the peripheral states that had acknowledged Chinese suzerainty and given tribute to the emperor. France colonized Cochin China, as southern Vietnam was then called, and by 1864 established a protectorate over Cambodia. Following a victorious war against China in 1884—1885, France also took Annam. Britain gained control over Burma. Russia penetrated into Chinese Turkestan (the modern-day Xinjiang-Uyghur Autonomous Region). Japan, having emerged from its century-and-a-half-long seclusion and having gone through its own modernization movement, defeated China in the war of 1894—1895. The Treaty of Shimonoseki forced China to cede Taiwan and the Penghu Islands to Japan, pay a huge indemnity, permit the establishment of Japanese indus-



tries in four treaty ports, and recognize Japanese hegemony over Korea. In 1898 the British acquired a ninety-nine-year lease over the so-called New Territories of Kowloon (or Jiulong in pinyin), which increased the size of their Hong Kong colony. Britain, Japan, Russia, Germany, France, and Belgium each gained spheres of influence in China. The United States, which had not acquired any territorial cessions, proposed in 1899 that there be an “open door” policy in China, whereby all foreign countries would have equal duties and privileges in all treaty ports within and outside the various spheres of influence. All but Russia agreed to the United States overture.

Paragraph 6

T百日维新 **he Hundred Days' Reform**

In the 103 days from June 11 to September 21, 1898, the Qing emperor, Guangxu (1875—1908), ordered a series of reforms aimed at making sweeping social and institutional changes. This effort reflected the thinking of a group of progressive scholar-reformers who had impressed the court with the urgency of making innovations for the nation's survival. Influenced by the Japanese success with modernization, the reformers declared that China needed more than “self-strengthening” and that innovation must be accompanied by institutional and ideological change.

The imperial edicts for reform covered a broad range of subjects, including stamping out corruption and remaking, among other things, the academic and civil-service examination systems, legal system, governmental structure, defense establishment, and postal services. The edicts attempted to modernize agriculture, medicine, and mining and to promote practical studies instead of Neo-Confucian orthodoxy. The court also planned to send students abroad for firsthand observation and technical studies. All these changes were to be brought about under a de facto constitutional monarchy.

Opposition to the reform was intense among the conservative ruling

elite, especially the Manchus, who, in condemning the announced reform as too radical, proposed instead a more moderate and gradualist course of change. Supported by ultraconservative and with the tacit support of the political opportunist Yuan Shikai (1859—1916), Empress Dowager Ci Xi engineered a coup on September 21, 1898, forcing the young reform-minded Guangxu into seclusion. Ci Xi took over the government as regent. The Hundred Days' Reform ended with the rescindment of the new edicts and the execution of six of the reform's chief advocates. The two principal leaders, Kang Youwei (1858—1927) and Liang Qichao (1873—1929), fled abroad to found the Baohuang Hui (or Protect the Emperor Society) and to work, unsuccessfully, for a constitutional monarchy in China.

The conservatives then gave clandestine backing to the antiforeign and anti-Christian movement of secret societies known as Yihetuan (or Society of Righteousness and Harmony). The movement has been better known in the West as the Boxers (from an earlier name——Yihequan, or Righteousness and Harmony Boxers). In 1900 Boxer bands spread over the north China countryside, burning missionary facilities and killing Chinese Christians. Finally, in June 1900, the Boxers besieged the foreign concessions in Beijing and Tianjin, an action that provoked an allied relief expedition by the offended nations. The Qing declared war against the invaders, who easily crushed their opposition and occupied north China. Under the Protocol of 1901, the court was made to consent to the execution of ten high officials and the punishment of hundreds of others, expansion of the Legation Quarter, payment of war reparations, stationing of foreign troops in China, and razing of some Chinese fortifications.

In the decade that followed, the court belatedly put into effect some reform measures. These included the abolition of the moribund Confucian-based examination, educational and military modernization patterned after the model of Japan, and an experiment, if half-hearted, in constitutional and parliamentary government. The suddenness and ambitiousness of the reform effort actually hindered its success. One effect, to be felt for decades to come, was the establishment of new armies, which, in turn, gave rise

to warlordism.

Paragraph 7

F清朝的衰落 **fall of the Qing Dynasty**

Mass civil disorder had also begun and continuously grown. Cixi and the Guangxu emperor both died in 1908, leaving a relatively powerless and unstable central authority. The Puyi, eldest son of Zaifeng, Prince Chun, was appointed successor at age two, leaving Zaifeng with the regency. This was followed by the dismissal of General Yuan Shikai from his former positions of power. In mid 1911 Zaifeng created the “Imperial Family Cabinet”, a ruling council of the Imperial Government almost entirely consisting of Aisin Gioro relatives. This brought a wide range of negative opinion from senior officials like Zhang Zhidong.

The Wuchang Uprising succeeded on October 10th, 1911, and was followed by a proclamation of a separate central government, the Republic of China, in Nanjing with Sun Yat-sen as its provisional head. Numerous provinces began “separating” from Qing control. Seeing a desperate situation unfold, the Qing government brought an unwilling Yuan Shikai back to military power, taking control of his Beiyang Army, with the initial goal of crushing the revolutionaries. After taking the position of Prime Minister (内阁总理大臣) and creating his own cabinet, Yuan went as far as to ask for the removal of Zaifeng from the regency. This removal later proceeded with directions from Empress Dowager Longyu.

With Zaifeng gone, Yuan Shikai and his Beiyang commanders effectively dominated Qing politics. He reasoned that going to war would be unreasonable and costly; especially when noting that the Qing Government had a goal for constitutional monarchy. Similarly, Sun Yat-sen’s government wanted Republican constitutional reform, both aiming for the benefit of China’s economy and populace. With permission from Empress Dowager Longyu, Yuan began negotiating with Sun Yat-sen, who decided that his goal had been achieved in forming a republic, and that therefore he could allow



Yuan to step into the position of President of the Republic. In 1912, after rounds of negotiations, Longyu issued the Imperial Edict bringing about the abdication of the child emperor Puyi, thus ending around two thousand years of Chinese Imperial rule.

Paragraph 8

C明清文化 **Culture in the Ming Dynasty and the Qing Dynasty**

During the Ming and the Qing dynasties, on account of the sprouting of capitalism and the merging and developing of the urban areas, the ideology of early enlightenment, which was directed against the dark autocratic politics, started to rise. The representative figures were Li Zhi, Huang Zongxi, Gu Yanwu, Wang Fuzhi and Dai Zhen in the end of the Ming Dynasty and the early Qing Dynasty. They exposed the irrationality of the system of autocratic monarchy, condemned the hypocrisy and cruelty of Neo-Confucianism, advocated practical learning and proposed a notion that industry and commerce were both the foundations. But on the whole, this criticism was still in this primary stage. It hadn't formed into an integrated system of thought. Therefore, these social critics were not able to propose new plans for social reform.

In the period of the Ming and the Qing dynasties, facing the mature traditional culture, the ruling class took it as their key task to systemize academic achievements. The Ming and the Qing dynasties employed plenty of manpower and abundant financial resources to collect and systemize a tremendous amount of ancient books. They successively compiled "Great Encyclopaedia of Yongle" and "A Collection of Books Ancient and Present". These two books were works combining to some extent the characteristics of encyclopaedias and concordances. "Complete Library in the Four Branches of Literature" was a large-scaled collection. "Complete collection of Prose in the Tang Dynasty" and "A Complete Collection of Poems in the Tang Dynasty" were general anthology of prose and verse. "The Kangxi Dictionary" and "Exegesis of Classical Works" were large reference books.



Meanwhile, there rose a study of textual criticism, forming “the Qian Jia School” which was rather influential at that time. From the angle of philosophy and by means of exegesis, the scholars re-annotated Confucian classics and other classical works. It was one of the great achievements in China’s ancient cultural history. So they made an important contribution to preserving and inheriting the traditional Chinese culture.

In the literary world of the Ming and the Qing dynasties, the greatest success was attained in the creation of novels. “The Romance of the Three Kingdoms”, “Water Margin”, “Pilgrimage to the West” and “A Dream of Red Mansions” were called altogether as the four greatest classical novels. In science and technology, there came into being some great academic works of summa, such as Li Shizhen’s “Compendium of Materia Medica”, Pan Jixun’s “A Survey of Flood-Prevention Work on Rivers”, Xu Guangqi’s “A Complete Treatise on Agriculture”, Song Yingxing’s “Tian Gong Kai Wu”, Xu Xiake’s “Xu Xiake’s Travel Notes” and Yuan Yuan’s “Biography of Almanac Compilers”, etc. The brilliant academic achievements in a feeble political climate constituted a peculiar cultural landscape of the Ming and the Qing Dynasties.



Cultural Links 文化链接

清代的国家统一

清代,国家统一大业的完成,使清王朝幅员辽阔,气势恢弘,成为亚洲头等强国,也是世界强国之一,并且奠定了近代中国的版图,留给今人一份宝贵遗产。应该说,清代的国家统一,既是历史的必然趋势,又与清统治者特别是康熙乾隆三帝顺应这一趋势,坚决与分裂势力作斗争,实行有利于统一大业的方针和政策相关。

清代国家统一的完成是与各种分裂势力长期斗争的结果。顺治元年(1644年)清军入关,清王朝建立了全国政权。至顺治十八年(1661年)南明永历帝桂王朱由榔被俘而死,清王朝虽然基本上统一了大陆,但国家的完全统一还远未完成。康熙帝继位之初,南方有日益坐大的三藩势力;东南海上有台湾郑氏抗清力量;在东北,沙皇俄国侵扰黑龙江流域已三十余

年;在西北,厄鲁特蒙古准噶尔部上层分裂势力日益嚣张,其影响波及喀喇喀蒙古、内蒙古、青海和西藏。总之,各种分裂势力仍然存在,严重威胁着清王朝的统治和国家的统一。为此,清王朝统治者采取了一系列制止分裂、完成统一的行动。

平定三藩之乱 康熙十二年(1672年),康熙帝下令撤藩。云南平西王吴三桂举兵造反,福建靖南王耿精忠、广东平南王尚可喜先后响应,是为三藩之乱。吴三桂旧部任他省提督、总兵者也纷纷倒戈反清,半个中国陷入战火,清王朝处于生死存亡的危急关头。吴三桂自立为帝,并授意达赖喇嘛上奏清廷,劝说康熙皇帝“裂土罢兵”,让他割据南方。康熙帝对此痛加驳斥:“朕为天下人民之主,岂容裂土罢兵?!”经过八年的战争,于康熙二十年最终平定了三藩之乱。

统一台湾 台湾自古以来就是中国的领土。明天启元年(1624年),荷兰侵略者占领台湾。顺治十八年(1661年),民族英雄郑成功驱逐荷兰侵略者,收复台湾,作为抗清基地。翌年,郑成功病逝,子郑经嗣位。康熙三年、四年,清福建水师提督施琅两次率军征台,遇飓风无功而返,于是清廷决定招抚。康熙六年五月,清廷对郑经许以“八闽王及沿海诸岛”,郑经予以拒绝,宣称“东宁(台湾)远在海外,非属版图之中”,要求清廷仿照朝鲜的成例处理台湾与中央政权之间的关系。郑经完全背叛了乃父关于台湾自古以来就是中国领土的原则,他的言行使台湾郑氏集团与清廷的矛盾从抗清一变成为分裂祖国。康熙帝对郑经的要求给予严厉的驳斥,指出:“朝鲜系从来之外国,郑经乃中国之人”。为了维护国家统一,康熙帝任命施琅为福建水师提督,于康熙二十二年(1683年)武力统一台湾。这之后,就如何管理台湾的问题,又引发了清廷内部一场“弃留”之争。康熙帝明确指出:“台湾弃取关系甚大”,“弃而不守,尤为不可”。据此,清廷在台湾设置一府三县,总兵官一员,兵八千;澎湖设副将一员,兵二千,隶属于福建省。从此,台湾和大陆统一起来,其行政建制与内地划一。

抵抗沙俄 明清之际,沙皇俄国持续侵扰我国黑龙江流域达数十年之久。康熙帝亲政之后,曾多次通过外交途径敦促俄国远征军从中国领土上自动撤离,未果。康熙二十四年、二十五年,清朝发动了抗击沙俄入侵、收复中国领土的两次雅克萨之战,于康熙二十八年(1689年)与沙皇政府签订了《中俄尼布楚条约》,划定了中俄两国东段边界,制止了沙俄的侵扰,使这一地区保持和平一百余年。雍正五年(1727年),清廷与沙俄政府签订《布



连斯奇条约》以划分中俄中段边界,经勘界后,翌年签订了《恰克图条约》。对此,法国学者加恩评价说:“借助于《尼布楚条约》,它(清廷)已经遏止了俄国紧逼黑龙江流域;借助于《恰克图条约》,它又使俄国人远离北京,并且用条约阻止俄国人的进展。”(加斯东·加恩《彼得大帝时期的俄中关系(1689—1730)》)

与准噶尔分裂势力的斗争 准噶尔是明清时期我国西北地区厄鲁特蒙古四部之一。噶尔丹为首领时,准噶尔部称雄于蒙古诸部,横扫漠西漠北。在《中俄尼布楚条约》签订前后,噶尔丹在沙俄的支持下,进犯喀尔喀蒙古,以追击喀尔喀蒙古土谢图汗和宗教领袖哲布尊丹巴为名,率大军进入内蒙古,并击败了前来迎战的清军统帅阿喇尼和常宁。噶尔丹挟其势向康熙帝的使者提出:“圣上君南方,我掌北方。”以南北分治作为“讲信修好”的条件,公然要分裂中国。在这种情况下,清王朝为了自己的统治,也是为了维护国家统一,进行了艰苦卓绝的斗争。康熙帝于二十九年(1690年)、三十五年(1696年)、三十六年(1697年)三次亲征朔漠,终于在昭莫多将准噶尔主力歼灭,噶尔丹亦穷蹙而死。继噶尔丹之后的策妄阿拉布坦、噶尔丹策凌又先后称兵,妄图分裂中国。康熙末年,清王朝进行了“驱准保藏”之役。雍正九年、十年,清军与准噶尔军进行了和通淖尔与额尔德尼昭两次大战。至乾隆二十年、二十二年,清军两次进军伊犁,先征达瓦齐,后征阿睦尔撒纳,使达瓦齐被俘,阿睦尔撒纳兵败走死俄国。经历康雍乾三帝,历时约七十年的平准斗争至此大功告成。由乾隆帝撰文的两通平定准噶尔碑,今天仍然矗立在承德普宁寺,它是清王朝统一西北决心的真实写照。

此后,乾隆二十四年(1759年),清军平定南疆回部大小和卓之乱,最后完成了天山南北的统一。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Literary Inquisition 文字狱	the Westernization Movement
Qian Jia School 乾嘉学派	洋务运动
a study of textual research 考据学	the Reform Movement of 1898
Yili Khan State 伊利汗国	戊戌变法
the Opium War 鸦片战争	reformers 维新派

the Sino-Japanese War of 1894—	among the people 民间
1895 甲午战争	attempt 尝试
imperial envoy 钦差大臣	abandon 废弃
by loyal to 忠于	depreciate 贬值
duty 职守	run off 流失
distribute 发布	property 财物
proof 凭证	national treasury 国库
set up 设立	go into bankruptcy 破产

8

中华民国与中华人民共和国

The Republic of China and the People's Republic of China

U

中华民国

Unit 1 The Republic of China



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. On August 20, 1905, Sun Yat-sen, a revolutionary who devoted his lifetime to revitalizing China, established the revolutionary League of China, in which he was elected as the Prime Minister.
1905年8月20日,毕生致力于振兴祖国的革命家孙中山在东京成立了中国同盟会并被推举为总理。
2. Under the principles of "driving out the Manchus, restoring the Chinese nation, establishing a republic, and equalizing land ownership", the league called on the people to overthrow the Qing Dynasty through armed struggle.
同盟会以“驱除鞑虏,恢复中华,创立民国,平均地权”为纲领,号召人民以武装革命推翻清朝,建立民主共和国。
3. These early revolts of Revolutionary league of China and ended in failure because the conditions for revolution were not yet ripe.
由于时机尚未成熟,同盟会前期的起义都失败了。
4. Organized and promoted by the Revolutionary League of China, revolutionaries in Hubei raised an armed revolt in Wuchang.
在同盟会的组织和推动下,湖北革命党人于1911年10月10日在武昌发动起义并取得胜利。

5. The victory of the Wuchang Uprising initiated a revolutionary storm across the whole country. Within a month, 13 provinces, including Hubei, Hunan and Shaanxi, and the largest city, Shanghai, all declared their independence from the Qing court.
起义风潮迅速席卷全国,湖北、湖南、陕西等 13 个省及全国最大的城市上海在一个月内先后宣布脱离清廷独立。
6. On 1 January 1912, the provisional government of the Republic of China was established in Nanjing, with Sun Yat-sen elected as the provisional President.
1912 年 1 月 1 日,中华民国临时政府在南京成立,孙中山被选为临时大总统。
7. The Revolution of 1911 led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen was one of the greatest events in modern Chinese history, as it overthrew the 200—odd-year-old Qing Dynasty, ending over 2 000 years of feudal monarchy, and established the Republic of China.
1911 年孙中山领导的辛亥革命,推翻了清王朝近 270 年的统治,同时也结束了延续 2000 多年的封建君主制,建立了中华民国。
8. The May 4th Movement of 1919 is regarded as the ideological origin of many important events in modern Chinese history.
发生于 1919 年的五四运动被认为是中国现代历史上许多重大事件的思想源头。
9. 12 delegates, including Mao Zedong, representing Communist groups in different places throughout the nation, held the First National Congress in Shanghai in 1921 to found the Communist Party of China.
1921 年,毛泽东等 12 人代表各地的共产主义小组在上海举行第一次全国代表大会,中国共产党诞生。
10. Owing to the cooperation and joint resistance of the CPC and Kuomintang, the Japanese aggressors were defeated.
抗日战争时期,中国共产党与国民党合作共同抗击侵略者,赢得了抗战胜利。

11. The Kuomintang launched a civil war. After the three-year War of Liberation led by the CPC, the Kuomintang government was overthrown in 1949.

1945 年,国民党发动内战,中国共产党经过三年解放战争,于 1949 年推翻了国民党政府。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

G 概况 eneral

As a turbulent and decisive period of Chinese history, the Republic of China (中华民国) experienced a short period of 37 years, which succeeded the Qing Dynasty (清朝) in China and ruled mainland China from 1912 to 1949. In 1905 Sun Yat-sen founded the Tongmeng Hui (同盟会) centered on the three Principles of the People (三民主义): “nationalism (民族), democracy (民主), and people’s livelihood (民生)”. With the “bourgeois” revolution of 1911, he introduced a Western style administration system, who was inaugurated in Nanjing (南京) as the first provisional president (临时大总统).

Paragraph 2

T 同盟会的成立 he Founding of the Tong Meng Hui

The rapid development of the revolutionary situation required a national, unified political party to lead the revolutionary movement. At this point, Sun Yat-sen and Huang Xing amalgamated part of the membership of the Xing Zhong Hui, Hua Xing Hui, Guang Fu Hui, Kexue Buxi Suo and other revolutionary bodies to form the Zhongguo Tong Meng Hui (Chinese Revolutionary League) in Tokyo in August 1905. It elected Sun Yat-sen as president,



set up an executive group and adopted the programme proposed by Sun Yat-sen to “drive out the Manchus, restore China, establish a republic and equalize landownership”. This programme was spelled out in the manifesto written by Sun Yat-sen for the first issue of the Tong Meng Hui’s Journal, the Min Bao (People’s Journal) as the Three People’s Principles—the Principle of Nationalism, the Principle of Democracy, and the Principle of People’s Livelihood. The principle of Nationalism was to overthrow the government of the Manchu Aristocracy. The Principle of Democracy was to overthrow the monarchical autocratic system and establish a republican government. The Principle of People’s Livelihood was to appraise and fix land prices, and to apportion to the state the increase in land prices that would result from the development of the social economy after the revolution, and gradually let the state purchase land from landowners. The Three People’s Principles was a political programme which embodied the hopes of the Chinese bourgeoisie for the establishment of a republic and the development of capitalism, and was a great rallying cry for the revolution at that time.

The founding of the Tong Meng Hui and the formation of its programme indicated that the Chinese bourgeois democratic revolutionary movement had entered a new stage. However, this programme did not raise in clear and definite terms the solution of anti-imperialist, antifeudal struggle, and did not include a thoroughgoing land programme. Hence it was a non-thoroughgoing national democratic revolutionary programme reflecting the weak and compromising character of the Chinese national bourgeoisie.

The activities of the Tong Meng Hui had two main aspects, the debates with the reformists on political ideology and the development of a series of armed uprisings.

Paragraph 3

X 辛亥革命 Xinhai Revolution

The Xinhai Revolution (辛亥革命), named for the Chinese year of Xin-

hai (1911), was the overthrow of China's ruling Qing Dynasty (清朝), sometimes known as the Manchu Dynasty, and the establishment of the Republic of China (中华民国).

The revolution began with the armed Wuchang Uprising (武昌起义) and the spread of republican insurrection through the southern provinces, and culminated in the abdication of the Xuantong (宣统) Emperor after lengthy negotiations between rival Imperial and Republican regimes based in Beijing and Nanjing respectively. In 1900, the ruling Qing Dynasty (清朝) decided to create a modernized army, called the "New Army" (新军). At the time, the city of Wuchang, on the Yangtze River in the province of Hubei, had the most modernized military industry, so it became the site where weapons and other military equipment for the New Army was manufactured. The revolutionary ideas of Sun Yat-sen (孙中山) extensively influenced officers and soldiers of the New Army in Wuchang, and many participated in revolutionary organizations.

The uprising itself broke out largely by accident. Revolutionaries intent on overthrowing the Qing dynasty had built bombs and one accidentally exploded. This led police to investigate, and they discovered lists of revolutionaries within the New Army. At this point elements of the New Army revolted rather than face arrest. The provincial government panicked and fled. Initially, the revolt was considered to be merely the latest in a series of mutinies that had occurred in southern China, and was widely expected to be quickly put down. The fact that it had much larger implications was due to the fact that the Qing dynasty delayed acting against the rebellion, allowing provincial assemblies in many southern provinces to declare independence from the Qing and allegiance to the rebellion.

Sun Yat-sen himself had no direct part in the uprising and was traveling in the United States at the time in an effort to recruit more support from among overseas Chinese. He found out about the uprising by reading a newspaper report.

A sense of the Qing dynasty's having lost the mandate of heaven may have contributed to the revolt. Evidence of the loss of the mandate of heav-

en, in China, often constitutes of natural disasters, such as fires and floods. The Yangtze overflowed its banks in 1911, and the revolting troops were, of course, situated near that river. Such a flood would have had a profound psychological impact on any government officials, rebels, peasants, and other Chinese in the vicinity, and the flood was a notable disaster, with 100 000 fatalities.

The Qing government failed to respond for a crucial few weeks. This gave the revolutionaries time to declare a provisional government. Other provincial assemblies then joined the revolutionaries. Within a month, representatives of the seceding provinces had met to declare a Republic of China. A compromise between the conservative gentry and the revolutionaries saw Sun Yat-sen chosen as provisional president (临时大总统).

Leaving the brilliant impression on China modern history, the Xinhai Revolution is a great piece of political affair shocked around the world, which is the first time to flag Democracy republic on China. It overthrew the Qing dynasty and founded the Republic of China. This emancipated the people from the rule of the feudal system.

Paragraph 4

E 民国初期 Early Republic

On January 1, 1912, Sun officially declared the Republic of China and was inaugurated in Nanjing as the first provisional president. But power in Beijing already had passed to the Commander-in-Chief of the imperial army and Qing prime minister, Yuan Shikai, the strongest regional military leader at the time. To prevent civil war and possible foreign intervention from undermining the infant republic, Sun agreed to Yuan's demand that China be united under a Beijing government headed by Yuan. On February 12, 1912, the last Manchu emperor, the child Puyi, abdicated. On March 10, in Beijing, Yuan Shikai was sworn in as the second provisional president of the Republic of China.

The republic that Sun Yat-sen and his associates envisioned evolved

slowly. The revolutionists lacked an army, and the power of Yuan Shikai began to outstrip that of parliament. Yuan revised the constitution at will and became dictatorial. In August 1912 the Kuomintang (KMT, Nationalist Party) was founded by Song Jiaoren, one of Sun's associates. It was an amalgamation of small political groups, including Sun's Tongmeng Hui. In the national elections held in February 1913 for the new bicameral parliament, Song campaigned against the Yuan administration, and his party won a majority of seats. Yuan had Song assassinated in March; he had already arranged the assassination of several pro-revolutionist generals. Animosity toward Yuan grew. In the summer of 1913 seven southern provinces rebelled against Yuan. When the rebellion was suppressed, Sun and other instigators fled to Japan. In October 1913 an intimidated parliament formally elected Yuan president of the Republic of China, and the major powers extended recognition to his government. To achieve international recognition, Yuan Shikai had to agree to autonomy for Outer Mongolia and Tibet. China was still to be suzerain, but it would have to allow Russia a free hand in Outer Mongolia and Mongolia and Britain continuance of its influence in Tibet.

In November Yuan Shikai, legally president, ordered the KMT dissolved and its members removed from parliament. Within a few months, he suspended parliament and the provincial assemblies and forced the promulgation of a new constitution, which, in effect, made him president for life. By the end of 1915, Yuan declared himself emperor. Widespread rebellions ensued, and numerous provinces declared independence. With opposition at every quarter and the nation breaking up into warlord factions, Yuan Shikai died of natural causes in June 1916, deserted by his lieutenants.

Paragraph 5

S二次革命 Second Revolution

In April, Yuan secured the Reorganization Loan of twenty-five million pound sterling from Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany and Japan,

without consulting the parliament first. The loan was used to finance Yuan's Beiyang Army. On May 20, Yuan concluded a deal with Russia that recognized special Russian privilege in Outer Mongolia and restricted Chinese right to station troops there. Kuomintang members of the Parliament accused Yuan of abusing his rights and called for his removal. On the other hand, the Progressive Party (进步党), which was composed of constitutional monarchists and supported Yuan, accused the Kuomintang of fomenting an insurrection. Yuan then decided to use military action against the Kuomintang.

In July of 1913 seven southern provinces rebelled against Yuan, thus began the Second Revolution (二次革命). There were several underlying reasons for the Second Revolution besides Yuan's abuse of power. First was that many Revolutionary Armies from different provinces were disbanded after the establishment of the Republic of China, and many officers and soldiers felt that they were not compensated for toppling the Qing Dynasty. Thus, there was much discontent against the new government among the military. Secondly, many revolutionaries felt that Yuan Shikai and Li Yuanhong were undeserving of the posts of presidency and vice presidency, because they acquired the posts through political maneuvers, rather than participation in the revolutionary movement. And lastly, Yuan's use of violence (such as Song's assassination), dashed Kuomintang's hope of achieving reforms and political goals through electoral means.

However, the Second Revolution did not fare well for the Kuomintang. The leading Kuomintang military force of Jiangxi was defeated by Yuan's forces on August 1 and Nanchang was taken. On September 1, Nanjing was taken. When the rebellion was suppressed, Sun and other instigators fled to Japan.

Paragraph 6

N新民主主义革命 New-Democratic Revolution (1919—1949)

The May 4th Movement of 1919 is regarded as the ideological origin of



many important events in modern Chinese history. Its direct cause was the unequal treaties imposed on China after the First World War. Out of strong patriotism, students initiated the movement, and it further developed into a national protest movement of people from all walks of life. It also marked the introduction into China of various new ideologies, among which the spread of Marxism-Leninism was worthy of special mention. Under the influence of Russia's October Revolution of 1917, 12 delegates, including Mao Zedong, representing Communist groups in different places throughout the nation, held the First National Congress in Shanghai in 1921 to found the Communist Party of China.

The Chinese people led by the CPC underwent successively the Northern Expeditionary War (1924—1927), War of Agrarian Revolution (also known as “Ten-Year Civil War,” 1927—1937), War of Resistance Against Japan (1937—1945) and War of Liberation (1945—1949). Owing to the cooperation and joint resistance of the CPC and Kuomintang, the Japanese aggressors were defeated. But shortly after the anti-Japanese war, the Kuomintang launched a civil war. After the three-year War of Liberation led by the CPC, the Kuomintang government was overthrown in 1949.

Paragraph 7

A 抗日战争 Anti-Japanese War

Hungry for raw materials and pressed by a growing population, Japan initiated the seizure of Manchuria in September 1931 and established ex-Qing emperor Puyi as head of the puppet regime of Manchukuo in 1932. The loss of Manchuria, and its vast potential for industrial development and war industries, was a blow to the Nationalist economy. The League of Nations, established at the end of World War I, was unable to act in the face of the Japanese defiance. The Japanese began to push from south of the Great Wall into northern China and into the coastal provinces. Chinese fury against Japan was predictable, but anger was also directed against the Guomindang government, which at the time was more preoccupied with

anti-Communist extermination campaigns than with resisting the Japanese invaders. The importance of “internal unity before external danger” was forcefully brought home in December 1936, when Nationalist troops (who had been ousted from Manchuria by the Japanese) mutinied at Xi'an. The mutineers forcibly detained Chiang Kai-shek for several days until he agreed to cease hostilities against the Communist forces in northwest China and to assign Communist units combat duties in designated anti-Japanese front areas.

The Chinese resistance stiffened after July 7, 1937, when a clash occurred between Chinese and Japanese troops outside Beijing (then renamed Beiping) near the Marco Polo Bridge. This skirmish not only marked the beginning of open, though undeclared, war between China and Japan but also hastened the formal announcement of the second Guomindang-CCP united front against Japan. The collaboration took place with salutary effects for the beleaguered CCP. The distrust between the two parties, however, was scarcely veiled. The uneasy alliance began to break down after late 1938, despite Japan's steady territorial gains in northern China, the coastal regions, and the rich Chang Jiang Valley in central China. After 1940, conflicts between the Nationalists and Communists became more frequent in the areas not under Japanese control. The Communists expanded their influence wherever opportunities presented themselves through mass organizations, administrative reforms, and the land- and tax-reform measures favoring the peasants—while the Nationalists attempted to neutralize the spread of Communist influence.

At Yan'an and elsewhere in the “liberated areas,” Mao was able to adapt Marxism-Leninism to Chinese conditions. He taught party cadres to lead the masses by living and working with them, eating their food, and thinking their thoughts. The Red Army fostered an image of conducting guerrilla warfare in defense of the people. Communist troops adapted to changing wartime conditions and became a seasoned fighting force. Mao also began preparing for the establishment of a new China. In 1940 he outlined the program of the Chinese Communists for an eventual seizure of

power. His teachings became the central tenets of the CCP doctrine that came to be formalized as Mao Zedong Thought. With skillful organizational and propaganda work, the Communists increased party membership from 100 000 in 1937 to 1.2 million by 1945.

In 1945 China emerged from the war nominally a great military power but actually a nation economically prostrate and on the verge of all-out civil war. The economy deteriorated, sapped by the military demands of foreign war and internal strife, by spiraling inflation, and by Nationalist profiteering, speculation, and hoarding. Starvation came in the wake of the war, and millions were rendered homeless by floods and the unsettled conditions in many parts of the country. The situation was further complicated by an Allied agreement at the Yalta Conference in February 1945 that brought Soviet troops into Manchuria to hasten the termination of war against Japan. Although the Chinese had not been present at Yalta, they had been consulted; they had agreed to have the Soviets enter the war in the belief that the Soviet Union would deal only with the Nationalist government. After the war, the Soviet Union, as part of the Yalta agreement's allowing a Soviet sphere of influence in Manchuria, dismantled and removed more than half the industrial equipment left there by the Japanese. The Soviet presence in northeast China enabled the Communists to move in long enough to arm themselves with the equipment surrendered by the withdrawing Japanese army. The problems of rehabilitating the formerly Japanese-occupied areas and of reconstructing the nation from the ravages of a protracted war were staggering, to say the least.



国人尊称孙中山先生为国父的缘由

清末我国正饱受封建腐化、列强蹂躏之苦,孙中山先生号召革命同志,高举“民族、民权、民生”旗帜,经历十次之起义,终于推翻满清,建立亚洲第一个民主共和国。民国成立,袁世凯称帝、军阀盛行,孙中山先生再度重整革命党,展开讨袁护法,维护民国命脉,讲述三民主义,并以建国大纲、建国

方略为建国蓝本,不幸于民国十四年三月十二日与世长辞。北京中央公园社稷坛公祭时,豫军总司令樊鍾秀特致送巨型素花横额(阔丈馀,高四、五尺),当中大书“国父”二字,他的唁电挽幛,均称“国父”,这是中山先生在公开场合被尊称为“国父”之始;当时台湾同胞感念中山先生不已,纷纷举行追悼会,台湾民报亦尊称中山先生为“国民之父”。民国二十九年四月一日,国民政府表彰其“倡导国民革命,手创中华民国,更新政体,永奠邦基,谋世界之大同,求国际之平等,光被四表,功高万世”之伟大事迹,通令全国,尊称孙中山先生为中华民国国父。

Vocabulary

妙词连珠

the Revolution of 1911 辛亥革命	internal affairs 内政
the New Culture Movement 新文化运动	be faced with 面临
the May 4th Movement 五四运动	rebel 叛乱
historical figures 历史人物	difficulty 难关
condition 境地	steady 稳定
break off 断绝	morality 品德
delay 耽误	provisional president 临时大总统
duty 责任	three Principles of the People 三民主义
bear 承担	Tongmeng Hui 同盟会
play the part of 扮演	nationalism 民族
role 角色	Nanjing 南京
lofty 崇高	

Unit 2 The People's Republic of China



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. On October 1, 1949 a grand ceremony was witnessed by 300 000 people in Beijing's Tiananmen Square, and Mao Zedong, chairman of the Central People's Government, solemnly proclaimed the founding of the People's Republic of China.
1949年10月1日,北京30万民众汇集天安门广场举行开国大典,中央人民政府主席毛泽东庄严宣告:中华人民共和国正式成立。
2. The ten years from 1957 to 1966 was the period in which China started large-scale socialist construction.
从1957年到1966年,是中国开展大规模社会主义建设的时期。
3. The Jiang Qing counter-revolutionary clique was smashed in October 1976, marking the end of the "cultural revolution", and the beginning of a new era in Chinese history.
1976年10月,江青反革命集团被粉碎,“文化大革命”结束,中国进入新的历史时期。
4. Jiang Zemin became general secretary of the CPC Central Committee in 1989 and head of the state in 1993.
1989年江泽民担任中共中央总书记、1993年担任国家主席。
5. Hu Jintao took the position of general secretary of the CPC Central Committee in 2002 and president of the state in 2003.
2002年胡锦涛继任中共中央总书记、2003年继任国家主席。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

The People's Republic of China (1949—)

On October 1, 1949 a grand ceremony was witnessed by 300 000 people in Beijing's Tiananmen Square, and Mao Zedong, chairman of the Central People's Government, solemnly proclaimed the founding of the People's Republic of China.

During the initial post-Liberation period, the Chinese government successfully carried out land reform in areas accounting for over 90 percent of the total national agricultural population, and 300 million farmers were granted approximately 47 million hectare of land. Amazing achievements were made during the First Five-Year Plan period, from 1953 to 1957. The average annual increase rate of the national income reached over 8.9 percent. China established basic industries necessary for full industrialization hitherto non-existent domestically, producing airplanes, automobiles, heavy machinery, precision machinery, power-generating equipment, metallurgical and mining equipment, high-grade alloy steels and non-ferrous metals.

The ten years from 1957 to 1966 was the period in which China started large-scale socialist construction. Though China suffered from the mistakes in its policies during the period, it also accomplished a great deal. The nation's total industrial fixed assets quadrupled between 1956 and 1966 and the national income increased by 58 percent in constant prices. The output of essential industrial products increased by several or even a dozen times. Large-scale agricultural capital construction and technical transformation got underway. Unfortunately, the "cultural revolution", which lasted for ten years (1966—1976), made the state and its people suffer the most serious setbacks and losses since its founding.

The Jiang Qing counter-revolutionary clique was smashed in October 1976, marking the end of the “cultural revolution”, and the beginning of a new era in Chinese history. The CPC reinstated Deng Xiaoping, previously general secretary of the CPC, to all the Party and governmental posts he had been dismissed from during the “cultural revolution”. In 1979, China instituted a guiding policy of “reform and opening to the outside world” under Deng’s leadership, and the focus was shifted to modernization. Major efforts were made to reform the economic and political systems. China was step by step establishing a road with Chinese characteristics, a road that would lead to socialist modernization. Profound changes have come about in China since the country embarked on the policy of reform and opening-up characterized by a vigorously advancing economy and markedly improved living standard.

Jiang Zemin became general secretary of the CPC Central Committee in 1989 and head of the state in 1993. Succeeding him, Hu Jintao took the position of general secretary of the CPC Central Committee in 2002 and president of the state in 2003.



Cultural Links

文化链接

开国大典——中华人民共和国成立

1949年10月1日,中华人民共和国中央人民政府成立典礼,即开国大典,在北京天安门广场隆重举行,中华人民共和国诞生了!中国的历史从此翻开了崭新的篇章。

下午二时,中国人民政治协商会议第一届全体会议选举产生的中央人民政府委员会在勤政殿举行第一次会议。毛泽东、朱德、刘少奇、周恩来、任弼时、张澜、李济深、宋庆龄、高岗等国家领导人出席了会议。

下午三时,中央人民政府委员会秘书长林伯渠宣布典礼开始。中央人民政府主席、副主席、各委员就位。在群众的欢呼声中,毛泽东主席用他那带着湖南口音的洪亮声音,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!”顿时,广场上欢声雷动,群情激昂。在《义勇军进行曲》的雄壮旋律中,毛泽东按动电钮,新中国第一面鲜艳的五星红旗冉冉升起。

全场肃立,向国旗行注目礼。广场上,五十四门礼炮齐鸣二十八响,象征着中国共产党领导全国人民艰苦奋斗二十八年的光辉历程。

随后,在全场经久不息的掌声和欢呼声中,中国人民解放军三军受阅部队的步兵、骑兵、坦克、大炮、汽车等,以连为单位,列成方阵,迈着威武雄壮的步伐,由东向西分列式通过天安门广场。与此同时,刚刚组建的人民解放军空军十四架战斗机、轰炸机,凌空掠过天安门广场,接受检阅。

阅兵式持续近三小时,此时天色已晚,长安街华灯齐放,群众游行开始了。一队队游行群众高举红旗和红灯,纵情欢呼,“中华人民共和国万岁!”“毛主席万岁!”的口号声响彻云霄。天安门城楼上,毛主席探身栏杆外,不停地向广场上的群众挥手致意,情不自禁地在扩音机前大声高呼:“同志们万岁!”“人民万岁!”广场上,人们热情洋溢,载歌载舞,万众欢腾,尽情地欢度新中国的第一个夜晚,节日的首都沉浸在幸福、喜悦和欢欣鼓舞中。这一天,在全国已经解放的各大城市,都举行了隆重热烈的庆祝活动。

中华人民共和国的成立,是中国有史以来最伟大的事件,也是20世纪世界最伟大的事件之一,它结束了少数剥削者统治广大劳动人民和帝国主义奴役中国各族人民的历史,中国人民从此成为国家的主人,中华民族的发展开启了新的历史纪元。

Vocabulary 妙词连珠

character 品质	be about equal to 相当
modern 现代的	develop 发展
industry 工业	technology 技术
recommend 推荐	artificial satellite 人造卫星
mind 心理	save resources 节约资源
possess 具备	culture revolution 文化大革命
ability 才能	chairmen 主席
strategy 策略	Tiananmen Square 天安门广场
water conservancy 水利	agricultural 农业的

9

中国四大发明、历史故事与神话传说

The Four Great Inventions, Historical Tales and Mythology

U

四大发明

Unit 1 The Four Great Inventions



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. The four Great Inventions refer to the inventions of paper, printing, compass and dynamite.
“四大发明”指纸、印刷术、指南针和火药。
2. They are the major representatives among the numerous inventions by the ancient Chinese people.
它们是中国古人众多发明的代表成果,也是中华民族对世界文明的杰出贡献。
3. According to historical records, Cai Lun (died in 121 A. D.) in the Eastern Han Dynasty was the first person who, using such materials as bark, hards, rags and old fishnet, made what was to be termed as paper.
据史书记载,东汉人蔡伦(公元 121 年去世)最先发明以树皮、麻头、破布、旧渔网等为原料制作的纸。
4. By the middle of the 19th century, China's manual papermaking had been popularized throughout the world, laying a solid foundation in the development of mechanical papermaking.
至 19 世纪中叶,中国的手工造纸术已传遍全球,它们为机械造纸术的产生与发展奠定了基础。

5. In as early as the Warring States Period (475—222 B. C.), there had already appeared the China textiles with flowers printed with hollowed out plate, which was the embryonic form of the later screen mesh printing.

中国在战国时期(公元前 475—公元前 222 年)就已出现了用镂空版印花的织物,这种印花技术正是后世筛网印花技术的前身。

6. The very inventions of paper and ink prepared the way for the birth of engraving printing.

纸和墨的发明,又为雕版印刷术的诞生准备了必要的条件。

7. The compass in an instrument used to indicate directions with the help of magnetism.

指南针是一种利用磁性指示方向的仪器。

8. According to the historical records, the compass began to serve as an instrument for navigation in as early as the late 11th century and the early 12th century. In about 1180 the compass was brought into Europe via Arab.

现有史料证明,指南针最迟在 11 世纪末 12 世纪初就已作为海上导航的辅助设备,1180 年前后经阿拉伯而传入欧洲。

9. Dynamite refers to a kind of mixture which has saltpeter, charcoal and sulfur as its main components and can burn quickly or explode when lighted.

火药本指以硝石、硫磺、木炭等为主要成分,点火后能速燃或爆炸的一种混合剂。

10. It was not until the 10th century or so that dynamite powder began to be used as a weapon.

火药用做武器,大约开始于公元 10 世纪前后。

11. The alchemy and saltpeter of ancient China began to spread into the area of Arabia from the 8th or 9th century.

中国古代的炼丹术与硝石,约从八九世纪开始传入阿拉伯地区。

12. The production skills of dynamite powder and powder weapons spread gradually first into Arabia and then into Europe from the



13th century on.

火药与火器的制造技术,则是 13 世纪末传入阿拉伯,而后又逐渐传入欧洲的。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

P造纸术 papermaking

As a Chinese eunuch, Cai Lun (蔡伦) is conventionally regarded as the inventor of paper. He was born in Guiyang (贵阳) during the Eastern Han Dynasty (东汉), and became a paperwork secretary (中常侍) of Emperor He (汉和帝). For papermaking (造纸术), he tried materials like bark, hemp, silk, and even fishing net, but his exact formula has been lost to history. The emperor was pleased with the invention and granted Cai an aristocratic title and great wealth. Later, he became involved in intrigue, as a supporter of Empress Dou (窦太后). He was involved in the death of her romantic rival, Consort Song. Afterwards, he became an associate of Empress Deng Sui. In 121, after Consort Song's grandson Emperor An (汉安帝) assumed power after Empress Deng's death, Cai was ordered to report to prison. Before he was to report, he committed suicide by drinking poison after taking a bath and dressing in fine robes.

While paper is widely used worldwide today, the creator of this extremely important invention is little-known outside East Asia. After Cai invented paper in 105. It immediately became widely used in China. In 751, some Chinese paper makers were captured by Arabs after Tang troops were annihilated in the Battle of Talas River. The techniques of papermaking then spread to the West.

Cai's contribution is considered one of the most important inventions in history, since it enabled China to develop its civilization much faster than



with earlier writing materials (primarily bamboo), and it did the same with Europe when it was introduced in the 12th century or the 13th century.

Paragraph 2

P印刷术 rinting

1. Block Printing

With the inventions of paper and ink, stamper gradually became popular during the Jin Dynasty (265—420), which was the early form of Carved Type Printing. Block Printing first appeared in the Tang Dynasty (618—907). The text was first written on a piece of thin paper, then glued face down onto a wooden plate. The characters were carved out to make a wood-block printing plate, which was used to print the text. Wood-block printing took a long time as a new block had to be carved for every page in a book.

It took a lot of time and energy as well as materials to prepare for printing a book, but it worked more effectively afterwards. This technology was gradually introduced to Korea, Japan, Vietnam, and the Philippines.

Yet, Block Printing had its drawbacks — all the boards became useless after the printing was done and a single mistake in carving could ruin the whole block. The frontispiece of the world's oldest surviving book, the Diamond Sutra printed in the year 868, was discovered at Dunhuang Cave, along the Silk Road. The book, in the form of a roll, is the earliest woodcut illustration in a printed book.

2. Movable Type Printing

Block Printing was a costly and time-consuming process, for each carved block could only be used for a specific page of a particular book, besides, a single mistake in carving could ruin the whole block. However movable type changed all of that.

In the Song Dynasty (960—1279), a man named Bi Sheng carved individual characters on identical pieces of fine clay. Each piece of movable type had on it one Chinese character which was carved in relief on a small



block of moistened clay. After the block had been hardened by fire, the type became hard and durable and could be used wherever required. The pieces of movable type could be glued to an iron plate and easily detached from the plate. Each piece of character could be assembled to print a page and then broken up and redistributed as needed. When the printing was finished, the pieces were put away for future use.

By the year 1000, paged books in the modern style had replaced scrolls. Two color printing (black and red) was seen as early as 1340.

This technology then spread to Korea, Japan, Vietnam and Europe. Later, German Johann Gutenberg invented movable type made of metal in the 1440s. Movable Type Printing developed very fast. Based on clay type, type made of wood, lead, tin and copper gradually appeared.

Paragraph 3

D火药 dynamite

Dynamite refers to a kind of mixture which has saltpeter, charcoal and sulfur as its main components and can burn quickly or explode when lighted. Both saltpeter and sulfur are combustible and had served as medicine in ancient China, so they are called dynamite, which means “flaming medicine” in Chinese. In Sheng Nong Ben Cao Jing, written in the Qin and Han dynasties, the authors illustrated the medical characteristics of saltpeter and sulfur, and recorded the experimental results of smelting saltpeter. Qing Xuzi of the Tang Dynasty recorded the method of dealing with dynamite powder in the course of alchemy, which marked the real birth of the primitive dynamite powder.

However, it was not until the 10th century or so that dynamite powder began to be used as a weapon. A few works have recorded the formulas for making artillery, fireballs and poisonous smoke balls, and the setting up of dynamite powder production workshops. After that dynamite powder making skills were steadily developed. In 1126, the army of the Song Dynasty attacked its enemy, the army of the Jin Dynasty, with “the thunder-



bolt artillery”, while the Jin Army fought with “the thunder artillery”. In 1359, the army of the Yuan Dynasty used “the fire canister” on the battlefield. Until the Ming Dynasty, the formula for dynamite powder recorded in Ji Xiao Xin Shu by Qi Jiguang had been similar to the standard military black powder of today.

The alchemy and saltpeter of ancient China began to spread into the area of Arabia from the 8th or 9th century, while the production skills of dynamite powder and powder weapons spread gradually first into Arabia and then into Europe from the 13th century on.

Paragraph 4

T指南针 The Compass

A compass can be any magnetic device using a needle to indicate the direction of the magnetic north of a planet's magnetosphere. Any instrument with a magnetized bar or needle turning freely upon a pivot and pointing in a northerly and southerly direction can be considered a compass. A compass dial is a small pocket compass with a sundial. A variation compass is a specific instrument of a delicate type of construction. It is used by observing variations of the needle. A gyrocompass or astrocompass can also be used to ascertain true North.

Compasses were initially used in feng shui (风水) in ancient China. The first known use of Earth's magnetic field in this way occurred in ancient China as a spectacle. Arrows were cast similarly to dice. These magnetized arrows aligned themselves pointing north, impressing the audience. The earliest record of use of magnetic lodestone as a direction point was in a 4th century BC Chinese book: “Book of the Devil Valley Master”.

“Dream Pool Essays” written by Song Dynasty scholar Shen Kuo in 1086 AD contained a detailed description of how geomancer magnetized a needle by rubbing its tip with lodestone, and hanged the magnetic needle with one single strain of silk with a bit of wax attached to the center of the needle. Shen Kuo (沈括) pointed out that the needle prepared this way some times pointed south, some times pointed north.



The earliest record about the use of compass in navigation was Zhu Yu's book "Pingzhou Ke Tan" (Pingzhou Table Talks) of 1117 AD.

The navigator knows the geography, he watches the stars at night, watches the sun at day; when it is dark and cloudy, he watches the compass. Knowledge of the compass moved overland through the Arab countries and then to Europe sometime later in the 12th century. The compass, for example, is described and reported being used in the book *Lubab ul-Albab* for purposes of sea navigation around 1220. About 1358, there is a story about an English monk, Nicholas of Lynne, who served as a navigator due to his competence and knowledge in the "magnetic compass".

Prior to the introduction of the compass, wayfinding at sea was primarily done via celestial navigation, supplemented in some places by the use of soundings. Difficulties arose where the sea was too deep for soundings and conditions were continually overcast or foggy. Thus the compass was not of the same utility everywhere. For example, the Arabs could generally rely on clear skies in navigating the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean (as well as the predictable nature of the monsoons). This may explain in part their relatively late adoption of the compass. Mariners in the relatively shallow Baltic made extensive use of soundings.

In the Mediterranean, however, the practice from ancient times had been to curtail sea travel between October and April, due in part to the lack of dependable clear skies during the Mediterranean winter (and much of the sea is too deep for soundings). With improvements in dead reckoning methods, and the development of better charts, this changed during the second half of the 13th century. By around 1290 the sailing season could start in late January or February, and end in December. The additional few months were of considerable economic importance; it enabled Venetian convoys, for instance, to make two round trips a year to the eastern Mediterranean, instead of one.

Around the same time traffic between the Mediterranean and northern Europe increased, and one factor may be that the compass made traversal of the Bay of Biscay safer and easier.



指南针的始祖——司南

指南针的始祖大约出现在战国时期。它是用天然磁石制成的。样子像一把汤勺,圆底,可以放在平滑的“地盘”上并保持平衡,且可以自由旋转。当它静止的时候,勺柄就会指向南方。古人称它为“司南”,当时的著作《韩非子》中就有:“先王立司南以端朝夕”。“端朝夕”就是正四方、定方位的意思。《鬼谷子》中记载了司南的应用,郑国人采玉时就带了司南以确保不迷失方向。

春秋时代,人们已经能够将硬度5度至7度的软玉和硬玉琢磨成各种形状的器具,因此也能将硬度只有5.5度至6.5度的天然磁石制成司南。东汉时的王充在他的著作《论衡》中对司南的形状和用法做了明确的记录。司南是用整块天然磁石经过琢磨制成勺型,勺柄指南极,并使整个勺的重心恰好落到勺底的正中,勺置于光滑的地盘之中,地盘外方内圆,四周刻有干支四维,合成二十四向。这样的设计是古人认真观察了许多自然界有关磁的现象,积累了大量的知识和经验,经过长期的研究才完成的。司南的出现是人们对磁体指极性认识的实际应用。

但司南也有许多缺陷,天然磁体不易找到,在加工时容易因打击、受热而失磁。所以司南的磁性比较弱,而且它与地盘接触处要非常光滑,否则会因转动摩擦阻力过大,而难于旋转,无法达到预期的指南效果。而且司南有一定的体积和重量,携带很不方便,这可能是司南长期未得到广泛应用的主要原因。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

Papermaking 造纸术

Cai Lun 蔡伦

worldwide 全世界的

paper 纸

primarily 首先,起初

bamboo 竹子

Printing 印刷术

Arabia 阿拉伯



Europe 欧洲

identical 同一的, 同样的

assemble 集合

redistribute 重新分配

appear 出现, 看来

Dynamite 火药

The Compass 指南针

feng shui 风水



U 历史故事 Unit 2 Historical Tales



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. Ji Chang was to rely on the wise minister Jiang Shang in his rebellion against the Shang, as heaven had ordained.
姬昌发现他的大臣姜尚的经过是个很有意思的故事。
2. Jiang Shang, a man of extraordinary talent still unrecognized even in his 70s, passed his time fishing on the Wei River.
姜尚活到七十多岁还没有得到施展才能的机会,于是他整日拿着鱼竿在渭河边垂钓。
3. By the end of the campaign, Xiang Yu and his men were tightly encircled in Gaixia.
项羽被刘邦的军队重重围在垓下。
4. After Meng Ke grew up, he acquired six classical arts (rites, music, archery, riding, writing and arithmetic) and became a scholar well known for his erudition and one of the representatives of Confucianism.
孟子长大成人后,精通六艺,成了一位博学鸿儒。
5. Prince Ping Yuan was to be sent on a mission to the State of Chu. A man called Mao Sui who went up to his host and recommended himself as a member of the Prince's suite.
平原君被派往到楚国求救,毛遂主动请求跟随同行。
6. Liu Bei was able to see Zhuge Liang until the third time.
刘备直到第三次才见到诸葛亮。
7. Cao Zhi finished a poem before he took the seventh pace.
曹植在七步之内作完了一首诗。



8. Su Qin felt sleepy when he was reading, so he took an awl and stabbed it into his own legs.
苏秦读书昏昏欲睡时,他就拿锥子刺自己的大腿。
9. Cao Cao said: Beyond us there is a large plum garden, the sweet and sour fruits can quench our thirsty.
曹操说:前面有一大片梅林,梅树上结了很多的杨梅,又酸又甜,可以解渴。
10. Later the allusion was used to satirize that blind imitations will cause even worse effects.
后用以比喻拙劣地模仿别人,反而得到了更坏的效果。



Wonderful Paragraph 精彩片段

Paragraph 1

Fish the Same Way as Jiang

Taigong Did, Who Cast a Hookless and Baitless Line for the Fish That Wanted to Be Caught

Jiang Taigong is a popular name for Jiang Ziya, statesman and strategist. As an adviser of King Wen of the Zhou State in ancient China, he, at the age of 80, helped the young King Wu overthrow the Shang Dynasty and establish the Zhou Dynasty.

Jiang was a senior official during the reign of King Zhou of the Shang Dynasty. Since the king was muddleheaded and atrocious, and the masses had no means to live, Jiang resigned and lived in seclusion on the shore of the Wei River. The State Zhou was strong and prosperous. There Ji Chang (King Wen of the Zhou State) was courteous to the wise and condescending to the scholarly, ruling the state with benevolence and uprightness. He had long been in search of a virtuous assistant. One day Ji Chang went to hunt on the northern shore of the Wei River. He saw an old



man fishing by the shore who, oblivious of so many people passing by, continued to fish quietly. That was Jiang. It was said he was over 70 then. Ji Chang felt curious so he stepped down from the chariot and walked to the old man, only to find the man's fishhook was not bent, impossible to get any fish. Realizing this man was not a common one, Ji Chang began to chat with him. He found this was the right man he was in quest of, so he said, "Before he died, my grandfather had anticipated that Zhou would become prosperous when a sage came to us. Are you the sage? My grandfather had long expected your arrival?" So he called him Taigong. He returned with Taigong, sharing his carriage with him, and treated him as his mentor. Taigong assisted Ji Chang. The Western Zhou became more flourishing, so the people of other states came over and pledged allegiance one after another. After Ji Chang passed away, his son Ji Fa (King Wu) succeeded to the throne. With Jiang Shang's assistance, Ji Fa met the sovereigns of the other states in Mengjin and then they together sent an army to crusade against Shang. As a result, King Zhou of the Shang Dynasty burned himself to death. After the downfall of the Shang Dynasty, Ji Fa established the Zhou Dynasty. Known as King Wu in history, he honored his father with the posthumous title of King Wen.

Paragraph 2

G卧薪尝胆 Gou Jian Slept on Firewood and Tasted Gall to Avenge a National Humiliation

During the Spring and Autumn period, remitted by the monarch of Wu State, the defeated monarch of the Yue State, Gou Jian, returned to his state. He underwent self-imposed hardships and was mentally worried. Placing a bitter gall in front of his seat, he had a look at it when he sat or slept and tasted it when he had meals to remind himself of his humiliation and steel his determination to avenge it. About four years later, Yue State launched another attack on Wu State and defeated it. There is no mention of "sleeping in firewood". In "A Fabricated Reply Letter from Sun Quan to Cao

Cao", Su Shi first used the allusion to Gou Jian's "sleeping in firewood and tasting gall".

Paragraph 3

画蛇添足 **It Is Like Adding Extra**

Feet to A Snake When It Is Drawn Up

It is an allusion from Volume 2 of Anecdotes of Qi State in Anecdotes of the Warring States.

One day a man in Chu State gave his slaves a pot of wine. One of the slaves told him: "The pot of wine is not enough for all of us, but too much for one. I suppose that we can draw snakes on the ground, one who first finishes the drawing takes the wine." One of the slaves was the first to finish drawing. He took the wine and drank. Then, holding the pot in his left hand he went on his drawing with his right hand and said: "I, can add some feet to it." Before he had finished drawing the feet, another slave finished his snake and grabbed the pot from him and said: "Snakes have no feet at all, how can you add feet to them?" Then, he drank the wine.

Later, people used the allusion figuratively to mean that one ruins the result by adding something superfluous.

Paragraph 4

G南辕北辙 **Going to the South by**

Driving the Carriage Northward

The allusion is from The Anecdotes of Wei State from The Anecdotes of the Warring States.

Today, when I was on my way here to present myself before Your Majesty, I saw on the road a man preparing a grand progress. Facing the north, he said: "I am leaving for Chu State." I was surprised and asked: "But why are you heading northward while Chu State is in the south?" "All my horses are very fine." The man answered. Then I said: "Though the

horses are good, they don't go in the right direction. " I have many horses. "The man remarked. "Though you have many horses, the road does not lead to Chu. "I pointed out. The man still insisted: "My driver is very skillful. "As a matter of fact, the greater the number of his horses, the farther the man would be apart from Chu State.

Later, people used the allusion to mean that, if one acts against his aims, the more distance he covers, the more distance he has from his destination.

Paragraph 5

D东施效颦 Dong Shi, an Ugly Woman,

Imitates the Frowning of the Beauty Xi Shi

The allusion comes from The Movement of Nature by Zhuang Zi.

"Once in the Spring and Autumn Period, Xi Shi, a beauty in Yue State felt an ache in her chest, so she crossed her arms on her chest and bent forward to relieve her ache. When her neighbour, an ugly woman named Dong Shi, saw this, and followed suit, considering it so beautiful. But at the sight of her, the rich in her neighborhood shut their doors and stayed inside for fear of meeting her, and the poor immediately took their wives and children away. The ugly woman knew that Xi Shi's ill look was beautiful, but she didn't know why. "

Later the allusion was used to satirize that blind imitations will cause even worse effects.

Paragraph 6

R毛遂自荐 Recommend Oneself

for a Position as Mao Sui Did

Qin's troops laid siege to Handan, the capital of the State of Zhao. Therefore, Prince Ping Yuan was to be sent on a mission to the State of Chu to form an alliance against Qin. Among the guests fed by Ping Yuan was a



man called Mao Sui who went up to his host and recommended himself as a member of the Prince's suite. The negotiations between the Prince and the King of Chu proceeded without substantial results. Seeing this, Mao Sui mounted bravely the platform where the negotiations were being held and stated the advantages and disadvantages. The King of Chu was at last convinced and decided to dispatch his troops for saving the State of Zhao. Now, this allusion is used to refer to those who volunteer to offer one's services for a task or a job.

Paragraph 7

T孟母三迁 **Three Moves by Mencius's Mother**

The allusion comes from The Biography of Mencius' Mother in Biographies of Outstanding Women by Liu Xiang, one of the greatest men of letters in the Han Dynasty.

"When Meng Ke, known later on as Mencius, was still a child, his mother and he lived near a graveyard. As Meng Ke played in the yard, what he imitated were all the rites of funerals. So his mother said: 'This is not the right place for me and my son to live.' She moved to a house near a market. Then her son took pleasure in imitating the peddlers' hawking and the salesmen's bargaining. Again the mother said: 'This is not the place for me and my son to live.' And she made another migration and housed themselves near a school. There her son behaved in the same polite manner as the teachers and students. The mother said: 'Here should we live!' So they settled there. In the following years, Meng Ke acquired a wide range of knowledge, such as etiquette, music, archery, chariotteering, reading, writing and arithmetic. When he grew up, he became one of the most famous scholars and representatives of Confucianism."

Later, the phrase is used to sing praises of mothers who teach their children by means of examples.



Paragraph 8

X四面楚歌 **Xiang Yu Heard the Folk**

Songs of the Chu State on All Sides

The allusion comes from The Biography of Xiang Yu in The Records of the Historian.

“When Xiang Yu, the general of the uprising peasant army and the Sovereign of Chu State camped his defeated troops in Gai Xia, he suffered from a shortage of forces and food. And the troops of Liu Bang, the King of Han State and their dukes rounded up Xiang Yu’s troops in tight rings. At night, everywhere around the Liu Bang’s camps could be heard the folk songs of Chu State. Xiang Yu, terribly shocked, murmured: ‘Has Han occupied all the lands of Chu?’”

Later, the allusion refers to an endangered situation, or a state of being surrounded and isolated by enemies.

Paragraph 9

T三顾茅庐 **Three Personal Calls at the Thatched Cottage**

(Referring to Liu Bei's Three Calls at Zhuge
Liang's Cottage to Solicit His Help)

— Repeated and Sincere Invitations

This allusion comes from History of the Three Kingdoms. The Biography of Zhuge Liang: In the late Eastern Han Dynasty, Liu Bei took the trouble of going to the thatched cottage of Zhuge Liang who lived as a recluse at Longzhong, asking him to quit seclusion and aid him in running the kingdom. Liu was not able to see Zhuge until the third time. The allusion now has come to mean “repeated, sincere invitations”.

“So the Sovereign Liu Bei then decided to request Zhuge Liang who was then secluding himself in his thatched cottage in Longzhong. Liu Bei went there for three times, and only in the third time he got the chance to



meet Zhuge Liang. ”

The original meaning of the allusion is that Liu Bei went three times to Long Zhong to solicit Zhuge Liang to assume an important post. Later, it is used to mean treating gifted persons modestly.

Paragraph 10

C七步成诗 Composing a Poem Within Seven Paces

In New Accounts of Old Episodes, Cao Cao, the first emperor of Wei, specially favored Cao Zhi, his third son, because of his great talents. Cao Zhi's eldest brother Cao Pi was, therefore, very jealous of him. One day he asked his younger brother to compose a poem impromptu, to test whether he was really talented or not. One requirement Cao Pi imposed on his brother was that the poem should be finished at the end of the seventh pace, not later. Under such pressure Cao Zhi could not but try, yet he finished a poem before he took the seventh pace. Literally, it carries the following meaning:

To fry beans is to burn beanstalks.
Thus beans are crying when fried;
Grown out of the same root,
Why are we burned together?

The poem was also quoted by Collection of Literature Works of One Hundred and Three Famous Writers in the Han Dynasty and the Wei Dynasty by Zhang Pu of the Ming Dynasty.

Later the allusion is used to describe a very quick wit, or a fratricidal fighting and fratricide.

Paragraph 11

T望梅止渴 Quench One's Thirst by Thinking of Plums

The allusion comes from By Means of Cheat in New Stories and Folk Tales.



“Once the Emperor Wu Di of the Wei Dynasty commanded his troops in a long march. There were no waters along their routes and the soldiers got terribly thirsty. The emperor said: ‘Beyond us there is a large plum garden, the sweet and sour fruits can quench our thirst.’ On hearing his words the soldiers all slobbered. Spurred, they hurried their march and reached the water resource.”

Later this phrase is used to mean the fantastic, unfeasible hope one cherishes for consoling oneself.

Paragraph 12

T悬梁刺股 to Tie one's Hair on the House Beam

and Jab One's Side with an Awl to

Keep Oneself Awake-Take Great Pains with One's Study

The allusion comes from Tai Ping Yu Lan and Strategies of the Warring States. In Tai Ping Yu Lan Biographies of Virtuous Persons of the Chu State, Zhang Fang records: In the early Han Dynasty, a man named Sun Jing who was eager to learn often studied late at night. When he felt sleepy, he tied his hair to the roof beam, so, when he dozed he would feel pain and woke up when his hair was pulled upward by the rope. Then he would go on with his study. In Volume One of Anecdotes of the Qin State in Strategies of the Warring States there is another story as follows: Su Qin felt sleepy when he was reading, so he took an awl and stabbed it into his own legs. The blood flew to his feet. Now people like to praise with this allusion those who grind away at their studies.



Cultural Links

文化链接

卧薪尝胆

据《史记》卷四十一《越王勾践世家》等史书记载：越王勾践本是大禹的后裔。登上王位后的第三年，他听说吴王夫差正在日夜练兵，准备攻打越

国,便决定先下手为强。于是,不听范蠡的劝告,兴兵讨伐吴国。不料,在夫椒(今江苏省吴县一带)这个地方打了败仗,被吴军围困在会稽山上。勾践将越国第一美女西施和大量金银珠宝进献给夫差,夫差一时失于计较,就放了越王勾践。勾践回国后,自苦其身,立志复仇。他将苦胆挂在自己的座位旁,每次坐下或躺下的时候,就看一眼苦胆,吃饭的时候也要亲口尝一下苦胆,以示不忘丧国之辱。他自己亲身下地耕种,夫人也亲手织布,睡觉的时候只是躺在一堆柴草(薪)上,吃饭的时候也从不吃肉,也从不穿好衣服,一切都与老百姓完全一样。7年以后,越国逐渐强盛起来,老百姓也富足了。过了两年,吴王夫差兴兵攻打齐国;3年后,夫差又到黄池这个地方大会诸侯,吴国的精兵也都保护夫差去了北方。勾践借吴国国内兵力空虚的机会,突然发难,率兵进攻吴国,并杀了吴国的太子。吴王夫差鞭长莫及,只好派人请求和解,勾践暂时退回越国。4年以后,越王再次攻打吴国,大获全胜,并将夫差围困在姑苏山上。吴王夫差见大势已去,只好自刎而死。后来常用“卧薪尝胆”一词来形容刻苦自励的精神。

Vocabulary 妙词连珠

statesman 政治家

popular name 通俗的

senior 年长的

official 官员

virtuous 善良的,有道德的

assistant 助手,助教

search 搜寻,查究

period 时期

humiliation 羞辱,蒙耻

determination 决心,果断

sleeping in firewood and tasting gall

卧薪尝胆

figuratively 比喻地,象征性地

superfluous 多余的,过剩的

anecdotes 轶事的,爱谈轶事的

warring 发动战争,战斗

distance 距离,远离

allusion 提及,暗示

satirize 讽刺性描写

effects 动产,(家庭)财物



U 神话传说

Unit 3 Mythology



Key Sentences

流畅精句

1. Chinese creation myth is so unique in that heaven, earth, gods and man are an undifferentiated whole.
中国的创世神话非常独特, 盘古神话说明, 天地神人是浑然不分的一个整体。
2. This myth holds the golden key to some primary mysteries and secrets of Chinese culture.
这个神话是一把金钥匙, 能解开中国文化的一些奥秘。
3. Myths of human origin share some basic motifs. The various myths among the peoples of China manifest unique features as well as universal motifs.
创生神话是世界各民族神话的基本成分。中国创生神话的各种版本即有人类神话的共同母题, 又有其独特之处。
4. This is another myth of the origin of man.
这是人类始祖的另一个神话。
5. The rebellion of Gonggong the water god mirrors in away the rebellion of the suppressed in human society.
水神共工怒撞不周山的故事是人类社会中受压迫者造反的曲折反映。
6. Chinese flood myths are especially rich, this is but one of many that reflect the tortuous course of prehistory China.
中国的洪水神话特别丰富, (女娲神话) 仅为其一。众多的洪水神话是中国史前史艰难治水历程的曲折反映。

7. Kuafu racing against the sun embodies the supernatural heroism of man.
夸父追日体现了人类心比天高的英雄气概。
8. Jing Wei is the name of a bird in the ancient Chinese legends, its folk name is Di Bird, meaning a bird of the God.
精卫是古代神话传说中的鸟名,俗称“帝雀鸟”。
9. The two mountains Taihang and Wangwu cover a territory of seven hundred square li, and are ten thousand cubits high. They were formerly situated in the south of Jizhou and north of Heyang.
太行、王屋两座山,方圆 700 里,高约万丈,本来位于冀州之南、河阳之北。
10. Old man Yu Gong of the North Mountain was about ninety years old and he lived in a house facing the mountains.
有个叫北山愚公的老人,已经 90 岁了,自幼面山而居。
11. When Yao was the leader of the confederation of tribes, ten suns appeared in the sky.
尧为帝王的时候,天空中同时出现了 10 个太阳。



Wonderful Paragraph

精彩片段

Paragraph 1

T开天辟地 he Creation of the World

Chinese creation myth is so unique in that heaven, earth, gods and man are an undifferentiated whole. That is the origin of the Chinese world view of harmony of man and nature.

The most popular myth in this respect is Pangu the Creator. It is popular among most peoples in China. There are almost ten versions, oral and written. Let us look at this most well-known one and work out some most basic motifs of Chinese culture.



At first the universe was in chaos. In the shape of an egg, it was an undifferentiated, indivisible whole. Pangu the Creator was born into this entity. He was an almighty giant. He kept growing every day until he separated the universe into heaven and earth with his sheer muscular strength. When this was done, the sky and the earth were still connected at various points. So he stuck to his work with a chisel and an axe until the great feat was accomplished. After this, he continued growing and so was the world, with the sky and the earth farther and farther apart. He lived for thousands of years till he died of exhaustion.

Upon his death, his body changed into various things. His breath became winds and clouds, with the clearer breath going up to heaven, the coarser part sinking down to earth. His left eye turned into the sun and his right eye became the moon. His arms and legs were transformed into the four corners of the earth and parts of his body turned into the various mountains. His blood formed the rivers and his veins the roads. His flesh became the soil and his skin and body hair were transformed into the trees and plants. His teeth and bones turned into rocks and metals, his marrow changed into pearls and jade. His hair and mustache were transformed into stars. His sweat fell as rain, nourishing all things. The insects on his body took the shape of men and women.

Paragraph 2

N女媧补天 Nuwa Creates Man

After the birth of the world there were only creatures but no humans. It was indeed a lonely world.

The almighty goddess Nuwa wanted to add life and beauty to this world and also to cheer up herself. She came to a lake, saw herself in the water and decided to make creatures after her own image. She set about making man with clay. She shaped little figurines by hand. Breathing life into them, she set them down. As soon as they touched ground, they began to cheer and dance. These were the first group of men and women.

She went about the work day and night. It was slow work. When she got tired, the number of creatures she made was still very small. She thought out an idea to speed up the work. She got a rattan, dipped it into the mud around her and flung it about. The mud drops fell and instantly turned into humans also.

The world became cheerful and colorful. But alas, this did not last long because many of the humans she made aged and died. If she went on making man alone, she might not be able to compensate for the rapid death rate. She thought out another idea. Why not make them mate and bear children by themselves?

Every spring, she would summon young men and women from far and near and let them chase and play with each other. It was a season of joy, courtship and marriage. In this way families were set up, children were nursed and reared, generations of man continue to live on this earth.

Paragraph 3

T 伏羲女娲兄妹成婚 The Marriage of Fuxi and Nuwa

This is another myth of the origin of man. There are two versions, different in form but similar in spirit.

After a big flood there were only two people left in the world, Fuxi and Nuwa. They were brother and sister. To carry on human blood they had no choice but to marry. But neither dared to think of it. To obtain the approval of Heaven, they climbed up to the holy mountain named Kunlun, the residence of Heaven on earth. They built two fires and prayed. "If Heaven let us survive to be husband and wife, may the smoke join. If not, the smoke will go in different ways." In no time the smoke did join, they obeyed the decree of Heaven. Nuwa went up to Fuxi, who took her in his arms. Thus they got married and became ancestors of man.

Another slightly different version goes like this.

Only Fuxi and Nuwa survived the terrible flood that almost destroyed the world. To continue human lineage, they were somehow compelled to



marry. But they were too ashamed of the idea. To avoid embarrassment they decided to play a game of chase around a big tree. Thus Fuxi ran after his sister, but couldn't catch her because of the size of the tree. After repeated failures an idea struck him. He turned around and ran the other way. Nuwa fell in his arms. That was the will of Heaven. They married and mankind survived the flood in this way.

Paragraph 4

G共工毀山 Gonggong Knocked Down the Mountain

The rebellion of Gonggong the water god mirrors in a way the rebellion of the suppressed in human society.

When the world was made, heaven and earth were not completely separated. There was still a ladder connecting them. Gods of heaven and earth could climb up and down to communicate and enjoy themselves. Also, some brave common people sometimes managed to climb up to heaven.

Zhuanxu the God of North Heaven was not happy about this. To him it was not good to mix up the world of gods and that of the common people. There was too much confusion. He wanted to pull down the heavenly ladder to cut off the touch of the two worlds. When this was done, all gods were happy about it. Therefore, Zhuanxu became very popular because he protected the interests of the gods. He was very satisfied with himself.

Pride goes before, and shame follows after. Zhuanxu followed his own will. He had all the stars and planets arranged in the northern sky in his territory, so he offended the gods. Out of touch with the earthly world, he no longer knew the people and their suffering. What's more, he set up many rules of conduct against the thoughts and feelings of the people. One such rule was that women should make way for men whenever they met on the way. Another was that brother and sister should never marry.

Zhuanxu became despotic and obstinate. Many gods were very angry, some of them headed by Gonggong rose up in revolt. This Gonggong



was god of water. Defeated, the desperate Gonggong knocked down the Buzhou Mountain, which happened to be one of the four pillars of the sky, the one in the west. The mountain fell apart, the sky collapsed. The world ruled by Zhuanxu was disrupted. Horrible disasters followed. The western sky fell, sinking holes in the earth; the earth in the east sank, cracking to produce gaps; floods shot up from the cracks and holes; rains poured down; seas rose; rivers rose; the sky could no longer cover the earth; the earth submerged, it could no longer carry all the creatures; woods were on fire, the sun was overshadowed by thick smoke; fierce animals became rampage, preying on humans—What a hell of life!

Nuwa would not allow this to continue. She came out to save the world and repair the sky, which is the concern of the next section.

Paragraph 5

N女媧补天 **Nuwa Mended the Fallen**

Chinese flood myths are especially rich. This is but one of many that reflect the tortuous course of prehistory China.

The fight of gods resulted in the disasters of the people. Nuwa the creator of man would not allow this to continue. She must save her offspring and the world. She started the arduous task by mending the sky. This is how she did it.

She collected rocks, melted them in a pot and used the thick liquid to mend the holes. When this was done, she thought out a way to prop up the collapsed sky. She caught a giant tortoise, cut off its legs and used them to support the four corners of the sky. The sky was back in its place, the rains stopped.

She killed or drove away the predatory animals and birds plaguing people. Among the most ferocious animals, there was a black dragon that stirred up floods. She killed the dragon. The flood gradually receded.

At the same time, to bring the flood under complete control, Nuwa collected all the reeds she could, burned them all and used the ashes to



block, divert and channel the angry torrents. The big flood was finally tamed.

Things came back to normal. The world was alive again. The sky was clear. The sun bathed living creatures. Fine rains nourished trees and plants. The seasons rotated in good order. Hot and cold spells followed each other in good time. Fierce animals and birds were killed or perished. Friendly animals were domesticated. Fields produced bumper crops. Man was relieved from want of food. Babies could be left in bird nests without being hurt. The nests swung with the trees in gentle breezes, serving as ideal natural cradles.

To enrich human life, Nuwa decided to invent a musical instrument for man. It was made of thirteen flutes plugged in a bottle gourd. The thirteen pipes looked like the elegant tail of a phoenix. It was indeed a very nice gift producing pleasant music.

Nuwa died of exhaustion, quite content with what she had done to her offspring. Like Pangu the Creator of the World, she did not perish. She transformed into various things in the universe. One of her bowels turned into ten gods in the great plane of the west. They formed a line of guardians of the plain.

Paragraph 6

K 夸父逐日 Kuafu Chased the Sun

Kuafu racing against the sun embodies the supernatural heroism of man.

Kuafu lived on a mountain called "Heaven Pillar" in the northern wilderness. He was ancestor of the people of Bofu. It was a country of giants. Kuafu could cover hundreds of miles at a stride. He looked fierce with a yellow serpent on each of his ear and in each of his hand. But actually he was gentle and kind. Only, he was a bit impatient. He was determined to prove himself the number one giant of the world. He must command due respect among the world of gods.



An idea came to his mind. why not challenge the sun in a race since he was the fastest runner with very long legs?

He uprooted a tree tall enough to reach heaven and used it as a stick, in case he should use it at a pause in the course of the race.

Off he started as soon as he saw the sun rise in the east. Every step of his raised a gust of wind, a cloud of dust and a quake of mountains. All the eyes of the gods were fixed on him. It was indeed a magnificent competition shaking heaven and earth. On and on he ran in spite of great fatigue. Bit by bit he got closer to the sun. Sweating all over and very thirsty, he was scorched by the sun. Yet he went on. His excitement mounted with the shrinking of the distance between him and his rival.

At last, he got to the deep pit beyond which the sun was sinking. There he was, close enough to embrace the sun. He raised his arms, only to find them too weak to stretch. He was overcome by a surge of excitement and exhaustion. He had to squat to quench his thirst. At a stretch he dried the Huanghe and the Weihe rivers. The thirst was relieved only a little, but it was still unbearable. He knew that only the cool and sweet water in the North Sea could kill the thirst and revitalize his body.

Doggedly he moved on north, but he could no longer run. He pulled his legs, but they were too weak to support his giant body. He was too thirsty, too tired. The last ounce of his strength was running out. All of sudden, he collapsed, his tremendous weight shaking heaven and earth, the deafening sound reverberating across mountains and valleys. His body became a huge mountain his stick grew into a huge peach garden. With the nourishment of his flesh and blood, the peach wood kept expanding until it covered thousands of square miles.

The mountain of his body was named after his name, but it was later renamed as the Qin Mountain. The peach forest was named Denglin Forest. This magic wood was not only lush, green and productive, but also revitalizing and rejuvenating. Legend has it that after the massive war overthrowing the Shang dynasty, the first king of the Zhou dynasty released the old and dying military horses in the wood, soon they were rejuvenated and



grew into fierce horses. When King Mu of this Zhou dynasty journeyed west to see Xiwangmu the goddess of the Kunlun Mountains, he managed to choose eight magic horses from the wood. His cart drawn by this team could cover ten thousand miles a day.

Kuafu's offspring set up a country beyond the North Sea. It was named Bofu. But to commemorate him, people preferred to call it Kuafu.

Paragraph 7

J精卫填海 **ing Wei Attempted to Fill up the Sea**

Jing Wei is the name of a bird in the ancient Chinese legends, its folk name is Di Bird, meaning a bird of the God. The story is recorded in Shan Hai Jing.

"In the Fa Jiu Mountains there was a thick forest. In the forest there was a strange bird. Her figure was like a turtle. She had on her head a striped pattern, and white break and red claws. Her cry was very pleasant. Originally she was the daughter of Yan Di, one of the earliest kings in ancient Chinese legends. Her name was Nu Wa. Once when she swam in the sea she drowned and changed into a bird named Jing Wei. Jing Wei often held in her mouth woods or rocks from the West Mountains and when she flew above the East Sea she dropped them into it because she believed she could fill the sea up by doing so."

Paragraph 8

Y后羿射日 **i Shot down Ten Suns**

The story is recorded in Huai Nan Zi.

"In the times of Yao, a legendary monarch in remote ancient China, ten suns appeared together in the sky. They burnt crops, killed weeds and woods. People had nothing to eat, while various kinds of monsters and demons ran wild and killed people cruelly. The monarch Yao ordered Yi, then a young and brave hunter, to kill them. Yi then killed the sharp teeth mon-



ster in the wilderness, slew the cruel dragon in the turbulent river, captured the storm demon in the valley of Qingqiu Mountains. Then, he shot down the ten blazing suns and killed the huge rat deep under the ground. Finally, he cut the longest snake in Dong Ting Lake and captured the largest beast in the mulberry forest. People were all greatly pleased and they supported Yao as the Son of the Heaven. Yi became the hero eulogized by the later generations."

Paragraph 9

C嫦娥奔月 **Chang E, the Goddess of the Moon**

The story is recorded in Huai Nan Zi.

"Once upon a time, Yi, the hero who had shot down nine suns, went to Xiwangmu, the Mother Goddess for the elixir. It was said that anyone who ate the elixir could rise to the moon and become the god of the moon. Knowing this, Chang E, Yi's wife stole this magic medicine and rose onto the moon and became the goddess there. Yi felt terribly disappointed for losing both his wife and the elixir, because both of them were unique."

Paragraph 10

O愚公移山 **Id Man Yu Gong Moved Away**

Mountains — Spirit of Perseverance

The two mountains Taihang and Wangwu cover a territory of seven hundred square li, and are ten thousand cubits high. They were formerly situated in the south of Jizhou and north of Heyang. Old Man Yu Gong of the North Mountain was about ninety years old and he lived in a house facing the mountains. He did not like the mountains blocking his way and making him go up and down or around the mountains when he left home. He asked his families to come together and said to them, "You and I shall set to work with all our strength and level the mountains so that we may have a path leading straight to Yunan and reaching clear to the northern

bank of the Han River. What do you say?" The family agreed, but his wife said, "With your strength, you can't even do anything with the Kuifu Hill. How can you do anything with the Taihang and Wangwu? Besides, where are you going to put away all the rocks and soil?" The various people said, "We can throw them into the end of the Bohai Sea and the north of Yintu (Siberia)." He then led three of his children and grandchildren who could carry loads, and began to chip the rocks and shovel the soil, and carried them in baskets to the end of the Bohai Sea. An orphan boy of the neighbor's widow, who had just shed his milk teeth, jumped along and came to help them and returned home only once a season. The Wise Man of Hequ laughed at the Old Man and tried to stop him, saying, "What a fool you are! With all the strength and years left to you, you can't even scratch the surface of this mountain. What can you do about the rocks and soil?" Old Man Yu Gong of North Mountain drew a deep sigh and said, "Your mind is so blocked up that you cannot think straight. You are of less use than the widow and the boy. When I die, there will be my children (to carry on the work), and the children will have grandchildren, and the grandchildren will again have children, and the children will again have grandchildren. So my children and grandchildren are endless, while the mountains cannot grow bigger in size. Why shouldn't them be leveled some day?" The Wise Man could not make any reply. Now the Mountain God heard about it and was worried that the efforts at leveling the mountains would not cease, and he went to speak to God. God was touched by the Old Man's sincerity of heart and ordered the two sons of Kua E Shi to carry the two mountains and placed one in Shudong and one in Yongnan. From then on, the south of Jizhou and north of the Han River became level ground.



Cultural Links

文化链接

开天辟地的神话

我们伟大祖国有非常悠久的历史。按照古代的传统说法,从传说中的



黄帝到现在,大约有四千多年的历史,通常叫做“上下五千年”。

在上下五千年的历史里,有许多动人的有意义的故事。其中有许多是有文字记载的。至于五千年以前远古时期的情况,没有文字记载,但是也流传了一些神话和传说。

譬如,我们人类的祖先,究竟是从哪里来的?古时候流传着一个盘古开天地的神话,说的是在天地开辟之前,宇宙不过是混混沌沌的一团气,里面没有光,没有声音。这时候,出了一个盘古氏,用大斧把这一团混沌劈开来。轻的气往上浮,就成了天;重的气往下沉,就成了地。

以后,天每天高出一丈,地每天加厚一丈,盘古氏本人也每天长高了一丈。这样过了一万八千年,天就很高很高,地就很厚很厚,盘古氏当然也成了顶天立地的巨人。后来,盘古氏死了,他的身体的各个部分就变成了太阳、月亮、星星、高山、河流、草木等等。

这就是开天辟地的神话。

神话毕竟只是神话,现在谁也不会相信真有这样的事。但是人们喜欢这个神话,一谈起历史,常常说从“盘古开天地”起。这是因为它象征着人类征服自然的伟大气魄和丰富的创造力。

那么,人类历史究竟应该从哪儿说起呢?后来,科学发达了,人们从地下发掘出来的化石,证明人类最早的祖先是一种从古猿转变而来的猿人。

我国科学工作者在祖国各地先后发掘了许多猿人的遗骨和遗物的化石,可以看到我们祖国境内最早的原始人,已经有一百万年以上的历史。像云南发现的元谋猿人,大约有一百七十万年历史;陕西出土的蓝田猿人,大约有八十万年历史;拿有名的北京猿人来说,也有四五十万年的历史了。

这里,我们就从北京猿人说起。北京猿人生活在周口店一带。那时候,中国北方的气候比现在温和湿润。山上山下,生长着树林、灌木和丰茂的野草。凶猛的虎、豹、狼、熊等野兽,出没在树林和山野中。那里还生长着大象、犀牛和梅花鹿。

猿人的力气比不上这些凶猛的野兽,但是他们和任何动物根本不同的地方,就是猿人能够制造和使用工具。这种工具十分简单,一件是木棒,一件是石头。木棒,树林里多的是,但它是经过人砍削的;石头呢,是经过人工砸打过的,虽然很粗糙,但毕竟是人制造的工具。

他们就是用这种简单的工具来采集果子,挖植物的根茎吃。他们还用木棒、石器来同野兽作斗争,猎取食物。



但是,这种工具毕竟太简陋了,他们获取的食物是很有限的,靠单个人的力量,没法生活下去,只好过着群居的生活,共同劳动,共同对付猛兽的侵袭。这种人群就叫原始人群。

几十万年过去了,猿人在艰苦的斗争中进化了。在北京周口店龙骨山的山顶洞穴里,发现另一种原始人的遗迹。这种原始人的样子,已经和现代人没有什么两样。我们把他们叫做“山顶洞人”。

山顶洞人的劳动工具有了很大的改进,他们不但能够把石头砸成石斧、石锤,而且还把野兽的骨头磨制成骨针。别看这一枚小小的骨针,在那时候,人们能磨制骨针可不是一件简单的事。有了骨针,人们可以把兽皮缝成衣服,不像北京猿人时期那样赤身裸体。

山顶洞人过的也是群居生活。但他们的群居生活已经按照血统关系固定下来。一个集体的成员都是共同祖先生下来的,也就是同一氏族的人。这样,人类社会就进入了氏族公社时期了。



Vocabulary

妙词连珠

creation 创造, 创作物

myth 神话

creator 创建者, 创作者

chaos 混乱, 混沌

undifferentiated 未分化的

universe 宇宙

various 不同的, 各种各样的

shape 外形, 形状

figurines 小雕像

touched 被感动的

creatures 人, 动物, 傀儡, 创造物

flood 洪水, 水灾

God 上帝

rebellion

谋反, 叛乱, 反抗, 不服从

especially 特别, 尤其

gradually 逐渐地



附录 I

History Timeline

历史年表

Dates	Dynasty	朝代
2000—1500 B. C.	Xia	夏
1700—1027 B. C.	Shang	商
1027—771 B. C.	Western Zhou	西周
770—221 B. C.	Eastern Zhou	东周
	770—476 B. C. — Spring and Autumn period	春秋时代
	475—221 B. C. — Warring States period	战国时代
221—207 B. C.	Qin	秦
206 B. C. -A. D. 9	Western Han	西汉
A. D. 9—24	Xin. (Wang Mang interregnum)	新
A. D. 25—220	Eastern Han	东汉
A. D. 220—280	Three Kingdoms	三国
	220—265 — Wei	魏
	221—263 — Shu	蜀
	229—280 — Wu	吴
A. D. 265—316	Western Jin	西晋
A. D. 317—420	Eastern Jin	东晋



A. D. 420—588	Southern and Northern Dynasties		南北朝
	420—588	Southern Dynasties	南朝
		420—478 — Song	宋
		479—501 — Qi	齐
		502—556 — Liang	梁
		557—588 — Chen	陈
	386—588	Northern Dynasties	北朝
		386—533 — Northern Wei	北魏
		534—549 — Eastern Wei	东魏
		535—557 — Western Wei	西魏
		550—577 — Northern Qi	北齐
		557—588 — Northern Zhou	北周
A. D. 581—617	Sui		隋
A. D. 618—907	Tang		唐
A. D. 907—960	Five Dynasties		五代
	907—923 — Later Liang		后梁
	923—936 — Later Tang		后唐
	936—946 — Later Jin		后晋
	947—950 — Later Han		后汉
	951—960 — Later Zhou		后周
A. D. 907—979	Ten Kingdoms		十国

A. D. 960—1279	Song	宋
	960—1127 — Northern Song	北宋
	1127—1279 — Southern Song	南宋
A. D. 916—1125	Liao	辽
A. D. 1038—1227	Western Xia	西夏
A. D. 1115—1234	Jin	金
A. D. 1279—1368	Yuan	元
A. D. 1368—1644	Ming	明
A. D. 1644—1911	Qing	清
A. D. 1911—1949	Republic of China	中华民国
A. D. 1949—	People's Republic of China	中华人民共和国



附 录 II

Chronology of Major Human Fossils in China

中华大地猿人化石断代表

Name	Date	Site	Discovery
Dawn Man	2 500 000 yrs.	Yuanqu, Shanxi	1990s
Fanchang Man	2.1—2.4 million yrs	Fanchang, Anhui	1999
Wushan Man	2 000 000 yrs.	Yangtze Gorges	1990s
Yuanmou Man	1 700 000 yrs.	Yuanmou, Yunnan	1950s
Lantian Man	1 000 000 yrs	Lantian, shaanxi	1960s
Beijing Man	500 000 yrs	Beijing	1920s
Hexian Man	ditto	Hexian, Anhui	1990s
Shandong Man	25 000 yrs	Beijing	1930s

化石名	距今年代	地址	发现时间
山西曙人	250 万年	山西垣曲	20 世纪 90 年代
繁昌人	210—240 万年	安徽繁昌	1999 年
巫山人	200 万年	长江三峡	20 世纪 90 年代
元谋人	170 万年	支南元谋	20 世纪 50 年代
蓝田人	100 万年	陕西蓝田	20 世纪 60 年代
北京人	50 万年	北京	20 世纪 20 年代
和县人	同上	安徽和县	20 世纪 90 年代
山顶洞人	2.5 万年	北京	20 世纪 30 年代



附录 III

A Comparison of the Prehistory

Cultures and Proto Civilizations in the

Two River Valleys

长江与黄河史前文化和早期文明比较简表

Date	Yangtze River culture	Huanghe culture
7 000 yrs	Hemudu, Zhejiang: jade, paddy, pottery	Yangshao, Henan etc. : pottery, millet etc.
6 500 yrs	Lixian, Hunan: walled city	Banpo, Shaanxi: millet, pottery, proto-writing Dawenkou, Shandong: pottery, proto-writing
5 300 yrs	Chengdu: walled cities, bronzes; Liangzhu, Zhejiang: earthen "pyramid", proto-writing, bronzes	Longshan: all along Huanghe: walled cities, bronzes
4 000 yrs	Sanxingdui, Chengdu: dazzling bronzes, undefended walled city of State of Shu	Erlitou, Henan: bronzes, defended walled city of the Xia Dynasty

距今年代	长江文化	黄河文化
7 000 年	浙江河姆渡:玉雕,制陶, 世界最早的栽培水稻	沿江各地仰韶文化:制陶, 旱地作物,六畜
6 500 年	湖南澧县城市遗址	陕西半歧:旱地农业,制 陶,原始文字 山东大汶口:制陶,原始文 字
5 300 年	成都附近城市遗址:青铜 器,玉器 浙江良渚:土金字塔,原始 文字,青铜器	沿江各地龙山文化:设防 城市,青铜器
4 000 年	成都三星堆:巨型青铜祭 祀神器;不设防城市,古蜀 国	河南二里头:青铜器,设防 城市,夏代遗址

附录 IV

Classical Books

历史典籍

- | | |
|--|--------|
| 1. Songs of Chu | 《楚辞》 |
| 2. Spring and Autumn Annals | 《春秋》 |
| 3. Fan Shengzhi Book | 《汜胜之书》 |
| 4. Guanzi | 《管子》 |
| 5. Hanfeizi | 《韩非子》 |
| 6. History of the [Former] Han Dynasty | 《汉书》 |
| 7. Laozi | 《老子》 |
| 8. Records of Rites | 《礼记》 |
| 9. Six Strategies | 《六韬》 |
| 10. Master Lu's Spring and Autumn | 《晏子春秋》 |
| 11. Analects of Confucius | 《论语》 |
| 12. Book of Mencius | 《孟子》 |
| 13. Essential Techniques for the Peasantry | 《齐民要术》 |
| 14. Written Slips of Qin | 《秦简》 |
| 15. Records of the Three Kingdoms | 《三国志》 |
| 16. Classic of Mountains and Seas | 《山海经》 |
| 17. Book of Lord Shang | 《商君书》 |
| 18. Book of Odes | 《诗经》 |
| 19. Records of the Great Historian | 《史记》 |
| 20. New Anecdotes of Social Talk | 《世说新语》 |
| 21. Commentary on the Waterways Classic | 《水经注》 |
| 22. Explanation on Chinese Characters | 《说文解字》 |
| 23. Sun Bin's Art of War | 《孙臆兵法》 |
| 24. Sunzi's Art of War | 《孙子兵法》 |
| 25. Book of Xunzi | 《荀子》 |
| 26. Stratagems of the Warring States | 《战国策》 |
| 27. Changes of Zhou | 《周易》 |
| 28. Book of Zhuangzi | 《庄子》 |
| 29. Zuo's Commentary on Spring and Autumn Annals | 《左传》 |

[General Information]

书名=文明史迹

作者=沈光煜 浩瀚主编

页数=253

SS号=11944836

DX号=000006323315

出版日期=2008年02月第1版

出版社=科学技术文献出版社

封面

书名

前言

目录

Chapter 1 史前时期

Unit 1 旧石器、新石器时代

Unit 2 史前文化

Chapter 2 夏、商、周时期Unit 1 夏朝

Unit 2 商朝

Unit 3 周朝

Unit 4 春秋战国时期

Chapter 3 秦汉时期

Unit 1 秦朝

Unit 2 汉朝

Chapter 4 魏晋南北朝

Unit 1 三国

Unit 2 晋朝

Unit 3 南北朝

Chapter 5 隋唐时期

Unit 1 隋朝

Unit 2 唐朝

Chapter 6 宋辽金时期

Unit 1 五代十国

Unit 2 宋朝

Unit 3 辽朝

Unit 4 金朝

Chapter 7 元明清时期

Unit 1 元朝

Unit 2 明朝

Unit 3 清朝

Chapter 8 中华民国与中华人民共和国Unit 1 中华民国

Unit 2 中华人民共和国

Chapter 9 中国四大发明、历史故事与神话传说Unit 1
四大发明

Unit 2 历史故事

Unit 3 神话传说

附录 I 历史年表

附录 II 中华大地猿人化石断代表

附录 III 长江与黄河史前文化和早期文明比较简表

附录 IV 历史典籍



公众号： **铅笔钥匙** ([qianbiyaoshi](#))

微信扫描二维码，关注我们公众号

优质教育资源每日免费分享

欢迎关注我们

本资源来源于网络收集整理，版权归原作者

本资源为电子载体，分享仅限于家庭使用或交流心得

不得以任何理由用于商业用途，因此而造成的不良后果请自行承担！