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阅读

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II



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怎样阅读本书？

阅读基本上是个自学过程。一般可以分为“精读”和“泛读”两类。

“精读”的主要目的是学习,包括词汇、词组、发音、成语、习惯用法、语法、句型、表达方法、写作风格等。获取信息是次要的目的。

精读的特点是“精”,“宁精勿滥”。学习者要仔细看课文,认真思考,做到真正理解,切忌囫圇吞枣。遇到不认识的词时要查词典或词汇表,不要猜。最好写点读书笔记,至少在阅读过的材料上划出要记忆的东西。

“精读”不要求快,能快则快,不能快则慢;也不要求每次看很多,能看多少就看多少。

“精读”要持之以恒;学过的东西要复习,反复看,加强记忆。我主张学生朗读课文(但是不必高声叫喊,以免妨碍他人,损伤自己的嗓子)并进一步记诵精采的段落。这就是“熟读唐诗三百首,不会吟诗也会吟。”

“泛读”的主要目的是获取信息;学习是次要的目的。泛读要训练学生在短时间内从大量阅读材料中获取准确、有用信息的能力。这种能力在现代信息社会里是必不可少的,在考试中也常遇到这种情况。泛读的主要方法是浏览和扫描,但并非泛泛地读,漫不经心地读。遇到不认识的词或词组,可以根据上下文去猜。泛读的结果应是一篇读书札记(用英文写),总结所阅读材料的主

题,主要论点、逻辑、结论。泛读要求阅读速度快又能抓住要点和逻辑。这就要求读者掌握大量的词汇(学生在练习阶段可预习词汇表,以弥补词汇量之不足),熟悉语法,还要有良好的短期记忆力。这些都可以通过长期、认真的训练来培养。

精读和泛读是相辅相成的。精读是基础,而较强的泛读能力来自长期的精读训练。精读和泛读并进,学生可以根据自己的情况和需要安排适当比例的时间,进行每日的精读和泛读训练。

本书的全部课文既适用于精读,也适用于泛读;细心的读者可以发现哪些课文更适合于精读,哪些更适合于泛读。如果有教师指导,学生更能学得好,学得快,学得扎实。

孔子说:“学然后知不足,教然后知困”。愿与天下学子共勉。

前言

本书是为我国大学生提高英语阅读能力、扩大常用词汇量、增长知识、为以后阅读英语文献奠定坚实的基础而编写的。课文内容涉及古今中外的各种有趣话题,但是并未涉及高深的理论,任何专业的大学生都可以读懂。本书对于准备参加英语4~6级和“托福”考试的学生特别有帮助,对英语自学者也大有裨益。

对于外语教学,教育界一致的意见是要注重阅读,因为阅读是基本功,是“听”,“说”,“写”,“译”的基础。阅读是要求最低,也最容易做到——只要有适合的读物和词典。但是学习者要从浩如烟海的英文书刊、报纸中获得适合自己的、实用的英语读物并非易事,沉重的经济负担也是个问题。目前教育界同仁深感缺乏适用于教学的英语读物,不利于提高学生的素质。本英语教材正是为了解决这一问题而编写的。

本教材在题材选取,课文编写,词汇范围,知识结构等诸方面都注意知识性、趣味性、可读性、实用性、时效性、示范性和可模仿性。其他优点是内容充实,语言规范,逻辑清晰,表现力强。为了节省学习者查阅词典的精力和时间,准确地理解词义和课文,每课都附有词汇表(包括词和词组,国际音标,词性,简明汉语释义)。对于课文中的一些较复杂的语言现象和提到的历史人物和事件及自然科学的一些问题,在注释中用汉语作了必要的、简练的讲解。毫无疑问,本书适合我国英语学习者的需求(学英语,长知识,增才干,备考试),是物有所值的英语读物。但是编者并不

认为此书尽善尽美,并衷心地期望广大师生在教与学的实践中检验之,使之日趋完善。

傅银华、丁颖女士编写词汇表。对他们出色的工作,我表示由衷的感谢。

何 兆 枢

目 录

Historic Events

历史事件



启蒙时代



工业革命和
大英帝国



美利坚合众国
的诞生与崛起



第一颗原子弹
的制造与使用

1. The Establishment of the Roman Empire
罗马帝国的建立 1
2. The Renaissance
文艺复兴 16
3. The Age of Enlightenment
启蒙时代 24
4. The French Revolution
法国大革命 35
5. The Industrial Revolution and the British Empire
工业革命和大英帝国 74
6. The Birth and Growth of the United States
美利坚合众国的诞生与崛起 90
7. The Capitalist World after World War I
第一次世界大战后的资本主义世界 125
8. World War II
第二次世界大战 156
9. A Plot to Kill Hitler
暗杀希特勒 174
10. To Make and Use the First Atomic Bomb
第一颗原子弹的制造与使用 179



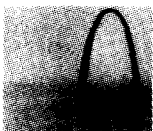
第二次世界大战



阿波罗登月计划



中美关系的正常化



全球生态环境危机



高科技孵化器

11. Contest for Hegemony between the US and the USSR
美苏两国的霸权争夺战 185
12. Apollo Program: First Crewed Mission to the Moon
阿波罗登月计划 209
13. Normalization of Sino-US Relation
中美关系的正常化 217
14. Economic Globalization, GATT and WTO
经济全球化:关贸总协定与世界贸易组织 229
15. The Global Ecological Environment Crisis
全球生态环境危机 239
16. The Advent of Clone Technology
克隆技术的发展 254
17. The High-tech Incubators
高科技孵化器 262

Controversial Figures 有争议的人物

18. Confucius
孔子 269
19. The Qin Emperor the First
秦始皇 275
20. Kang Youwei
康有为 281
21. El Cid
熙德 292



拿破仑·波拿巴



亚伯拉罕·林肯



比尔·盖茨



海战



太空战

22. Napoleon Bonaparte
拿破仑·波拿巴 295
23. Abraham Lincoln
亚伯拉罕·林肯 305
24. Bill Gates
比尔·盖茨 314

Military Science and Practice 军事科学

25. Naval Warfare
海战 326
26. Air Warfare
空战 332
27. Mechanized Force
机械化部队 337
28. Lightning War (Blitz)
闪电战 341
29. Nuclear Warfare
核战争 349
30. Space Warfare
太空战 360
31. Information Warfare
信息战 373
32. The Mobile Troops
快速部队 381
33. Sun Wu's Military Theory
孙武的军事理论 389

1. The Establishment of the Roman Empire

罗马帝国的建立



The **Roman Empire**—a political system established by Rome lasted nearly five centuries. Historians usually date the beginning of the Roman Empire from 27 BC when the Roman Senate gave Gaius Octavius the name Augustus, and he became the **undisputed** emperor after years of bitter civil war. At its peak the empire included lands throughout the **Mediterranean world**. Rome had first expanded into other parts of Italy and neighboring territories during the Roman Republic (509-27 BC), but made wider conquests and solidified political control of these lands during the empire. The empire lasted until Germanic invasions, economic decline, and internal unrest in the 4th and 5th centuries AD ended Rome's ability to dominate such a huge territory. The Romans and their empire gave cultural and political shape to the subsequent history of Europe

from the **Middle Ages** and the **Renaissance** to the present day.

In 44 BC Gaius Julius Caesar, the Roman leader who ruled the Roman Republic as a dictator, was **assassinated**. Rome descended into more than ten years of civil war and political upheaval. After Caesar's heir Gaius Octavius (also known as Octavian) defeated his last rivals, the **Senate** in 27 BC **proclaimed** him Augustus, meaning the **exalted** or holy one. In this way Augustus established the **monarchy** that became known as the Roman Empire. The Roman Republic, which had lasted nearly 500 years, was dead, never to be revived. The empire endured for another 500 years until AD 476.

The emperor Augustus **reigned** from 27 BC to 14 AD and ruled with absolute power. He reestablished political and social stability and launched two centuries of prosperity called the Roman Peace (*Pax Romana*). Under his rule the Roman state began its transformation into the greatest and most influential political **institution** in European history. During the first two centuries AD the empire **flourished** and added new territories, notably ancient Britain, Arabia, and Dacia (present-day Romania). People from the Roman provinces streamed to Rome, where they became soldiers, **bureaucrats**, senators, and even emperors. Rome developed into the social, economic, and cultural capital of the Mediterranean world. Despite the attention given to **tyrannical** and often **vicious** leaders like the emperors Caligula and Nero, most emperors ruled sensibly and competently until military and economic disasters brought on the political instability of the third century AD.

The Roman Empire **encompassed** a huge amount of territory, but also allowed people of many different cultures to retain their **heritage** into modern times. The empire helped to **perpetuate** the art, literature, and philosophy of the Greeks, the religious and ethical system of the **Jews**, the new religion of the **Christians**, **Babylonian** astronomy and **astrology**, and cultural elements from Persia, Egypt, and other eastern civilizations. The Romans supplied their own **peculiar** talents for government, law, and architecture and also spread their Latin language. In this way they created the Greco-Roman **synthesis**, the rich combination of cultural elements that for two **millennia** has shaped what we call the Western tradition.

The Romans formed that synthesis during the longest continuous period of peaceful prosperity that the Mediterranean world has ever known. Even after a German invader in 476 AD **deposed** Romulus Augustulus, the last emperor residing in Rome, emperors who called themselves “Roman” (although they are known historically as **Byzantine**) continued to rule in **Constantinople** until 1453 AD. The impact of the Roman people endures until the present day.

The Foundations of the Empire

After the founding of Rome in 753 BC, powerful kings ruled until, according to patriotic legend, the Romans expelled the last foreign **monarch** in 509 BC and established a more representative form of government known as the Roman Republic. In the five centuries the republic existed, Rome expanded

from a small community on the hills beside the Tiber River into the major power of the Mediterranean world. After centuries of warfare the Romans conquered other peoples who lived in the surrounding regions and by 266 BC controlled the entire Italian Peninsula.

The Romans then embarked on their conquest of the rest of the Mediterranean basin. First they defeated their great rival, Carthage^[1], whose possessions, including Sicily, Spain, and North Africa, became Roman provinces. During the second and first centuries BC, Rome's military forces, known as **legions**, fought against kings and city-states in the eastern Mediterranean to bring Greece, Asia Minor (roughly modern Turkey), Syria, Judea, and Egypt under Roman control. In the west, Julius Caesar conquered Gaul, which included all of modern France, so that the Roman frontiers extended from the Sahara to the North Sea and from Spain to the Near East.

This remarkable military achievement transformed the Romans themselves. Roman imperialism introduced extremes of wealth and **poverty** that sharpened social and economic conflict within the Roman state. The flood of military **plunder** and captured slaves dramatically changed the countryside as small farms gave way to large **plantations**, and landless peasants migrated to Rome and other cities. Immense wealth **inflamed** the ambitions of Roman nobles who struggled for personal **domination rather than** collective rule. The wealth of empire corrupted the once noble Roman people. Nearly a century of **intermittent** civil war, which extended from the rule of the Gracchi, begin-



ning about 133 BC, to the death of Gaius Julius Caesar in 44 BC, threatened to destroy the unity and prosperity of Rome itself .

In 49 BC Caesar, who had held many of the highest political offices in Rome, marched into Italy to challenge the leaders of the republic. After defeating his enemies, he ruled as dictator until his murder on March 15 (by the Roman calendar) in 44 BC. Caesar's **assassins**, Marcus Junius Brutus and Gaius Cassius Longinus, hoped to restore the republic, but it was no longer possible. Neither the urban masses nor the military would allow the old **aristocracy** to regain control.

Rome needed a strong hand to **administer** the state and control the army, since the old system of government was unsuitable to rule an empire of 50 million **subjects**. If Rome wanted to maintain its **dominance**, the government needed to create new administrative and military institutions. Caesar planned to transform the Roman state, but his few years in power were **insufficient**. His followers included his longtime military **deputy**, Mark Antony, and his great-nephew (and adopted son), Octavian. They first defeated Brutus and Cassius at Philippi, a city of ancient **Macedonia**, in 42 BC, before turning on each other. By 30 BC Octavian was the unchallenged successor to Caesar and the master of Rome. Three years later the Senate proclaimed him Augustus, the supreme ruler.

The Empire Under Augustus

Octavian's victory over Antony made him master of

Rome, but it did not resolve the conflicts that had destroyed the Roman Republic. His most pressing tasks included **demobilizing** the huge armies, safeguarding their future loyalty, and ensuring the safety of the European frontiers that Rome had **neglected** during long civil wars in the east. He also needed to make the Italians an integral part of Roman social, cultural and political life. Rome had conquered people of various cultural and **linguistic** backgrounds who inhabited the Italian Peninsula and had only granted citizenship **sparingly**, causing some bitter feelings. Augustus worked to reduce class **hostility** and civil unrest in the capital and established an **administrative apparatus** to govern the empire. To accomplish these changes, he devised a new form of monarchy.


His first step was to repair the bitter wounds of civil war. On January 13 of 27 BC, Octavian, in his own words, “transferred the Republic from my own power to the authority of the Senate and the Roman people.” This action showed **shrewd** political planning, as Augustus used it purely for public show. The Senate awarded him the name of Augustus, and mobs demanded that he retain power. Augustus carefully retained the titles of traditional offices to **disguise** his absolute power. He kept only the offices of **consul** and **proconsul** and claimed that he held no more power than his colleagues did. Some Romans complained that the loss of liberty was too great a price to pay for peace, but most recognized that under the so-called liberty of the Roman Republic, a few hundred men had divided the **spoils** of empire while the workers and the provincials suffered.



The majority of Romans welcomed the peace and stability of the Augustan Age.

Augustus did not **derive** his power from any single office, but from the authority of his name and his victory. In fact, he carefully **pieced together a patchwork** of powers that allowed him to be an absolute ruler and yet avoid the hatred Caesar aroused as dictator. In Latin, the name Augustus implies both political authority and religious respect. The Romans had for some time called Octavian imperator, (a title once awarded to victorious generals that soon became associated with the ruler and thus led to the English word emperor). In 27 BC he was first called princeps (leading man of the state), which later became the official title of the Roman emperors. His imperium, or military authority, extended throughout the empire and was greater than the power of any other governor or general. Augustus, in reality, held as much power as any absolute dictator, but wisely disguised it with traditional names so that the other Roman officials, and particularly senators, would still feel pride in their positions. The Senate was not an elected body; it drew its membership from the Roman aristocratic classes, primarily former **magistrates** who had served in important administrative posts. To be a senator was a matter of **status**, not a formal job. Under the republic, the Senate held great authority as the institution that preserved Roman knowledge and tradition and became the dominant force in religion, public policy, and foreign affairs. Senators jealously guarded the power and the wealth that resulted from their role in Roman government.





Augustus resigned the consulship in 23 BC as a **gesture** to satisfy senators who were anxious to receive **consular** honors themselves. He rarely held that title again. Augustus instead **assumed** the powers of a **tribune**, the republican official who represented the people and had the power to propose or **veto legislation**. The Romans heaped other honors upon him, including the office of **censor**, which enabled him to control the membership of the Senate. They also made him pontifex maximus, the head of the state religion, and finally pater patriae or “father of the country.” These offices and titles gave Augustus no real additional power, for he already controlled every aspect of religious, civil, and military life.

Augustus’ main task was to create and staff new administrative structures for the empire. During the republic, the government had ruled the provinces ineffectively. Provincial governorships were seen as opportunities for enrichment or as stepping-stones to higher office. Augustus was determined to improve imperial administration by making senators managers rather than politicians. He focused primarily on the talents of the individual senators, who became policy advisors, provincial governors, military commanders, and senior administrators. An advisory council of senators set the legislative **agenda** and made recommendations to the emperor. This system allowed him to work with many senators whom he might later select for high office.

Augustus worked to **reinvigorate** the senatorial order, whose membership had declined as a result of political **persecu-**

