

THREE STORIES BY LU HSÜN

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Lu Hsün



# THREE STORIES BY LU HSÜN

WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES BY P. KRATOCHVIL

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#### PREFACE

During the preparation of the notes a considerable number of published sources of relevant information had to be used. Beside the most current Chinese and Western dictionaries, reference books, and other manuals, it is particularly necessary to mention the brief but extremely precise annotation contained in Vols.1, 2, 5, and 6 of the most recent edition of 魯 迅 全 集 Lǔ Xùn quánjí 'Complete Works of Lu Hsün', 人民文學出版社 Rénmín wénxué chūbănshè, Peking 1956-1958), which was partly incorporated in the present notes. For notes on quotations (mainly in the story Cóng Băicăoyuán dào Sānwèi-shūwū) the existing translations of the given sources into English were consulted and these translations are mentioned in the given notes. Of the manuals used for commenting on the names of plants H. L. Li's excellent book The Garden Flowers of China, New York 1959, has to be specially pointed out. However, most of the information presented in the notes came from Mrs. Shu-hsiu Macdonald of the University of Leeds without whose help this reader would have been impossible to prepare: the three stories were selected according to her suggestions, and her great experience in the analysis of modern Chinese written style was of primary importance for formulating the accompanying notes. The editor is also grateful to Mr. Sherman Wu of the University of Cambridge for his helpful comments. Needless to say, the editor himself is solely responsible for any shortcomings of this reader.

P.K.

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INTRODUCTION



> The role played by 周 樹 人 Zhōu Shùrén (1881-1936), better known under his pen name 魯 迅 Lǔ Xùn (most commonly transcribed as Lu Hsun), in the early period of modern Chinese cultural life, and his influence on its subsequent development have become matters of considerable controversy. A writer closely involved in the confused political affairs of early Republican China, he has been acclaimed by some and ridiculed by others. Even at present, his name is anathema in Taipei and a sacred symbol of the first cultural revolution in Peking. Whatever the political case, the fact remains that Lu Hsun was the first modern writer to give a distinct expression to the vague desire of progressive Chinese intellectuals in the May 4th Movement period for a new literary medium, and that he is among the very few Chinese authors of his time whose writings are still widely read today. This survival is one of the undeniable symptoms of literary merit; and the influential nature of the writing is equally of primary importance for this reader, which is aimed at illuminating the trends in the development of modern Chinese written style. Lu Hsün's works form the first milestone on the short and uneven path of contemporary literary Chinese.

The only way in which the modern written style could succeed in China in the Twenties was by proving to be better in every respect than the hitherto almost exclusive tool of written communication known as wényán or Classical Chinese. The disadvantages of Classical Chinese in the situation of radical social and cultural changes enforced by the impact of the West were the sole factor in favour of the new medium. There was an obvious

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need to discard the old written style, whose complexity and rigidity, as well as its considerable lack of direct relationship with any existing form of speech, made it an obstacle to the increasing requirements of flexible communication. In all other respects, however, the firmly entrenched wényán possessed all the superior features of a highly perfected style which had behind it a continuous tradition of excellence during more than two millenia. It was thus also in the degree of sophistication, precision, and aesthetic quality that the emerging new style had to meet the challenge of its rival, if it hoped to achieve overall victory.

It would be misleading to give the impression that the advocates of the new written style called báihuà had to start from scratch. First of all, there had been in China a considerable tradition of non-wényán writing whose traces could be followed almost as far back as those of wényán itself: a high proportion of all literature aimed at the amusement of the literate, as well as much of the writing connected with the entertainment of the illiterate, had been conveyed in what for the lack of a better term is labelled Early báihuà. The problem was, however, that until the beginning of this century this had been the secondary written style. As such, it was, on the one hand, to a lesser or greater degree influenced by the primary wényán: if for no other reason, then because all its users had received some formal education of which wényán was the sole vehicle. On the other hand, it had always. mainly in the eyes of the respectable educated minority, carried the connotation of undesirable vulgarity. In view of this, its tradition could not be exploited by the new báihuà movement without great tact and caution. That this could not be done without a revaluation of the literary past is perhaps obvious. In a way, it was a problem of getting a folk singer to perform in a concert hall as well as on a street corner.

Another possibility which offered itself was to make use of one of the weakest features of wényán, which was the link between language and written style. Yet the new báihuà could not be, as a few of its more naive advocates proposed, conceived simply as

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> recorded speech. For one thing, there was no specific homogeneous form of speech which could be agreed upon as the unquestionable matrix. Apart from the limited semi-standard form of oral communication among imperial officials known as 官話 guanhuà (Mandarin), the all-Chinese norm of language itself was, and up to a point still is, a desire rather than a fact. But even more important was the set of requirements a written style was naturally expected to fulfil, and which a straightforward recording of speech could not meet. The point, very soon consciously or subconsciously realized by báihuà advocates, is that no generally accepted written style has ever existed which is in one-to-one correlation with any speech form. The technique of writing calls for the full or partial elimination of the numerous kinds of redundancy which are intrinsic components of language systems; a written style must compensate for language features which the given script is unable to convey; and the unique possibility of stopping and revising the activity (which in the case of speech is subject to the irreversible and steady flow of time) makes writing automatically a process different from speech, despite the basic dependence of the former on the latter. A written style is not expected to be like speech: beside great demands on the logic of its organization, it is also required to express much greater subtlety. sophistication, and elegance than any corresponding form of normal speech would need to possess. The reestablishment of a tangible link between language and written style thus was not in China, nor anywhere else in a similar situation, a question of merely recording speech, but an intricate problem of selecting, modifying, and combining suitable features of language within a system of a different-or if that viewpoint is preferred, higherorder. This was particularly acute in the Chinese situation, where the new written style had to compete with another already fully elaborated system of a higher order.

Apart from seeking support in past non-wényán traditions and the contemporary language, there was, of course, the possibility of a detached assessment of the positive values of wényán itself.

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That the old written style had outlived its usefulness as a whole was agreed upon by most progressive Chinese intellectuals; but this did not necessarily mean that everything in it would have to be rejected. Perhaps the high degree of verbal precision, terseness at all its levels, and the beauty of balanced patterning were felt to be especially difficult to part with: after all, these had become intimately involved with all aspects of Chinese culture, and they could not be deleted without giving up a large part of the cultural heritage. Although the most revolutionary-minded participants of the May 4th Movement and the following events were all for taking such a drastic step, a more sensible attitude soon prevailed. It was not, however, easily possible to estimate just what elements and how much of wényán could be made use of in the new style without bringing into it precisely those features which made wényán obsolete.

The last but certainly not the least important source of support and inspiration for the new written style was the Western model, which was exerting increasing influence on the thinking and activities of progressive Chinese intellectuals. As far as creative writing was concerned, the impact of Western literature caused the birth of Western-style fiction, specifically the short story in the early period of the May 4th Movement, and indirectly led to the acceptance and imitation of certain purely formal features of the model, including some aspects of European written styles (including the European-influenced modern Japanese written style). With the exception of borrowed or translated lexical items, and also the occasional crude application of European grammatical patterns which was made possible by the lack of any precise norm, the overall Western influence was less tangible than any of the factors mentioned earlier. It could be mainly operated with in terms of strong preference for a given feature of Chinese which was found the most suitable equivalent of a model feature of the particular European written style, or by extending a feature of Chinese to match the model. As well as in the preceding cases, the new báihuà was faced with a delicate task of making the right choice and

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finding the proper balance in this respect: it was imperative to find out just how far it was possible to exploit the positive values of the Western model without falling into the pit of stale and unacceptable imitation.

These then were the main possibilities open to the advocates of the new Chinese written style. Whether or not they could be exploited successfully was not, of course, just a matter of theoretical discussion. The situation called for literary experiments in which the delicate proportion between the individual elements could be looked for by trial and error, and it is perhaps in the role of the man who conducted the first important large-scale experiment in this sense that Lu Hsün emerges as the foremost pioneer of the báihuà movement. However, his by now classical first story 狂人日記 Kuángrén rììì 'The Diary of a Madman' which was published in 1918 on the eve of the May 4th Movement, and the subsequent stories later (in 1923) included within the collection 呐喊 Nàhǎn 'The Outcry', did not only represent one of the initial attempts to put the intentions of báihuà advocates into practice. They were not conceived as mere exercises in the new style but primarily as very serious pieces of writing: the new medium was simply chosen as the proper formal expression of the mood of anger of a militant disillusioned generation seeking to break its bonds. Lu Hsün's success as the spokesman of this generation and the accompanying triumph of his experiment with báihuà were two faces of the same coin; for the new written style itself it was an important impetus which decidedly helped to shift the balance in its favour.

Like all experiments of its kind, Lu Hsün's was a highly idiosyncratic one. Now that we look backwards on it, his style seems to be quite unlike that of any of the authors of his own and later generations. And yet, apart from the distinct signs of his strong personality, there is hardly anything in the later stages of literary báihuà that cannot be found in his writing. The proportions between the components may have shifted, and some of the elements may have even disappeared, but their basic pattern has

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changed surprisingly little since it was first coined. It is in this context that his contribution to modern Chinese written style has to be evaluated. Despite the many elements which were unsuccessful or not imitated, and which combine to mark Lu Hsün's style as standing distinctly apart from both his contemporaries and later writers, it was the success of his bold experiment as a whole which matters most: the success which made it possible for others to follow, develop, and also reject.

The three pieces of writing presented in this reader were chosen with the main intention of demonstrating how Lu Hsün's own style developed over a period of fourteen years. Fengbo, first published in 1920 in the journal 新青年 Xīn qīngnián, and in 1923 included in the collection Nàhan, is a short satirical story reflecting how the brief restoration of the imperial throne in 1917 actually affected the life of simple folk in a small village in Central China. Cóng Băicăoyuán dào Sānwèi-shūwū, written in 1926 (first published in 1926 in the bimonthly 莽 原 Mǎngyuán, and two years later included in the collection 朝華 夕 拾 Zhāo huá xī shí 'Morning Flowers Gathered in the Evening'), belongs among the numerous reminiscent essays which Lu Hsün wrote at different times of his life. It tells of his lonely childhood and the first experience of a traditional elementary school. Aiin is one of the very few stories written by Lu Hsün during the last three years of his life, which were dedicated mainly to journalistic polemics and translations. He submitted it for publication in the journal 漫畫生活 Mànhuà shēnghuó in 1934 but it was not passed by the censor. Lu Hsün happened to retrieve the manuscript with the objectionable passages marked, and when he finally had the story printed in the journal 海 燕 月 刊 Hǎiyàn yuèkān in 1936, he kept these passages underlined. The text reproduced in this reader follows his irony faithfully: the censor's marks provide an interesting glimpse of the turbulent atmosphere of the Thirties in China's cultural and political life. The story was later included in one of Lu Hsün's last collections of essays

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且介亭雜文 Qiějiètíng záwén 'Essays Written in a Semi-Concession', and the circumstances of its publication were described by him in 附記 Fùjì 'Additional Note' supplemented to the collection. The text of all the three stories in this reader is reproduced from the third edition of 智迅全集 Lǚ Xùn quánjí (Shanghai 1948).

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NOTES



This reader is meant mainly for students of Chinese with some experience in reading modern Chinese texts: that is students who are able to read without great difficulty (even if this involves occasional reference to a dictionary) most literary texts written in báihuà roughly after 1919. The notes accompanying the three stories do not, therefore, either provide the kind of information on the lexical and grammatical features of written style which a student of Chinese is expected to acquire during the basic language course or give comment on items which are well and exhaustively covered in accessible Chinese—English dictionaries. Thus only the following two kinds of items are annotated:

- a) difficult expressions or constructions on which insufficient information or none at all can be found in accessible Chinese—English dictionaries, and
- b) expressions or constructions which, although relatively common, are used in the given text in an unusual manner not commented upon in accessible Chinese—English dictionaries.

Beside such items characterized by difficulty or unusual usage, the occurrence of any expression or construction which was considered of particular interest from the stylistic viewpoint is noted. The purpose of notes of this kind is to point out that some significant choice was made by the author, and to attempt to explain his motive in doing so.

Finally, notes presenting data on the author or various relevant aspects of Chinese history and culture are given when necessary. These notes are mainly aimed at providing quick background

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> information which could be more or less easily found elsewhere, but only at the cost of unnecessary distraction from appreciating the given text as a piece of literary writing.

The notes are arranged in the order in which the given items appear in the text. The place in the text is indicated by two numbers separated by a comma, the first of which refers to the given page and the second to the given line within it.

The notes consist of the following parts:

## 1. TRANSCRIPTION OF THE GIVEN ITEM IN PINYIN. 1

The transcription follows the rules reflected in 汉语拼音词汇Hànyǔ pīnyīn cíhuì, Peking 1964. In the case of discontinuous items, their components are separated from each other by three dots. When the components of discontinuous items are separated by two or more elements whose mutual position is of relevance, these separating elements are represented by different capital letters (both in the transcription and the following translation). Items which constitute part of closely-knit constructions are supplemented by three dots (both in transcription and translation) indicating the position of the remaining part of the construction. In cases where doubt might arise as to which item in the text the transcription refers to, characters are given before the transcription.

#### 2. TRANSLATION

In quotes there is a translation which consists either of a single English equivalent or two or more equivalents divided from each other by semicolons. The single English equivalent or the first of the other alternatives is as close to the Chinese original in meaning and stylistic level as possible. The remaining alternatives are loose

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All Chinese expressions in this reader are transcribed in Pinyin with the exception of some proper names and similar items presented in the form in which they commonly appear in English publications. The latter are recognizable by their lack of tone diacritics.



> equivalents of an explanatory nature. English equivalents sometimes include words in square brackets: either these are expressions which are not represented, in the strict sense, in the Chinese original, although they are required by its English equivalent for grammatical reasons, or vice versa; alternatively they may reflect some kind of limitation in equivalence. In the case of discontinuous Chinese expressions, the translation follows the pattern indicated in the transcription. Since the translations are meant to refer to the given text only, meaning or usage of a given item not relevant to the text is not given. When the particular expression or construction is used in a distinctly unusual manner, this is explicitly commented upon further in the following explanation. In some cases a translation cannot be given for various reasons, such as in the obvious case of proper names, or when no acceptable English equivalent could be found. With the exception of proper names, a translation is then substituted by an explanation further in the note.

#### 3. LABEL OF STYLISTIC LEVEL

This label in the form of a capital letter roughly places the given expression within the frame of the following categories:

i. Modern Chinese (marked M) representing the part of modern Chinese written style which reflects Modern Standard Chinese (i.e. the standard form of oral communication in modern China based on the polite variant of Peking Dialect). Any item which may occur in the given meaning in normal unaffected speech or normal writing (i.e. the kind of communication which is not deliberately archaic or directed towards a specialized aim, such as in composing classicist poetry, writing technical documents, in learned prose, etc.) of an educated northerner is placed within this category. This is considered as the basic category of modern written style: an item which reflects a feature of Modern Standard Chinese as well as a feature of, say, Classical Chinese, is said to belong to this rather than to the category of Classical Chinese.

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- ii. Modern Non-literary Chinese (marked MN) covering items directly reflecting elements of speech on which Modern Standard Chinese is based but which are not usually considered as belonging to Modern Standard Chinese. Expressions of strong abuse are a typical example.
- iii. Old Chinese (marked O) representing items which do not reflect Modern Standard Chinese but which directly reflected some form of speech in the relatively recent past. Most of these items are distinctly associated with the style of pre-twentieth century popular literature not written in Classical Chinese (i.e. Early báihuà).
- iv. Classical Chinese (marked C) comprising items which do not reflect any form of speech at present or in relatively recent past, and which are distinctly associated with the formal literary style broadly known as wényán.
- v. Dialectal Chinese (marked D) including items which reflect forms of speech other than those on which Modern Standard Chinese is based. These items are not commonly used and sometimes not even understood by educated speakers of Peking Dialect. It is important to point out in this connection that Lu Hsün was born and spent his childhood in the area where the so-called Wú Dialects are spoken, and that he stayed for long periods in different parts of China during his lifetime. When possible, the given item of Dialectal Chinese is more closely identified.
- vi. Alien Loans (marked A) covering loan words and loan translations mainly from European languages of relatively recent date which have not yet lost the connotation of their non-Chinese origin to speakers of Modern Standard Chinese.

Beside the stylistic labels listed above, two further labels are used for phrases which, although they belong to the level of Modern Chinese, are more distinctly characterized by their special lexical status:

vii. Idioms (marked Id) represented by phrases of varied size, usually of Classical or Old origin, which have become established as single lexical items in Modern Chinese.

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viii. Patterned Idioms (marked Pat), a subcategory of Idioms comprising items characterized by a distinct pattern of structure. The four-morpheme parallel type of the so-called 成語 chéngyǔ are a typical example.

A small number of items calling for annotation could not be clearly placed within these categories because of their special nature. An explanation rather than a label is used for their description in most cases with the exception of the two following groups:

- ix. Proper Names (marked PN) comprising the names of specific persons or places, actual or imaginary.
- x. Technical Terms (marked  $T\bar{T}$ ) representing items distinctly associated with objects, professions, institutions, or classifications of a specialized nature, which are not commonly used, and sometimes not even understood by speakers of Modern Standard Chinese who are not acquainted with the given specialized frame of reference. In many cases such items (e.g. of botanical and zoological nomenclature) have correlates in Modern Chinese.

#### 4. EXPLANATION

A brief statement presented either when a translation or label of stylistic level or both cannot be given, or when they do not provide sufficient information on the given item.

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#### FĒNGBŌ

- 1, 1 fēngbō 'an [unexpected and unfortunate social] incident [of limited importance]', M. In the existing English translations of this story, translated as 'Storm in a Teacup' (Selected Works of Lu Hsün, Vol.1, Peking 1956), 'Cloud over Luchen' (Ah Q and Others, Selected Stories of Lusin, New York 1941), 'The Waves of the Wind' (Contemporary Chinese Short Stories, translated by Yuan Chia-hua and Robert Payne, London 1946), etc.
- 1, 2 *tǔchǎng* 'threshing floor', *M.* A piece of ground pounded flat and used for threshing in harvest time, and also for social gatherings.
  - jiànjiàndi 'gradually', M. The use of the character 的 instead of the now normative 地 in adverbial modifiers was common in early modern writing.
  - shōu 'to withdraw; to stop issuing', M.
  - tōnghuáng 'bright yellow'. An unusual expression presumably modelled on 道紅 tōnghóng 'bright red', M.
  - gānbābādi '[being] parched', M. Used as an adverbial modifier. On 的 see jiànjiàndi above.
- 1,3 huājiǎo wénz 'spotted-leg mosquito', M. A popular term for a kind of large hard-stinging mosquito. miàn hé 'to be facing the river'. M.

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- 1, 3 chuīyān 'smoke [from cooking]', M.
- 1, 4  $p\bar{o} \dots shu\check{i}$  'to sprinkle \dots water [so as to prevent dust from rising]', M.
- 1, 6  $d\check{u}$ ... 'to compete in ...', D.
- 1,7 wán shízť '[to play] five-stones', M.

  zhēng gāncài 'steamed dry vegetable', M.

  sōnghuāhuáng 'cream-coloured', M.

  rèpéngpéng '[being] piping hot', M. Used as an

  adverbial modifier, similar to gānbābādi, 1,2.
  - màoyan 'to emit steam', D. In Modern Standard Chinese it means 'to emit smoke'.
  - jiùchuán 'pleasure boat', M. A privately hired large boat provided with food and drink by its owner if required.
- 1,8 dà fā shīxìng 'to go all lyrical; to become greatly poetically elated', M. wúsī-wúlū 'to be free from care and worry', Pat.
  - tiánjiā lè 'the joy of rustic life; the happiness of being a peasant', C.
  - a '[sentence particle of exclamation]', M. A graphic variant of the now normative | | | | |.
- 1,9 Jiŭjin lǎotài 'old Mrs Nine-pounds', PN. For the origin of this and similar names in the story see p.2, 8 ff. of the text.
- 2, 2 bàijiāxiāng 'signs of the family's going to the dogs', M.
- 2, 3 chảo dòuz 'roasted beans', M. These are eaten between meals (e.g. with drinks). Cf. the connotation of children eating sweets between meals in the West.
  - chīqióng yì jiāz 'to drive the whole family to poverty by indulgence in food', M.
- 2,4 伊 yī 'she'. Lu Hsün attempted unsuccessfully to introduce this form (borrowed from C and D) into modern báihuà in the period 1920—1922.

  Later he yielded to the general trend of using the innovation 地 tā 'she'. The introduction

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	of pronouns distinguishing sex in modern
	writing (gender is not a grammatical category in
	Modern Standard Chinese) was probably partly
	caused by the needs of translation from foreign
	languages.
2, 5	shuāngyājiǎo 'pigtails', M. Short and stiff upward-
	pointing pigtails above the ears, worn by young girls.
	låobùsid 'old pain-in-the-neck', MN. Expression of
	abuse for old people whose behaviour is felt to
	be a nuisance.
2, 7	yí dài bùrú yí dài 'each generation is worse than the
	one before', M.
2, 9	bùpingjiā 'complainist; specialist in grumbling'. Lu
	Hsün's innovation parodying the contemporary
	fashion among semi-intellectuals of coining new
	words (usually to denote their own profession or
	status) by making use of the suffix -jiā '-ist'.
2, 10	hékuàng 'what's more,; [the preceding
	being true,] it is even more true of, $M$ .
2, 11	diānpū bú pò de shílì 'irrefutable example', M.
2, 13	fànlán 'a basket [-like tray for carrying] rice
	[bowls]', D.
3, 1	sichèng 'a [non-standard] underhand steelyard', M.
	A steelyard commonly used by the less honest
	tradesmen or landlords which showed less (in
	buying) or more (in selling) than it should.
	jiāzhòng chēng 'to show less than the [actual]
	weight; to add heaviness to the weighed thing
	[without indicating it]', M. Of a steelyard, see
	sīchèng, 3, 1.

shí bā liàng chèng 'an eighteen-ounces [-per-pound]

zhun shi liù 'an accurate sixteen-ounces [per-pound

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steelyard', M.

steelyard]', M.

3, 1-2

3, 2

3, 3	shí sì liăng 'a fourteen-ounces[-per-pound steelyard]'
	М.
3, 5	yile fāngxiàng 'to have changed the direction [of one's attack]', M.
3,5-6	sǐshī, D. Expression of abuse (otherwise meaning
5,5-0	'corpse'), usually for people who are considered
	slow or clumsy.
3, 6	sǐ dào năli qùle 'where the hell have [you] been',
-,-	MN. The inserted form si constitutes abusive
	phrases in MN (cf. bloody in English).
3, 7	youxie feihuang-tengda de yisi 'to have somewhat
σ, ,	lofty aims', M. Feihuáng-téngdá 'to rise rapidly
	and high in one's career', Id, usually refers to the
	career of officials.
3, 8	zhàolt 'as[his] ancestors did; according to custom
3,0	or precedent', M.
	Luzhèn, PN. The name of a fictitious township
	which appears in several early stories by Lu Hsün
	(e.g. in 孔乙己 Kǒng Yǐjǐ and 明天
	Mingtian both of which are in the collection
	Nàhan). It is obviously located in the area of Lu
	Hsün's youth, i.e. near 紹奥 Shàoxīng in
	Chekiang Province.
3,9	léigong pīsīle wúgongjīng 'the god of thunder struck
3, )	a centipede spirit dead', O. These are current
	items of traditional popular gossip concerning
	supernatural phenomena.
	guīnü 'an [unmarried] girl', D.
	y = h a h (demon', O. An item of the same category as
	léigōng, 3, 9, etc.
3, 10	chūchang rénwu 'public figure', M.
-	bù dian deng 'not to light the lamp', M. Not lighting
	the lamp unless absolutely necessary is referred
	to here as a sign of peasant thrift.

liù chỉ duō cháng de . . . yānguǎn 'a pipe . . . over

3, 12

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six feet long', M. The length of the pipe is obviously exaggerated: pipes of this kind are not usually longer than one foot, although the very rich used somewhat longer ones as symbols of affluence (one needed a servant to light such an outsize pipe).

- 4, 2 zuòle lóngtíng 'to have ascended the [imperial] throne', O. This refers to the brief restoration of the imperial throne in Peking by 溥 儀 Pǔ Yí in the first two weeks of July 1917.
- 4,3 dào 'to say', O. The use of this word for introducing direct speech was limited to the early period of modern writing (it was borrowed from Early báihuà), it was gradually substituted by shuō.
  - huáng ēn dàshè '[there is] a general amnesty by the grace of the Emperor', C. An expression in the style of old official documents.
- 4,8 Xián-hēng jiùdiàn 'All-Embracing Prosperity Wineshop', PN. The name of this establishment is used in several stories by Lu Hsün in connection with the township of Lùzhèn (see note to Lùzhèn, 3,8).
- 4, 9-10 xiāoxi língtōng de suŏzài 'a place teeming with news', M.
  - 4,10 guài tā hèn tā yuàn tā 'blaming him, hating him, and bearing a grudge against him', M. Cumulation of several structurally identical forms sharing a common element is a traditional stylistic device used for purposes of emphasis mainly in classical poetry. Cf. 管竹管山管水 guǎn zhú guǎn shān guǎn shuǐ '[I still] care for bamboo, mountains, and streams' in the poem 西江月Xī jiāng yuè by the Sung poet 辛莱疾 Xīn Qìjí.

4, 12 zuìmò 'the last', O.

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- 5,1 tǔchū hànlì 'beads of perspiration oozed out'. An unusual expression, probably an emphatic extension of 出 行 chūhàn 'to perspire', M. tútūdi '[onomatopoeic word for the sound of heart beat]', M.
- 5, 2 tòuguo A kànjian B 'to see B through A', M.
- 5, 4 Mào-yuán jiǔdiàn 'Rich Source Wineshop', PN.
- 5, 4-5 xuéwenjiā 'know-all; specialist in matters of learning'. An innovation constructed in the same way as bùpíngjiā (see note to bùpíngjiā, 2, 9).
  - 5,5 yslaod chòuwèi 'an odour of antiquity', M. Chòuwèi means '[good or bad] odour' in C, but 'bad odour' only in M. The marker -d places the construction (which would be C without it) in M, and contributes to its subtle double meaning.
    - Jīn Shèngtàn, PN. A late Ming and early Ch'ing (1609–1661) scholar who edited several popular novels, modifying them rather drastically and providing them with impressionistic commentaries.
    - Sān Guó zhì 'Annals of the Three Kingdoms', PN.

      This refers to the Ch'ing edition of 三國演義
      Sān Guó yǎnyì 'Romance of the Three Kingdoms' falsely attributed to Jīn Shèngtàn (see above) by its actual editor毛景崗 Máo Zōnggăng.
  - 5,6 Wǔ hǔjiàng 'The Five Bold Generals', PN. The five generals of 蜀 漢 Shu Han, one of the Three Kingdoms, whose exploits are described in Sān Guó yǎnyì.
    - shèn'ér zhìyú... 'to go so far as to...', M. Huáng Zhōng, PN. The eldest of the Five Bold Generals (see note to Wù hǔjiàng, 5, 6).
    - Mà Chảo, PN. The youngest of the Five Bold Generals (see note to Wù hùjiàng, 5, 6).

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5, 7	Zhào Zilóng, PN. The fiercest of the Five Bold
5, 8-9	Generals (see note to Wù hǔjiàng, 5, 6).  guānghuá tóupí, wūhēi fàdǐng '[to have] smooth
	skin on the [fore]head and black crown', M.  A description of the traditional Manchu hair-
	style of men which was abandoned after the
	1911 Revolution: the front of the head along
	an imaginary line on the level of the ears was
	shaved, and the hair on the crown and the back
	of the head was gathered into a queue.
5, 13	jiàntāi 'trash', D. An expression of personal abuse.
6, 2	yílù zŏulai '[along] the whole way [as he] passed
	through', M.
( )	diăn 'to touch lightly', M. yòng fàn 'to take a meal', D.
6, 3	qing qing 'please [carry on]', M. Phrase expressing
	polite refusal.
	yíjìng 'straight', M.
	Qijinmen 'the Seven-pound family', M. The suffix
	-men added to the name of a person indicates a
	group of people associated with that person.
6, 9	Chángmáo 'the Long-haired ones', O. An old popular
	term for Taiping rebels. The Taipings did not
	shave the front of their heads and did not tie
6, 9–10	their hair into queues.
0, 9–10	liú fà bùliú tóu, liú tóu bùliú fà 'to keep [one's] hair [means] to lose [one's] head, to keep
	[one's] head [one must] get rid of [one's]
	hair', O. An old popular saying referring to
	executions of suspect Taipings identified by
	their unshaved fronts.
6, 11	gŭdiănd àomiào 'ancient allusion', M.
6, 12	wúkě wănhuí 'to be irrevocable', Id.
7, 1-2	xiànzàid Chángmáo 'the present-day Long-haired
	ones'. The expression Chángmáo (see note to
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	Changmao, 6, 9) is used here to refer to the participants of the 1911 Revolution during
	which the Manchu hairstyle was abolished.
7.3	
7, 2	sēng-bù-sēng, dào-bú-dào de 'to be neither like a
	Buddhist [priest] nor like a Taoist [priest]'.
	$A - b\dot{u} - A$ , $B - b\dot{u} - B$ de 'to be neither like A nor
	like B', M, is productive in constructing idiom-
	like phrases. Buddhist priests shave their heads,
	while Taoist priests let their hair grow long: the
	Western hairstyle is like neither.
7, 3	zhěngpť 'a whole roll', M. Pť 'roll', M, is a non-
	standard measure of cloth length, also written 正.
	tuōxiaqu 'to hang down', D.
	wángye 'prince', M. This refers to one of the
	leaders of the Taipings who held the title 王
	wáng 'Prince'.
7, 7	gāi dàng hé zuì 'what crime this must be con-
	sidered as [and what punishment corresponds
	to it]', O.
	tiáo 'article [of a legal document]', M.
7,9	hèn dào 'to [turn one's] hatred towards', M.
7, 10	zhi de bijiān 'to point at the tip of 's nose', M.
.,	This is considered as a very impolite gesture.
7, 11	gǔnjìn chéng 'to roll off to town', MN. The form
,,,,,	gun in conjunction with verbal expressions indi-
	cating personal movements constitutes abusive
	phrases (cf. sǐ in sǐ dào năli qùle, 3, 6).
	juànguāng-wūhēi 'to be shiny and black', Pat.
7, 12	qiútú 'criminal; convict', MN. Used here as an
	expression of personal abuse.
	dàilèile women you zenme shuo ne '[but] why
	does he [have to] get us involved [as well]', M.
	The phrase you zenme shuo ne 'what do you say
	to that', M, is used in statements commenting
	to that , m, is used in statements commenting

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	upon actions obviously directed against the
	speaker's advice, interest, etc.
7, 12	huôsishi, D. Expression of abuse (otherwise meaning 'living corpse'), also see sishi, 3, 5-6.
8, 2	shuō xiànchénghuà 'to express opinion after the
	matter is resolved', M.
8, 4	kànkè 'onlooker', O.
8, 8	zhuănguo xiàng lai 'to change the direction [of attack]', M. Resultative form of zhuănxiàng 'to change the direction', M. Cf. yîle fangxiàng, 3, 5.
8, 9	wǒ zìjǐ kànlai dào háishi yìge rén 'I do consider myself a rather [reasonable] person', M.
	hūndàn hútu huà 'ridiculous and stupid words', M.
8, 10	xiǎogui 'little devil', MN. Term of mild abuse or endearment for children.
8, 11	<i>méihaoqì</i> 'to be in a bad mood', MN.
8, 12	touhan de xião guăfu, MN. An expression of strong personal abuse (otherwise meaning
	'promiscuous young widow') for young
	women, usually used only by women.
0.1	quēkŏu 'hole', M.
9, 1	rùniángd, MN. A strong curse used as an isolated
	comment in an annoying situation.
0.2	hèn bàng đã rén, 'to pour out one's anger on an
9, 3	innocent person; [to vent one's] hatred [to-
	wards] a stick [by] beating someone [with it]',
	D.
9,5	dàbing 'the [imperial] troops', O.
9, 6	bǎojià 'to protect the Emperor', O.
2,0	Zhāng dàshuài 'Commander-in-Chief Zhāng', PN.  This refers to 張 勳 Zhāng Xūn, the warlord of the Peiyang clique who engineered the restoration of the imperial throne in 1917 (see note to zuòle lóngtíng, 4, 2).
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