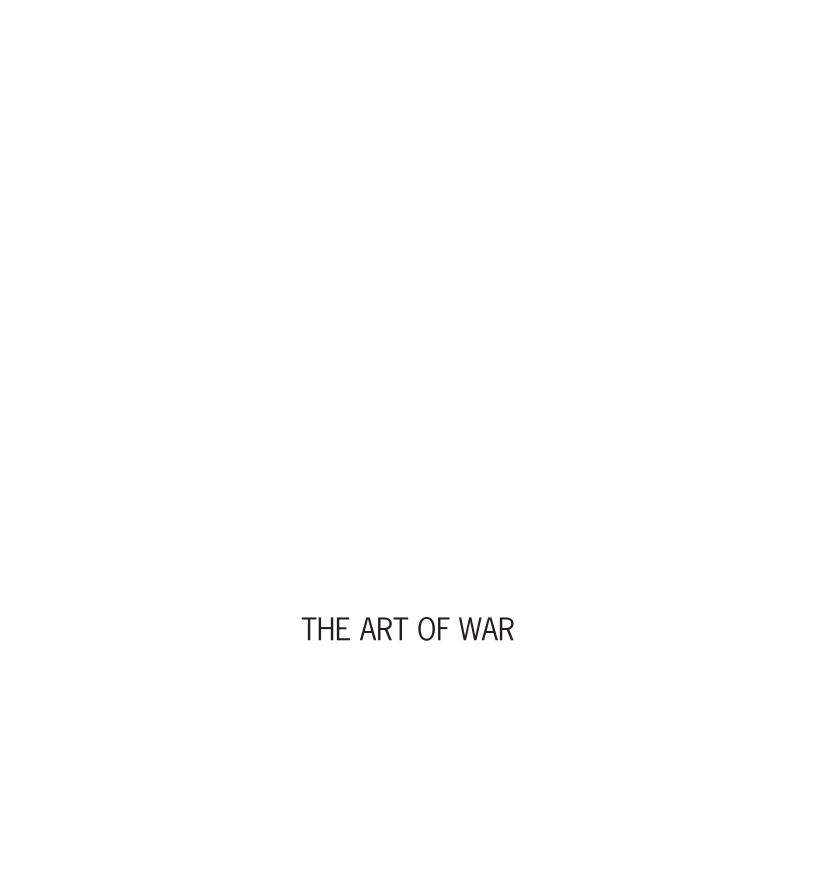


# THE ART OF WAR

C. C. TSAI

FOREWORD BY

LAWRENCE FREEDMAN
AUTHOR OF STRATEGY: A HISTORY



#### THE ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF CHINESE CLASSICS

The Illustrated Library of Chinese Classics brings together a series of immensely appealing and popular graphic narratives about traditional Asian philosophy and literature, all written and illustrated by C. C. Tsai, one of East Asia's most beloved cartoonists. Playful, humorous, and genuinely illuminating, these unique adaptations offer ideal introductions to the most influential writers, works, and schools of ancient Chinese thought.



# Sunzi THE ART OF WAR

Adapted and illustrated by

C. C. Tsai

Translated by Brian Bruya

Foreword by Lawrence Freedman

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### **Foreword**

#### LAWRENCE FREEDMAN

Sunzi's *The Art of War* is one of the great works of strategy. It represents a coherent approach to all forms of conflict, and the underlying principles are of wide application. Although the focus is on war, and military considerations are to the fore, political and economic considerations are always kept in view. It was addressed to commanders fighting wars in China some 2,400 years ago, yet the advice still appears relevant to anyone caught up in a conflict and seeking to come out on top. This is why Sunzi is now read as much in political and business as in military circles. *The Art of War* also has the advantage of being relatively short. Some of the allusions may seem obscure, but C. C. Tsai's vivid cartoons help explain their meaning as well as bring to life Sunzi's key themes.

Was Sunzi (Master Sun), this wise and successful general, a real person? The consensus view now is that he was, and that he was active around 550 BCE to 500 BCE. This is known as China's Spring & Autumn Period, a time of regular and vicious wars between rival states, when alliances and enmities were fluid. He was said to have served King Helü of Wu who fought regular battles with the neighboring state of Chu, and helped him prevail in a number of battles, including the decisive battle of Boju (506 BCE), although he is not actually mentioned in any of the more authoritative histories. The thirteen sections of the book were put together in the following Warring States Period (481 BCE to 403 BCE), when it acquired its reputation as an essential text for military practitioners. In CE 1080, Emperor Shenzong of Song identified *The Art of War* as the most important of seven classic military texts. This is therefore a book that

has helped shape the broad thrust of Chinese strategic thought through the centuries.

It is obviously a challenge for a Western reader to get close to the original meaning and to pick up on all the subtleties. No translation of an ancient script can be straightforward, and there are disagreements about how some words and phrases should be understood. In addition, the book emerged out of a particular spiritual and intellectual context. Greater insights can be expected with more intense study of the origins of the text and the significance of individual words. Yet *The Art of War* has a timeless appeal, speaking to contemporary concerns. Even when it has been taken out of context it can still be read with profit, reminding us of some of the constants of human behavior as well as the changes. As with other great works from centuries ago, it can accommodate a number of interpretations and prompt thoughts relevant to a contemporary reader's immediate concerns.

The distinctive quality of *The Art of War* is that it offers a pure form of strategy with many potential applications. It is holistic in the range of factors it can take into account, expedient in responding to new developments, and yet also conducted with a clear framework of priorities and principles. Unlike in much Western writing on the topic, strategy does not appear as a fixed plan, set at the start of a campaign and pursued regardless of changing circumstances. When addressing issues of war, it does not consider political, economic, military, and geographical factors as separate strands. Instead, the stress is on their interaction in a dynamic setting. There is no suggestion,

for example, that victory should come at any price. When costs are disregarded in pursuit of short-term advantages, a whole campaign might come to a grinding halt because the funds have run out. Close attention is also paid to alliances. Perhaps an army is strong enough to take on all comers, but its task becomes much easier if its coalition is extended or if the enemy loses its partners.

This approach opens up possibilities that are missed by the single-minded focus on battle that is a feature of so much Western strategic thought. Sunzi understands that battles use up strength and carry risks. He would far rather get the enemy into a hopeless position when it has little choice but to surrender or accept slaughter. Deception therefore plays a prominent role in his schema. Much of his advice comes down to doing the opposite of what the enemy is expecting: retreat when he is preparing for an advance, advance when he expects retreat. look strong when he thinks you are weak and weak when he fears you are strong, and so on. Sunzi wants to play on character flaws as much as unwise dispositions. A commander who is prone to anger, for example, should be taunted into rash decisions. To make deception work, it is vital to know as much as possible about the enemy's strengths and weaknesses. Espionage is therefore an important part of this approach, and Sunzi is not too fussy about how vital information is obtained.

At the heart of Sunzi's approach is intellectual preparation. The Art of War stresses the possibilities of outsmarting in preference to just out-fighting the opponent. It puts a premium on a dispassionate assessment of the risks and possibilities of alternative courses of action, and then acting with confidence once that assessment has been made.

This was the feature that attracted Basil Liddell Hart, who can be credited with being the first Western strategist to incorporate Sunzi into his own thinking.<sup>2</sup> He contrasted *The Art* 

of War with Carl von Clausewitz's On War, as he blamed the latter, or at least its more rigid followers, for the persistent, deadly frontal assaults of the First World War. When introduced to Sunzi in 1927 he appreciated the distaste for protracted war and the urge to adopt strategies based more on indirect maneuvers rather than direct confrontations.<sup>3</sup> The reputation of *The Art of War* was enhanced because it was known to have been embraced by Mao Zedong in China and Ho Chi Minh in North Vietnam. Both achieved victories despite the initial weaknesses in their positions. Later, not only was the book seen as providing valuable clues to Eastern military thinking but also as an explanation for the competitiveness of Asian businesses.<sup>4</sup>

The Art of War is not without flaws. One of the reasons it has proved to be so durable is that the advice is offered at a high, aspirational level, with very little on what is necessary to make it work. Victory is promised if the right steps are followed properly, but this raises the obvious problem of what happens if the enemy commander is following the exact same steps. When both are disciples of Sunzi, the result could be inconclusive encounters and an impasse. The emphasis on the indirect and implicit at the expense of the direct and explicit could lead to both sides dodging each other rather than risking all-out battle.<sup>5</sup> Although Sunzi's first priority is to finish a war quickly. there is no guarantee that his strategic approach will avoid protracted war. The focus is also on the offensive rather than the defensive. It is about taking the initiative rather than responding to another's aggression. "If you cannot win, do not go to war." But sometimes there is no choice.

Lastly, it is amoral, celebrating ruthlessness as well as cunning. This perhaps explains why Sunzi has become associated with villains in Western fiction (such as Gordon Gekko and Tony

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  See Derek M. C. Yuen, Deciphering Sun Tzu: How to Read the Art of War (London: Hurst & Co, 2014).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A Jesuit Father Joseph Amiot published a loose translation in French in 1782. Napoleon might have read it, but there is no indication that it had any major influence on his strategic outlook.

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  See his foreword to Sun Tzu, *The Art of War*, translated and with an introduction by Samuel B. Griffith (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1963).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> I discuss the non-military appeal of Sunzi in Lawrence Freedman, *Strategy: A History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2013), 508–10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> François Jullien, *Detour and Access*; *Strategies of Meaning in China and Greece*, translated by Sophie Hawkes (New York: Zone Books, 2004), 35, 49–50.

Soprano). Even when he points to the importance of providing a cause worth fighting for and sustaining morale, the suspicion remains that Sunzi would be satisfied with what works. Any work on strategy highlights choices, and these must be assessed by reference to values as well as effectiveness. As an approach to any conflict, one that avoids lengthy, costly struggles and painful battles by acquiring the best information and analyzing it coolly has much to commend it.

## Introduction

#### BRIAN BRUYA

#### I. THE BATTLE OF THE HUNDRED SCHOOLS

The Imperial Period in China began in 221 BCE, when the First Emperor, hailing from the far western state of Qin, completed his conquest of China. From that time until 1911, there were six subsequent major dynasties: the Han, Tang, Song, Yuan, Ming, and Qing. But what about before the Qin? For 789 years, from 1045 to 256 BCE (much longer than any subsequent dynasty), a single lineage held the throne as Son of Heaven, ruler of China. This dynasty's name is Zhou (pronounced *joe*—see the Pronunciation Index in the back of the book for how to pronounce other Chinese names and terms). The period of the Zhou that concerns us is the second half, when traditional order had broken down.

The traditional order was unique among world civilizations. The Zhou Dynasty begins with the victors over the preceding Shang Dynasty fanning out across the country, taking control of key cities and towns—over 150 in total. We can think of each of these newly formed states as a fief, loyal to the Zhou king. Each enfeoffed ruler had local control but served at the pleasure of the king: visiting the king regularly to renew bonds of fealty, sending tribute to the king, and doing the king's bidding when necessary. Each fief was handed down to the ruler's eldest son. In the beginning, these fiefs were close, either in terms of familial relationships or in terms of military loyalty, and the relationship between king and vassal was viewed as like that between father and son. Over time, however, disputes arose, loyalties frayed, and battles occurred. 250 years in, and ties were stretched to the breaking point.

A traditional story (perhaps apocryphal) is often used to illustrate a key turning point in the dynasty. In 773 BCE, the king had just divorced his primary wife and replaced her with his favorite, who was difficult to please. In order to entertain her, the king arranged for a large feast on the outskirts of the capital, and at nightfall he had the warning beacons on the city wall lit. The beacons went up in flame one after another in a spectacular display that reached to the horizon, and after several hours, troops from neighboring states arrived breathless at the capital to bring aid to the king, whom they thought was in grave danger from invasion. The spectacle delighted the queen, but of course the generals and soldiers who had rushed to help were not amused. This happened more than once.

Not long after, the state of Shen, which nursed a grudge against the king, allied with the Quan Rong tribe and attacked the Zhou capital. When the Zhou warning beacons were lit, the neighboring states ignored them. The capital was laid waste, and the king was killed. The Zhou lineage was allowed to continue, but it was forced to move its capital east, its area of direct control was reduced, and it lost the fealty of the major vassals. From that point on, the various states quickly realized it was every state for itself. For the next five and a half centuries the states gradually swallowed each other up until only seven major states remained at the end of the Spring & Autumn Period (770–481 BCE). As armies increased in size during the Warring States Period (481–221 BCE), the disruption of warfare increased as well. The battle for ultimate supremacy continued until Qin was the last state standing.

In this battle for ultimate supremacy it would no longer do for a ruler to simply rely on his circle of close nobility to act as generals and ministers. Every ruler needed the most capable people around. And so an intellectual ferment began. Not only did rulers look beyond the nobility for brains and talent but people of brains and talent began to promote their own views about how best to govern—theories that blossomed to include all kinds of associated philosophical concerns. Over time, similar lines of thinking coalesced into a variety of schools of thought, such as Confucianism, Mohism, Legalism, Daoism, and so on. The Chinese refer to it as the period of the contending voices of a hundred schools of thought.

The first major Confucian text was the Analects of Confucius, a handbook for creating a flourishing society through cultural education and strong moral leadership. Mencius, a student of Confucius' grandson, Zisi, was the second major Confucian thinker. His influential book, The Mencius, uses memorable analogies and thought experiments (such as the child on the edge of a well) to drive home subtle points about the goodness of human nature and effective governing. Two short pieces that were important to the revival of Confucianism in the Song Dynasty were also products of this time. They are Advanced Education (Da Xue) and The Middle Path (Zhong Yong). traditionally attributed to Confucius' student Zengzi and to Zisi, respectively. Advanced Education offers a pithy formula for the self-development of caring, world-class leaders, while The Middle Path discusses how to achieve balance both internally and externally.

While the Confucians concentrated on creating moral leaders, others, known to us now as Daoists, preferred to concentrate on becoming as close as possible to the natural way of things. The major Daoist texts from this period are the *Zhuangzi* and Laozi's *Daodejing*. The *Zhuangzi* is one of the great works of world literature, simultaneously a profound philosophical study of metaphysics, language, epistemology, and ethics. It's also loads of fun to read for its colorful characters and paradoxical stories. Laozi's *Daodejing* echoes many themes of the *Zhuangzi*, with an emphasis on the sage as leader, non-action, and emptying the mind. Its poetic language and spare style

stand it in stark contrast to the *Zhuangzi* but also allow for a richness of interpretation that has made it a favorite of contemplative thinkers across traditions. A third Daoist from this time period, Liezi, had his name placed on a book a few centuries later. The *Liezi* adopts the style and themes of the *Zhuangzi* and continues the whimsical yet profound tradition.

Other thinkers concentrated on ruthless efficiency in government and came to be known as Legalists. One major Legalist thinker was Han Feizi. His book, the *Han Feizi*, condemns ideas from other schools of thought that had devolved into practices that were considered wasteful, corrupt, and inefficient. In response, he speaks directly to the highest levels of leadership, using Daoist terminology and fable-like stories to make his points, advising rulers on how to motivate people, how to organize the government and the military, and how to protect their own positions of power.

Still other thinkers concentrated their theories on military strategy and tactics. The major representative of this genre is, of course, Sunzi, and his classic *The Art of War*, a text that so profoundly and succinctly examines how to get the greatest competitive advantage with the least harm done that it is still read today by military leaders and captains of industry.

The political, military, and intellectual battles continued throughout the Warring States Period in a complex interplay until Han Feizi's version of Legalism seemed to tip the balance for the Qin. But the victory was short-lived, and soon a version of Confucianism would rise to the top as the preferred philosophy of political elites. But Daoism, and later Buddhism, had their own periods of dominance and influenced many aspects of Chinese culture over the centuries.

#### II. SUNZI AND HIS IDEAS

As with many ancient Chinese classics, we don't have a good sense of the original author of this book. In this illustrated version, C. C. Tsai begins by illustrating a key episode in the life of Sunzi that comes from a history of the period but dates to several centuries after Sunzi is said to have lived. We don't know how reliable it is, and although there are quite a few other

historical accounts of the times in which Sunzi is said to have lived, they don't mention him. There is another problem, as well: Sunzi is said to have lived at about the time of Confucius, toward the end of the Spring & Autumn Period, but there are a number of passages in The Art of War that reference conditions that did not occur until a couple of centuries later. This suggests that either the book was written later or was revised later. Commentators on the book throughout Chinese history have often remarked on other problems with the book's organization. Some passages appear out of place or read like comments or explanations that later copyists inadvertently incorporated into the text. All in all, it's not a good idea to focus too much attention on the author of the book or on stitching every piece together into a unified argument. Fortunately, in this version C. C. has stitched together all of the key lines of thinking, very close to the order presented in the original text. giving us a nice, well-ordered flow of ideas.

There are many pairs of conceptual opposites used in traditional European philosophy that we don't commonly see in Chinese philosophy, such as: spirit/matter, fact/value, mind/ body, reason/emotion, and so on. But the Chinese have their own interesting conceptual pairings, one of which sets the idea of wen 文 against the idea of wu 武. Wu means pertaining to warfare or other kinds of violent conflict. (Add the word shu 術 [art] to it, and you get the Chinese word for martial arts.) Wen is more difficult to define. On the one hand, wen means high culture, like literature and art. On the other hand, wen suggests the morality and etiquette of civil society. Ideally, culture and morality contribute to each other in the education and growth of a person. Moral people educate themselves in cultural pursuits, refining their powers of sensitivity and understanding. Cultured people reflect on their social roles, with the goal of self-improvement and the betterment of others.

Traditionally in China, wen and wu were opposites, like fire and water—they don't go well together but each has its indispensable utility. Wen refers to the quality of the people who create a moral, cultured society, and wu implies a threat to some part of that society. The Prussian military strategist Carl von Clausewitz famously said that war is politics by other means,

meaning that the aims of war and politics are the same: exerting one's will over others. During the Warring States Period, there were plenty of kings and aspiring kings who would have agreed with Clausewitz and who were willing to gain and extend their power by any means necessary. There were others, however, who pondered a little more deeply. To some of them, war and politics were altogether different. Politics is about the organization of society. War is what happens when social organization has broken down.

A statement by a nobleman of Chu, who lived several decades ahead of the time Sunzi is said to have lived, illustrates this idea. The nobleman had just won a significant victory on the battlefield, but instead of being pleased, he regretfully acknowledges the damage he has caused. In a written record of the time, he begins with an analysis of the character vu, saying that it is composed of the two characters zhi  $\perp$  and ge  $\nmid$ . Zhi means to stop, and a ge is a dagger-axe (a popular weapon of the time), so vu, he says, means to stop fighting, rather than being about the glorification of fighting. He continues:

Wu should be used to suppress brutality and lay down weapons. It should preserve wholeness, allow confidence for work to resume, restore stability and harmony, and rebuild wealth and abundance. . . . If weapons are not laid down and brutality not suppressed, how can wholeness be preserved? With the enemy in our territory, how can there be confidence for work to resume? If the desires of the people are thwarted, how can there be stability? If morals are set aside in conflicts with other noblemen, how can there be harmony? If I pursue honor through selfish motivations and by raining chaos down on people, how can there be wealth and abundance? (Zuo Zhuan, Xuan Gong 12)

The nobleman's point is that warfare should be used only to defend or restore social order, not to create or compound disorder just to satisfy the selfish goals of rulers.

A common idea in early China was that things happen in cycles. Think of a wave  $\sim$  with peaks and troughs. The peaks are good, harmonious times, and the troughs are

disordered, violent times. Wen applies to times closer to the peaks, and wu applies to times closer to the troughs. In this sense, wen and wu are tools used by people for maintaining cosmic order, social order being a fundamental element of cosmic order. The larger progression of events in the cosmos occurs as a matter of transformation from one situation to another. The judicious use of alternating now wen and now wu in facing these transformations can maintain overall balance so that ultimately the people can thrive. These are ideas that Sunzi inherited, and we can see them on full display in The Art of War.

In Chapter 4, we see the idea of tactical disposition. In military terminology, tactical disposition refers to placing soldiers on the battlefield in formations that can be used to improve the odds of victory. For example, a commander might place foot soldiers in the middle, with cavalry on both sides. That's one formation.

One of the most famous formations in Chinese history is the Eight Trigrams formation, said to have been used by the brilliant strategist Zhuge Liang during the Three Kingdoms Period (220–280 BCE). He arranged soldiers in regimented placements in an octagon shape. Well-armored foot soldiers would funnel enemy cavalry toward the octagon. Instead of meeting the enemy head on, the octagon would open up and let them in. After they entered, they would lose their bearings and fall prey to the constantly shifting formations within the octagon.

Our main description of the Eight Trigrams formation comes in a work of historical fiction, so we don't know if it actually existed, but it illustrates the idea of tactical disposition. The Chinese term is  $xing \mathcal{H}$ , which means shape or form. In its military use, it carries the connotation of being tactical because the formations don't come in just any old form for any old purpose. What makes a disposition, or formation, tactical is not just its form or the make-up of the soldiers or their weapons, but their use. Sunzi emphasizes that you must always work toward your own advantage and toward the enemy's disadvantage. This may sound obvious, but it means waiting and preparing for the right moment to attack. For example, Sunzi says that when attacking an enemy crossing a river, you should wait

until they are halfway across, then you can use the obstacle of the water against them.

Setting up events to your own strategic advantage is called *shi* 勢, which is translated in the book as force, or momentum (see especially Chapter 5). The idea is that there is an accumulation of force that is unleashed all at once, and because of its overwhelming power, it is unstoppable. Images used by Sunzi, and depicted so adeptly by C. C., include a stone striking an egg and a log rolling down a hill. The image with the strongest sense of strategy is the hawk that attacks from above. It remains unseen, waiting, until the opportune moment, and then strikes like lightning, with perfect speed and inescapable accuracy. Sunzi envisions the ideal battle to be like this: quick to strike and quick to end.

When we think of war, we might think of two armies coming straight at each other on the battlefield, each soldier clearly identified by uniform as a member of one army or the other. Unless one of those armies far outnumbered and outgunned the other, it's hard to think how Sunzi would approve of it as the primary method of warfare. This kind of head-on melee is called frontal warfare. The method of the hawk, on the other hand, is the surprise attack.

According to Sunzi, using frontal and surprise attacks to catch the enemy off guard and create a decisive victory is the most desirable way to battle. It is like the cycles mentioned above and like the constantly changing positions in the Eight Trigrams formation. Using frontal and surprise methods in unpredictable combinations keeps the enemy on their heels, allowing for a decisive strike.

There are many times when Sunzi discusses knowing who will win and who will lose. At first glance, this kind of comment probably seems pretty forgettable, but there is a bigger idea behind it. Going all the way back to the *Yijing*, which began to take shape about five hundred years before Sunzi is said to have lived, we see a great concern in the early Chinese to understand the cycles of nature. To understand a cycle is to be able to make predictions, and therefore to be able to act at the right time to your advantage. The *Yijing* is less about fortune-telling and more about interpreting cycles in order to react

appropriately. Recognizing patterns in order to react to them became a common theme in many strands of Chinese thought.

So when Sunzi says that one can gain knowledge about a battle, he is saying that by following his methods, one can see a few chess moves ahead and be in a position to strike at the opportune moment. We get a vivid sense of recognizing patterns when he discusses how to interpret dust kicked up by the advancing enemy (Chapter 9).

In a book about warfare, we shouldn't be surprised to see talk of killing the enemy, but we also see in Sunzi some pretty harsh methods used on his own soldiers, like putting them in a desperate situation so that they fight to the death. And in the story about Sunzi training the palace women, his method of discipline is, from a contemporary perspective, downright inhumane. This aspect of Sunzi's philosophy represents a line of thinking that gradually gained acceptance during the later pre-imperial period: rigorous discipline, harsh punishment, and generous rewards, meted out in ways that were easy to understand and consistently applied. The idea was to take advantage of basic human motivations around pleasure and fear. This led to well-organized and well-motivated troops.

This disciplinarian and legalistic approach contrasted sharply with the moralistic approach of the Confucians, who favored intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation. In Sunzi's defense, he was not proposing an organizational philosophy for all of society, just for the very specific case of the military—conditions of wu. And although he left the wen to the noblemen and civil servants, he is very clear that the end goal for wu is a peaceful, prosperous state. That's why he is so strongly against rushing into war. Not only should your goals in warfare be clear, they must be clearly achievable. In the end, we see that although Sunzi's methods are harsh, he is a humanitarian underneath—wu for the sake of wen.

#### III. THE ARTIST AND HIS WORK

When I was a kid and the daily newspaper was still a thing, I loved reading the comic strips and the political cartoons. They could be cute, amusing, and insightful all at once. When I came

across C. C. Tsai's illustrated versions of the Chinese classics, I recognized the same brilliant combination of wit and wisdom and fell in love with his books.

I would be remiss if I finished this introduction without introducing the inimitable Chih-chung Tsai (蔡志忠), who goes by "C. C." in English, and whose own story is as amazing as anything he depicts in his books. The way he tells it, he knew at the age of five that he would draw for a living, and at the age of fifteen, his father gave him permission to drop out of school and move from their small town to the metropolis of Taipei, where a comic publisher had welcomed him after receiving an unsolicited manuscript, not realizing how young he was. The young C. C. developed his own humorous comic book characters, all the while honing his skills and learning from other illustrators. During a required three-year stint in the military, he devoted all of his free time to educating himself in art history and graphic design. On leaving the military he tested into a major movie and television production company, beating out other applicants with their formal educations. There, he had the good fortune of coming across a cache of Disney films and taught himself animation. Soon he was making his own short films, and then decided to open his own animation studio, winning Taiwan's equivalent of the Oscar just two years later.

Always looking for a new challenge, C. C. began a syndicated comic strip, which quickly expanded to five different strips in magazines and newspapers across Southeast Asia. At the height of his popularity as a syndicated cartoonist, he turned in yet another direction—the illustration of the Chinese classics in comic book format. They were an instant success and propelled him to the top of the bestseller list. That's what you have in your hand.

According to C. C., the secret to his success is not ambition, or even hard work. It's just about having fun and following his interests. One of his interests has been studying the classics. Remember, he dropped out of middle school. By ordinary standards, he should be unable to grasp the language of ancient China. The early Chinese wrote in a language that is to contemporary Chinese as Latin is to contemporary Spanish or Italian. But he is a tireless autodidact, with a nearly photographic memory. He knows as much about the Chinese classics as

many Ph.D.s in the field. The main difference between him and a tenured professor is that he isn't interested in the refined disputes and distinctions on which scholars spend their careers. He merely wants to understand the ideas and share them with others. This book, and others in the series, is the result of playtime in his modest studio—serious and lighthearted, whimsical and profound all at once.

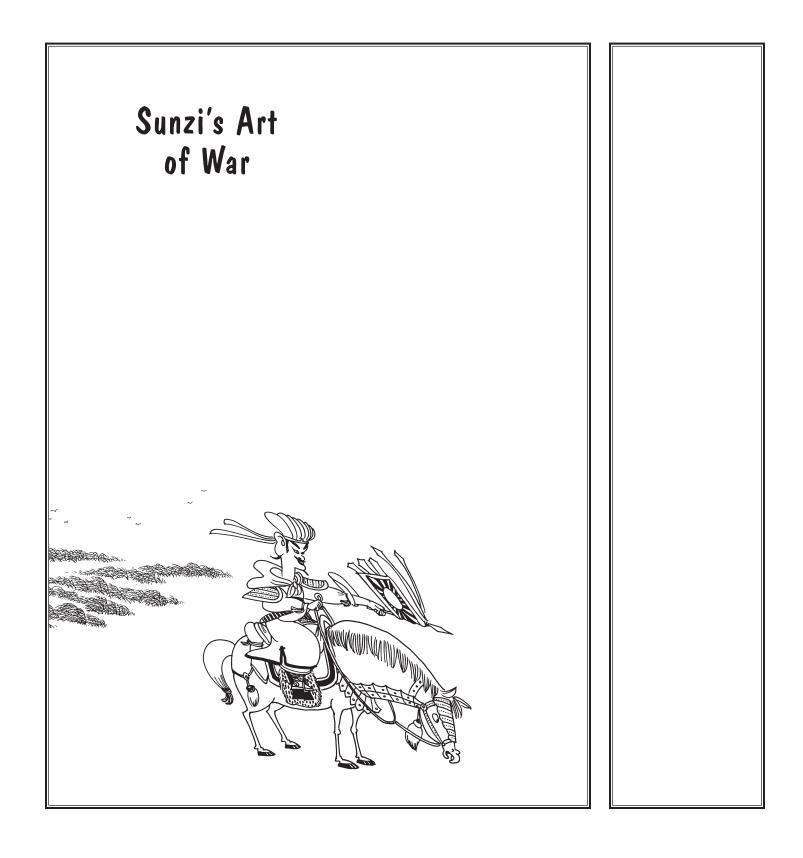
In working with the classics, C. C. stays close to tradition, and in his illustrations he more or less follows the prominent commentaries. This means that the texts that underpin his books are pretty much the same as the texts that underpin other translations you will find on bookstore shelves, with incidental differences here and there that are insignificant to the overall meaning.

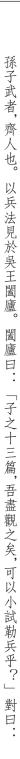
C. C. translated the Classical language into contemporary Chinese so that the average reader could understand it. While respecting his interpretive choices where there is ambiguity, I've also chosen to translate with an eye to the Classical language, rather than just from his contemporary Chinese. This helps avoid the attenuation of meaning that happens when communication goes through too many steps—like in the "telephone" game that children play.

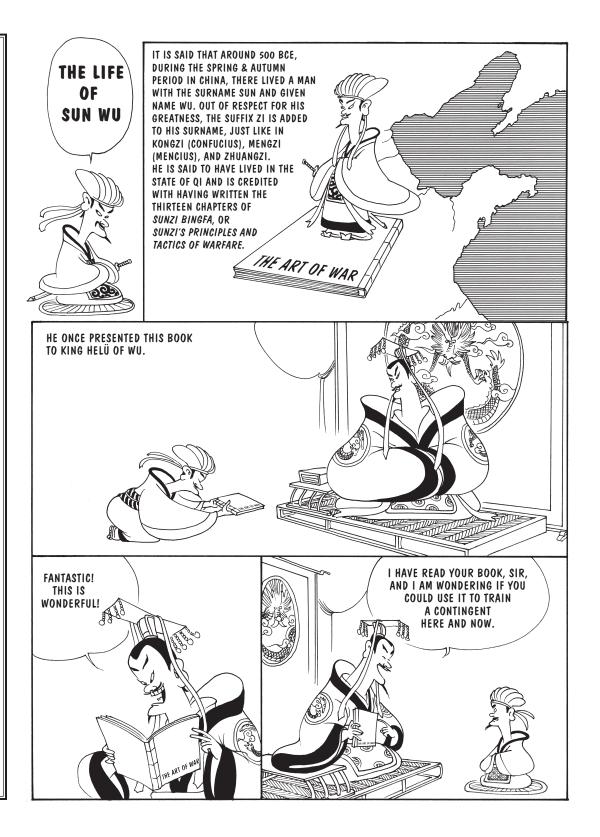
In this book, there are just a few places where some explanatory content has been added.

The reader should have full confidence that each classic illustrated by C. C. is the real deal. The advantage that these versions of the classics have over regular, text-only editions is the visual dimension that brings the reader directly into the world of the ancients.

I hope that you enjoy this English version of C. C.'s illustrated *Art of War* as much as so many others have enjoyed the original Chinese version.



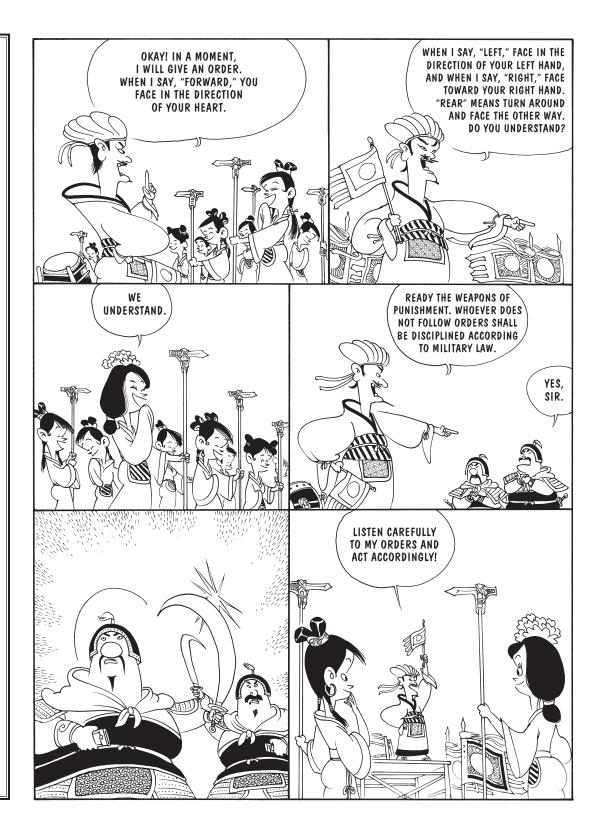






可可。 寵姬二人各為隊長, 闔 廬 日: 可可 皆令持戟。 試以婦人乎? 令之曰:: 曰: 「汝知而心與左右手背乎?」婦人曰: 可。 於是許之, 出宫中美女, 得百 「知之。」 孫子分為二隊, 以王之

即三令五申之。 孫子曰: 前, 則視心;左, 視左手; 右, 視右手;後, 即視背。」 婦人曰:: 一諾。 約束既布, 乃設鉄鉞



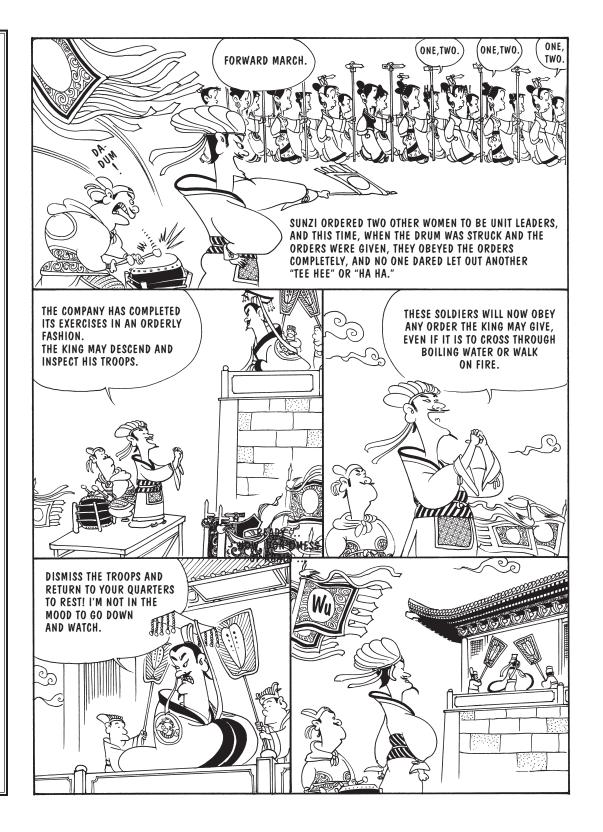


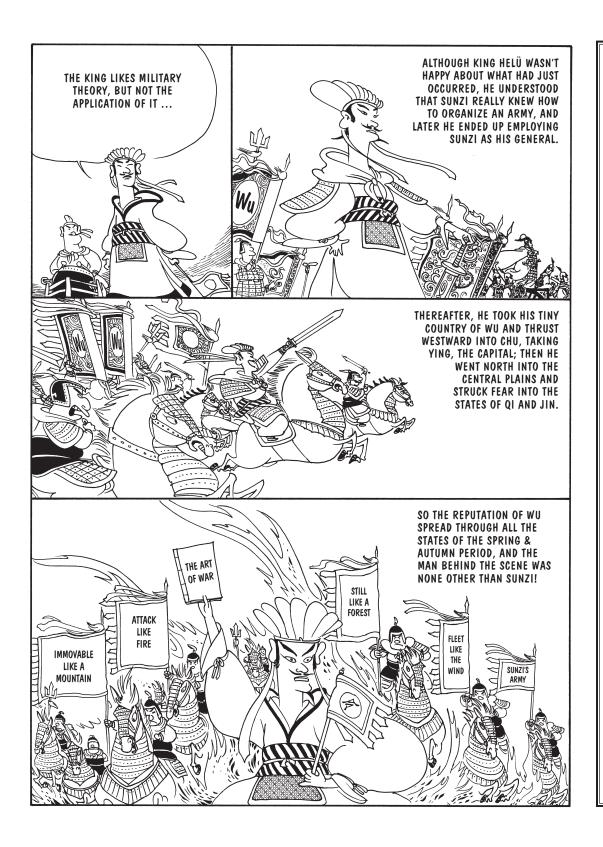
於是鼓之右, 婦人大笑。 孫子曰: 「約束不明, 將之罪也。 復三令五申而鼓之左.





願 勿斬也。 孫子曰: 「臣既已受命為將, 將在軍, 君命有所不受。」 遂斬隊長二人以徇。 王可試下觀之, 用其次為隊長,於是復鼓之。 唯王所欲用之, 雖赴水火猶可也。 婦人左右前後跪起皆中 吳王曰: -規矩繩 「將軍罷休就舍, 墨,無敢出聲。 於是孫子使使報王曰: 寡人不願下觀。 「兵既整



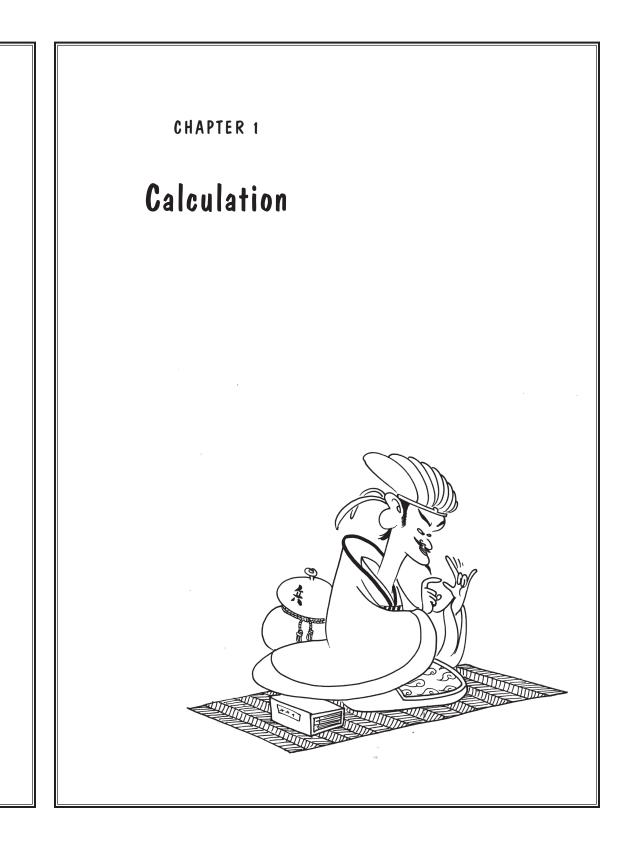


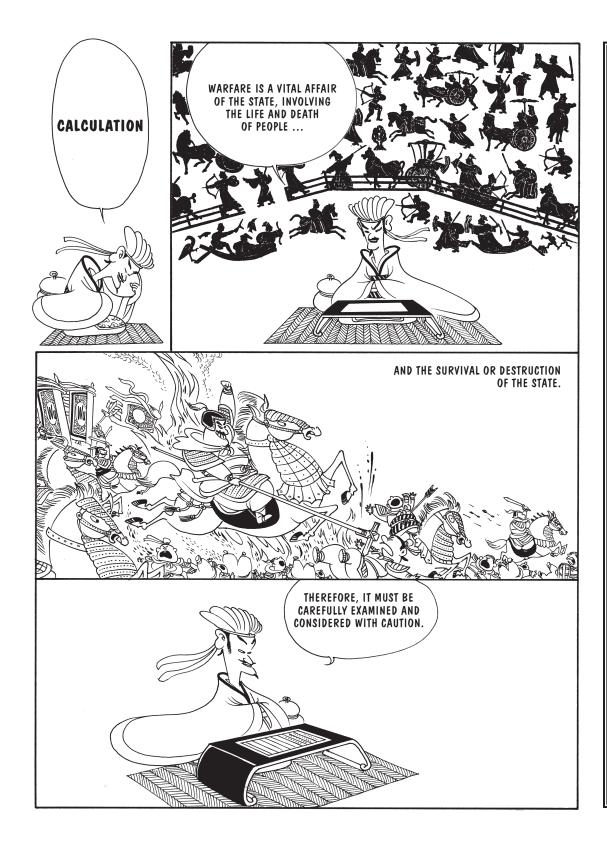
孫子 日 「王徒好其言, 不能用其實。 於是闔 廬 知孫子能用兵, 卒以為將。 破 殭 楚, 郢, 北 威

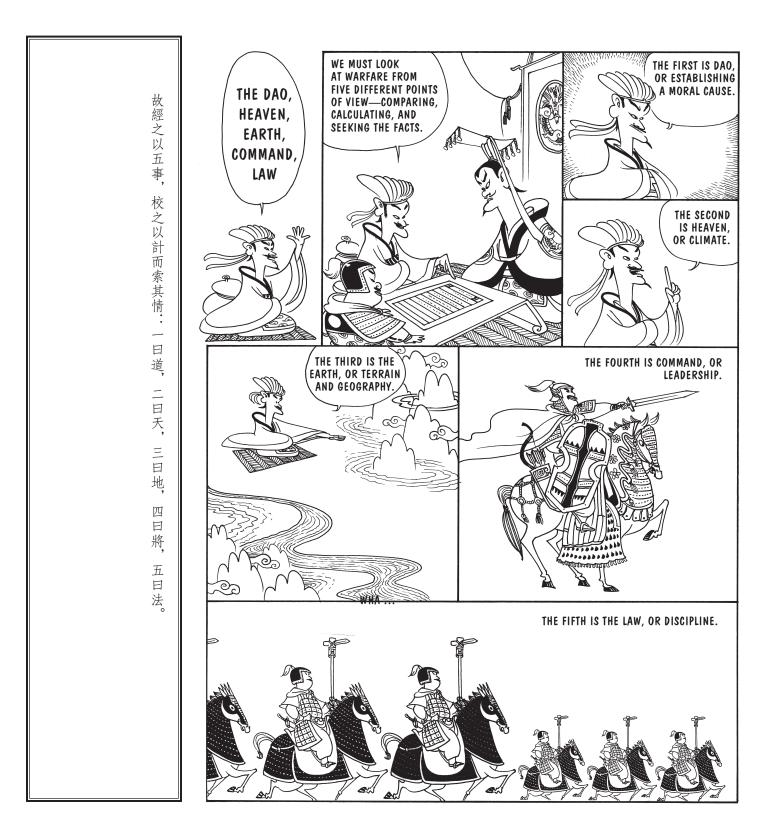
顯名諸侯,孫子與有力焉。

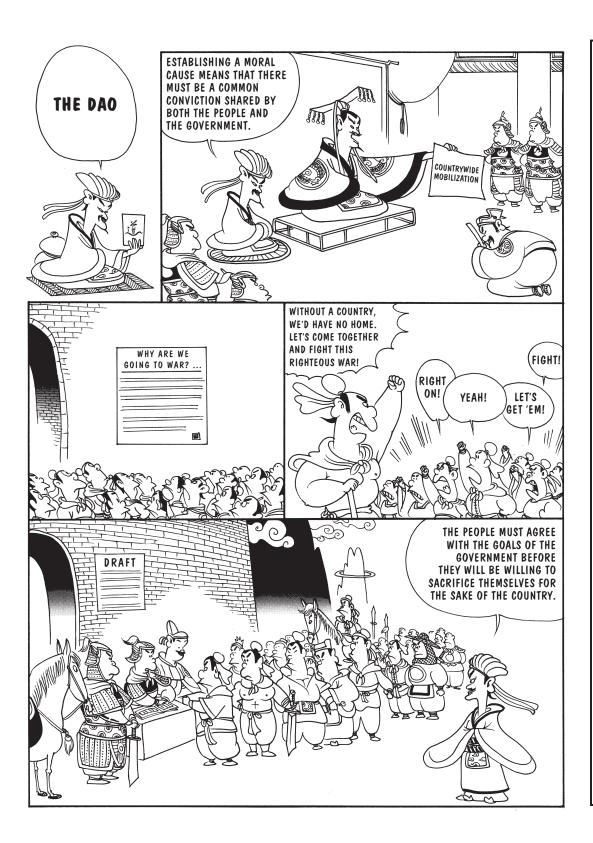
【史記·孫子吳起列傳】

齊晉

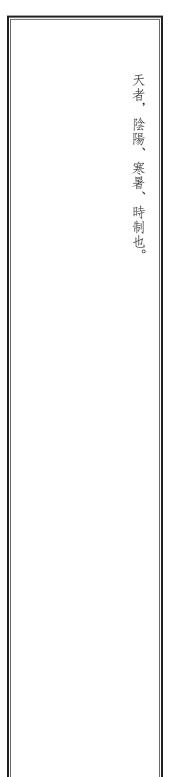


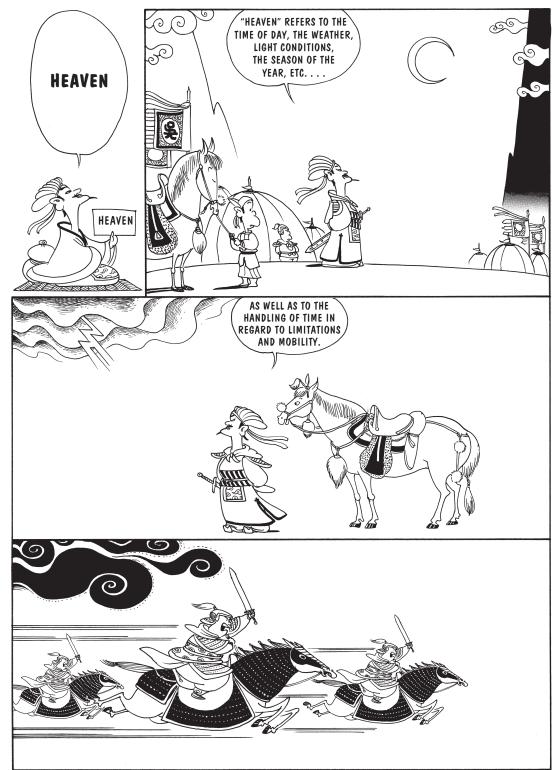


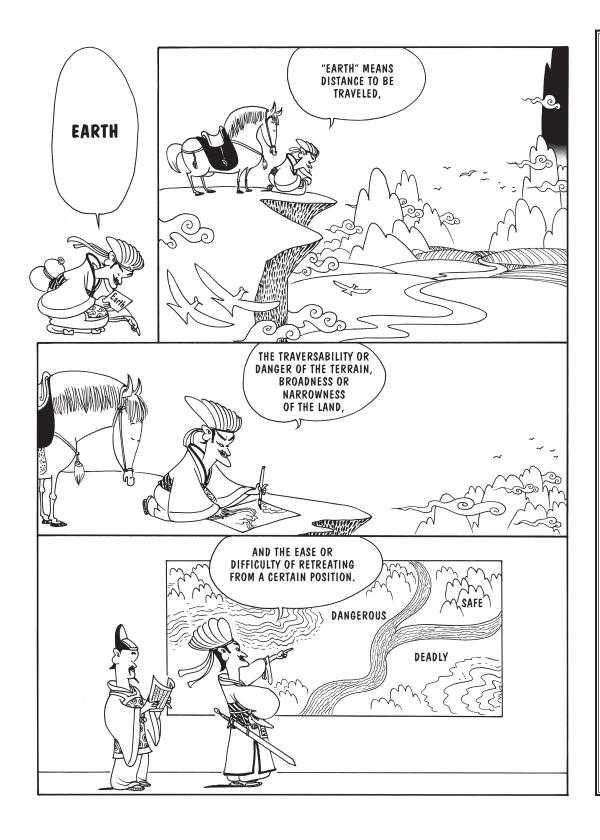




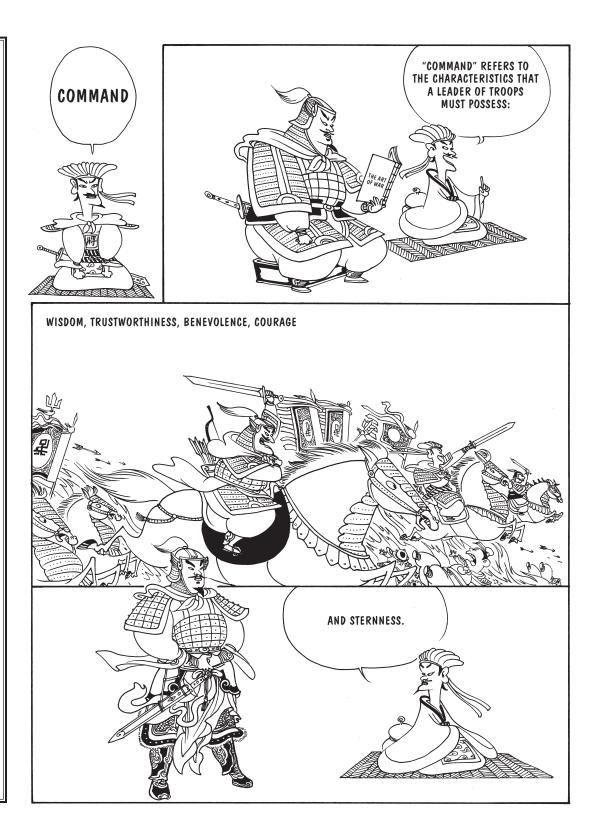
道者,令民與上同意也,故可以與之死,可以與之生,而不畏危;







將者,智、信、仁、勇、嚴也。

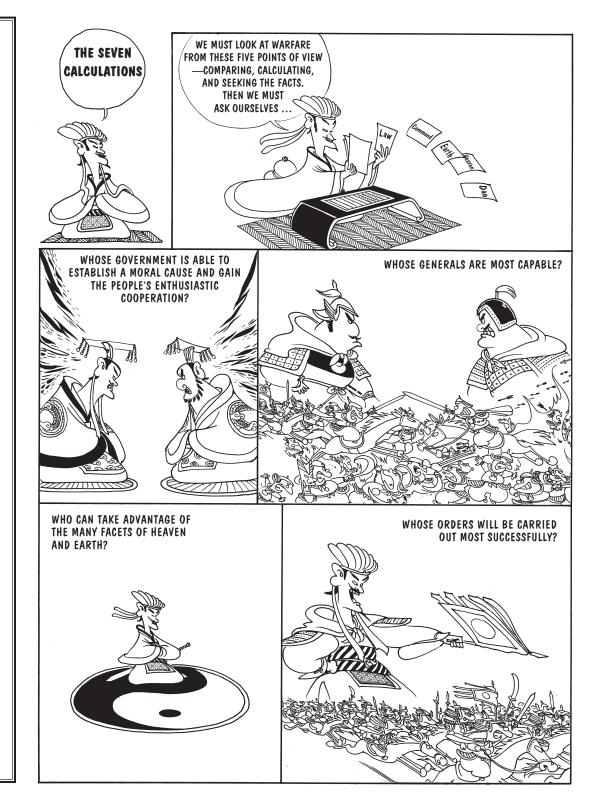






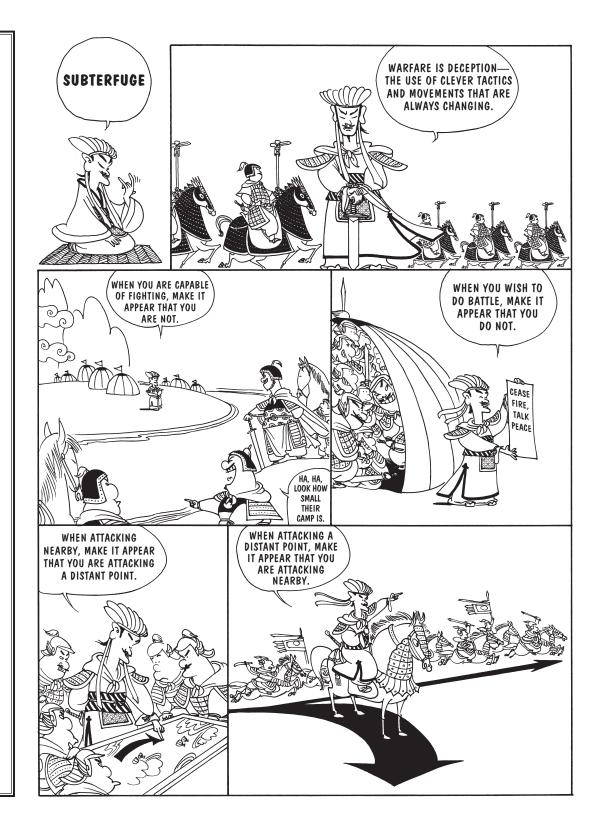
凡此五者,將莫不聞; 知之者勝, 不知者不勝。 故校之以計而索其情. 曰:主孰有道?將孰有能? 天地孰得?

法令孰行?





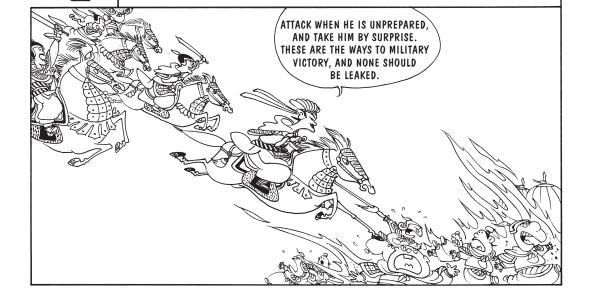






LURE THE ENEMY WITH A SMALL ADVANTAGE;
SOW DISORDER AMONG THE RANKS OF THE ENEMY,
AND ATTACK WHEN CHAOS ERUPTS;
WHEN THE ENEMY EXHIBITS NO WEAK POINTS, FULLY READY YOUR OWN SIDE;
WHEN THE ENEMY IS STRONG, AVOID HIM; TAUNT THE ENEMY INTO ANGER;
FEIGN WEAKNESS TO CREATE OVERCONFIDENCE IN THE ENEMY;
WHEN THE ENEMY NEEDS REST, KEEP HIM ACTIVE;
WHEN THE ENEMY IS UNIFIED, SEEK TO SPLINTER HIM.



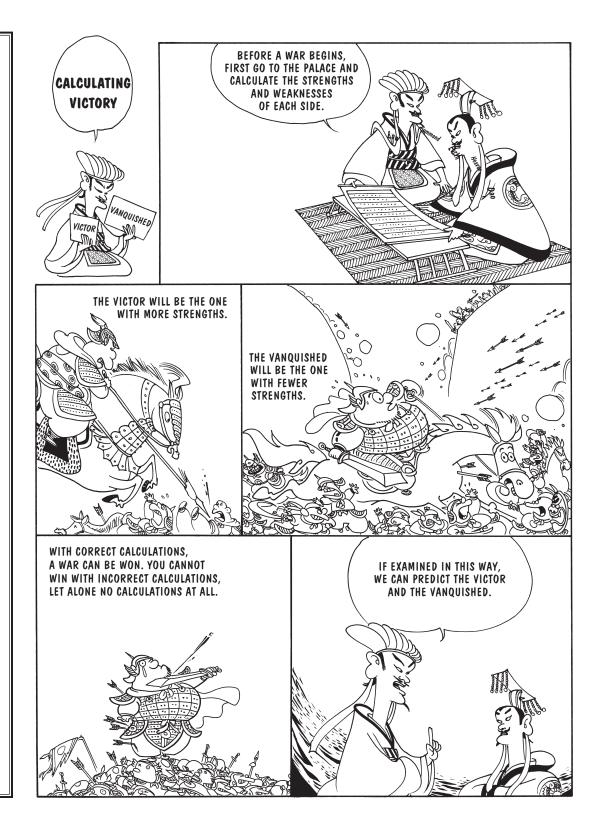


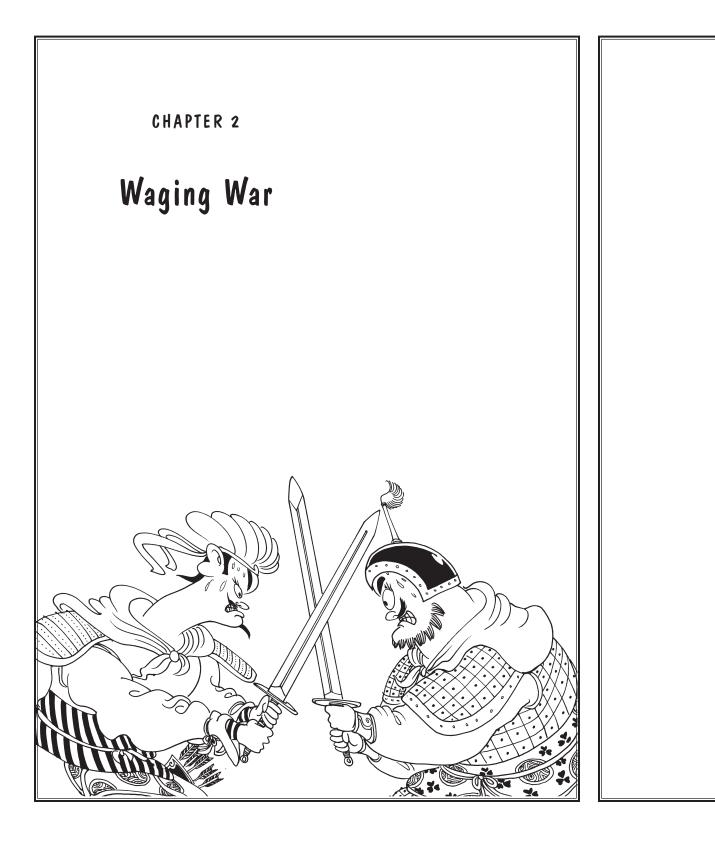
出其不意。

夫未戰而廟筭勝者, 得第多也;未戰而廟筭不勝者, 得筭少也。 多筭勝, 少筭不勝 而況於無筭乎!吾以

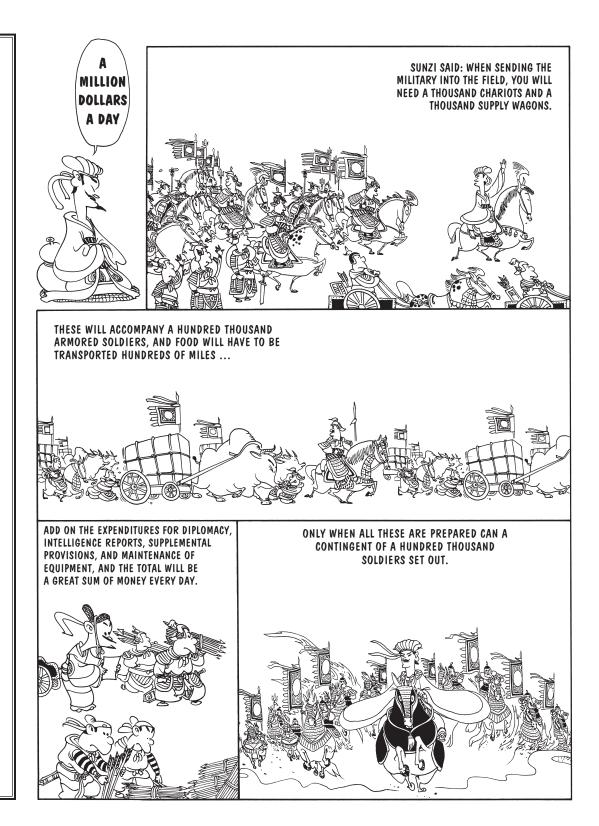
此觀之,

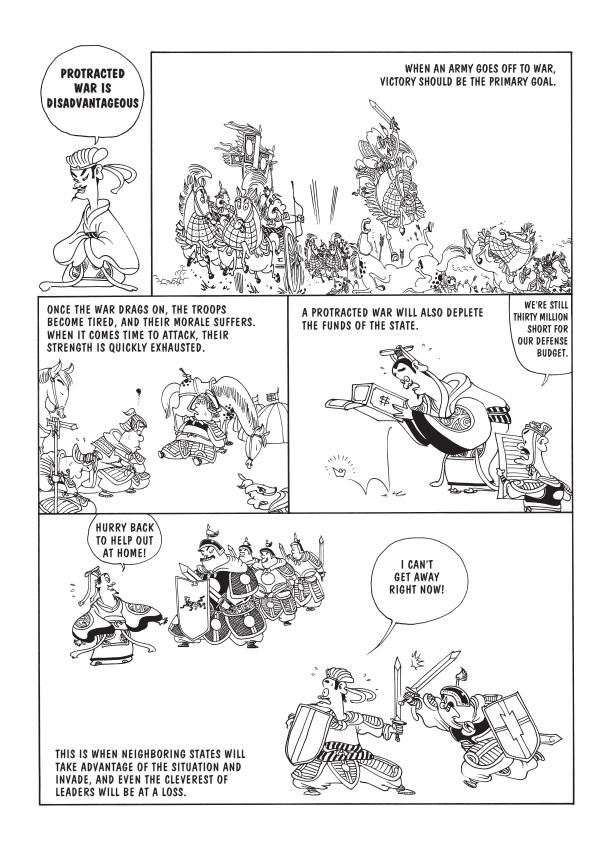
勝負見矣。





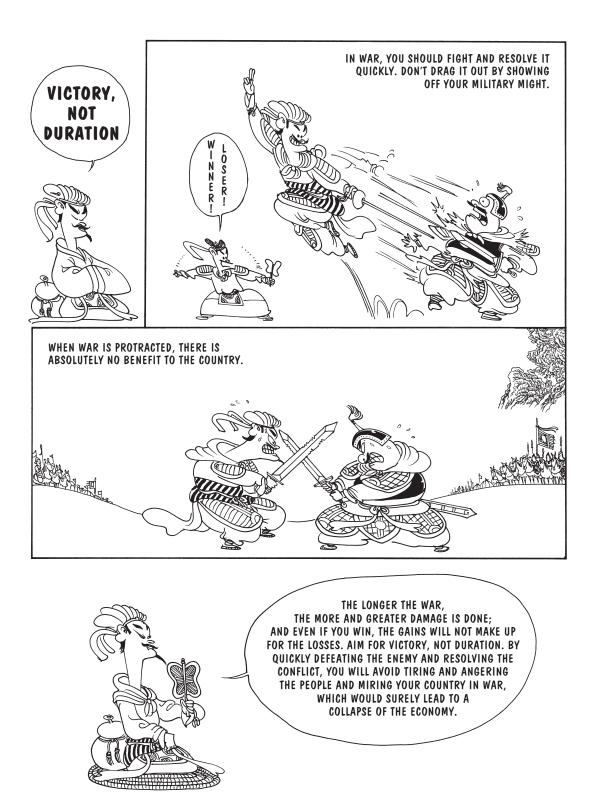
車甲之奉, 孫子曰: 日費千金, 凡用兵之法, 然後十萬之師舉矣。 馳車千駟, 革車千乘, 帶甲十萬, 千里饋糧 則內外之費, 賓客之用, 膠漆之材.

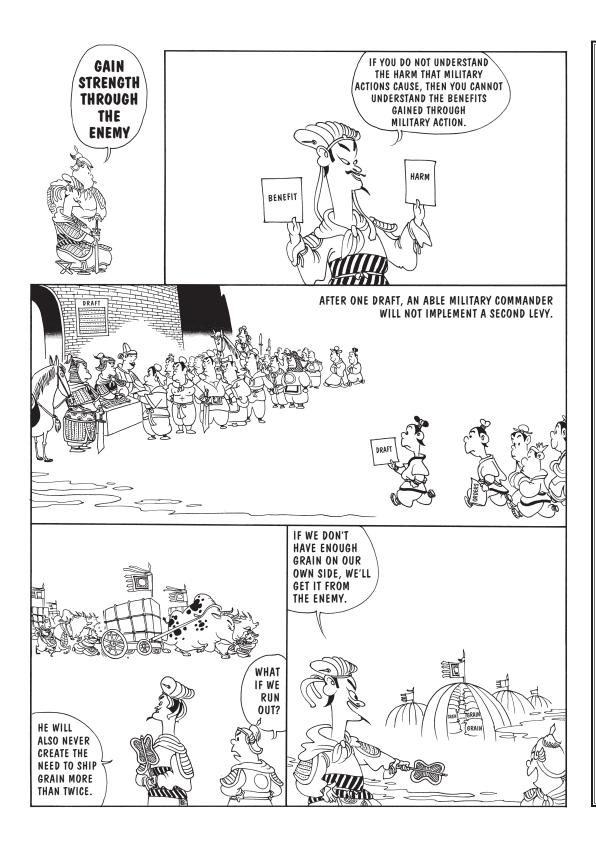




而

起

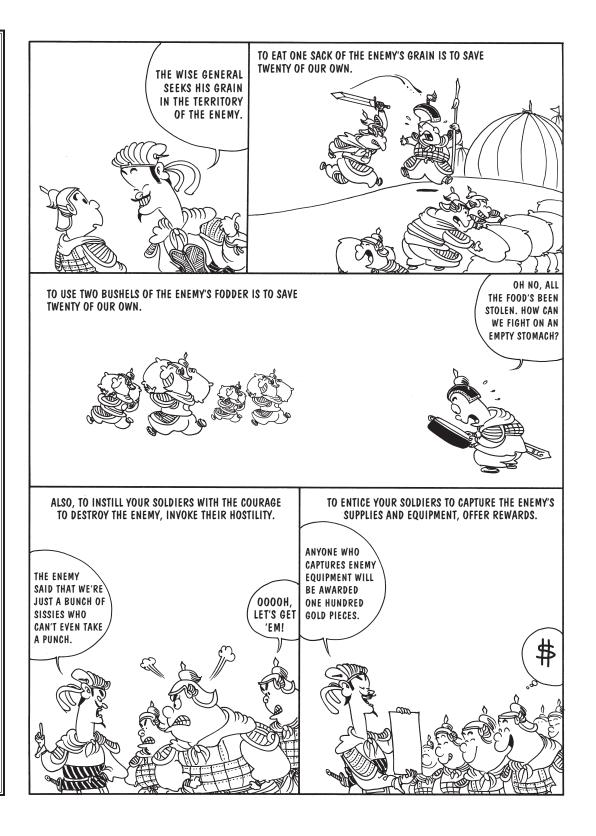




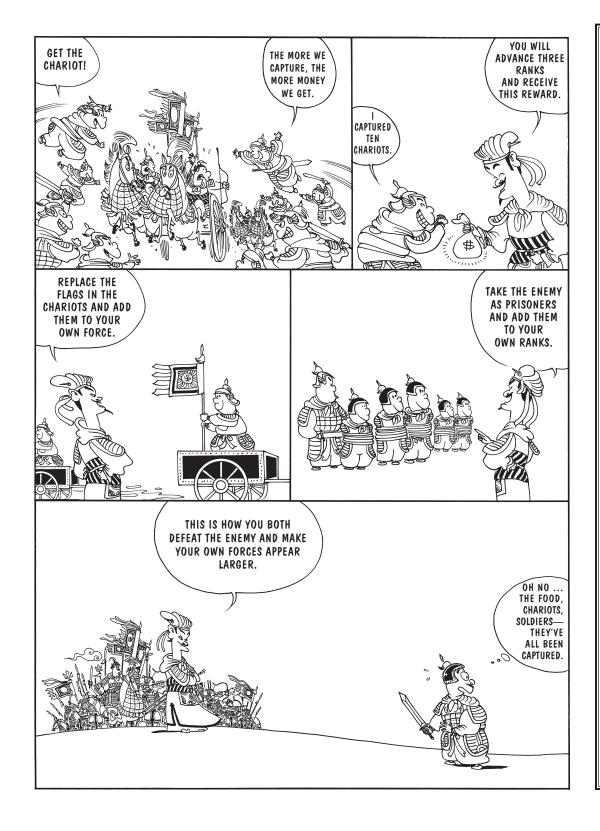
善用兵者,役不再籍,糧不三載;取用於國,因糧於敵,故不盡知用兵之害者,則不能盡知用兵之利也。

故軍食可足也。

故智將務食於敵 故殺敵者, 怒也; 食敵 取敵之利者, 鍾 當吾二十鍾; 貨也。 总秆 故車戰得車十乘已上,賞其先得者, 石, 當吾二十石。



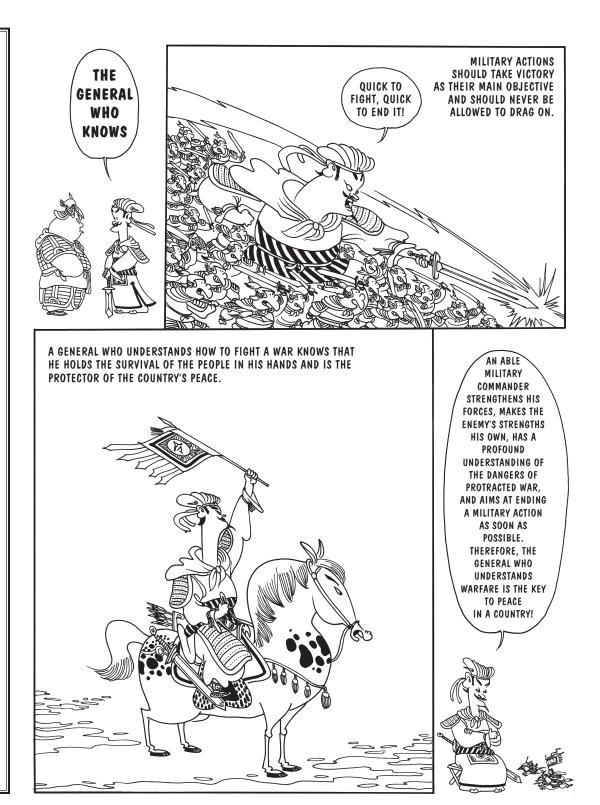




故知兵之將,生民之司命,國家安危之主也。

故兵貴勝,

不貴久。



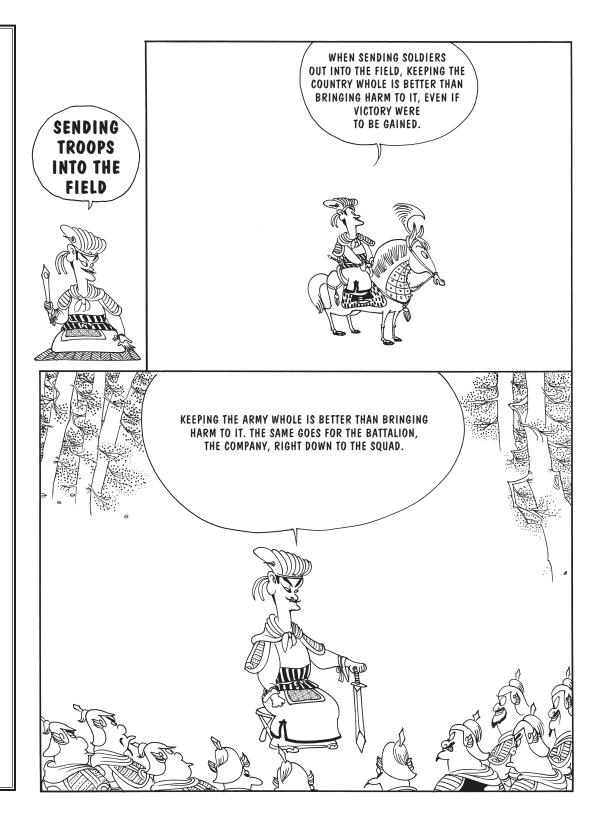
CHAPTER 3

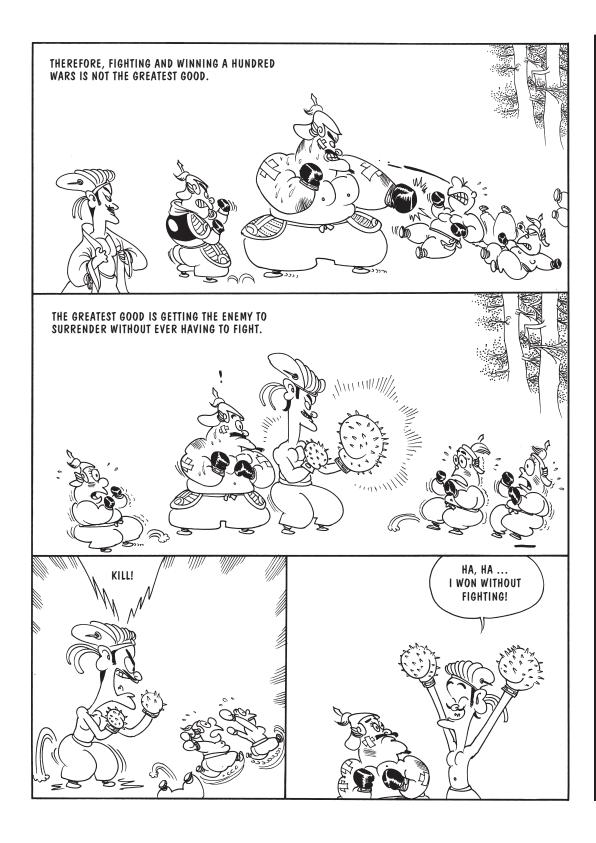
## Offensive Strategy



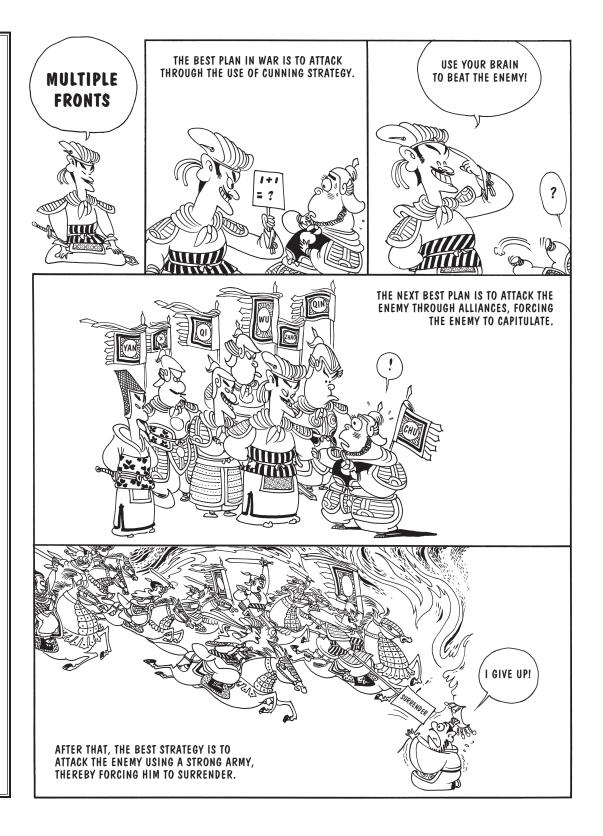
卒次之;全伍為上,破伍次之。 孫子曰:: 凡用兵之法, 全國為上, 破國次之;全軍為上, 破軍次之;全旅為上, 破旅次之;全卒為上,

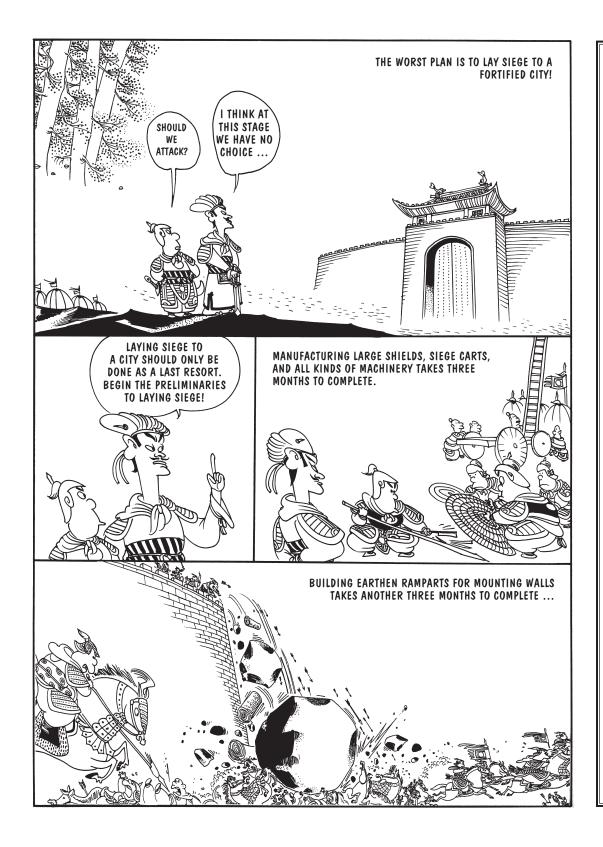
破



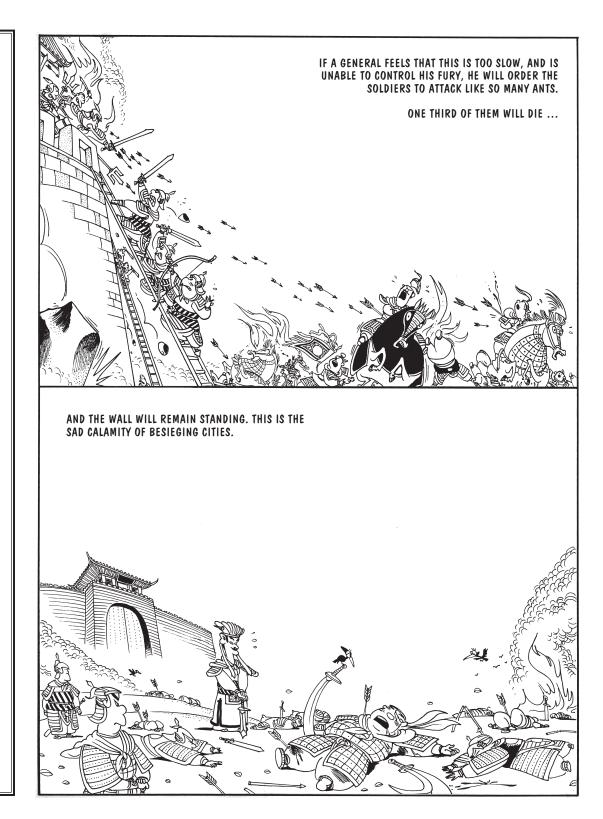


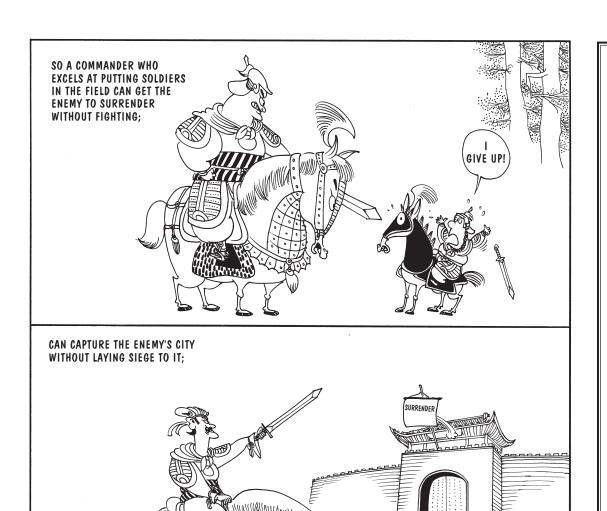
故上兵伐謀, 其次伐交, 其次伐兵,

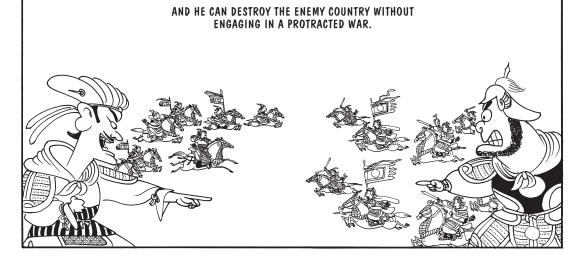




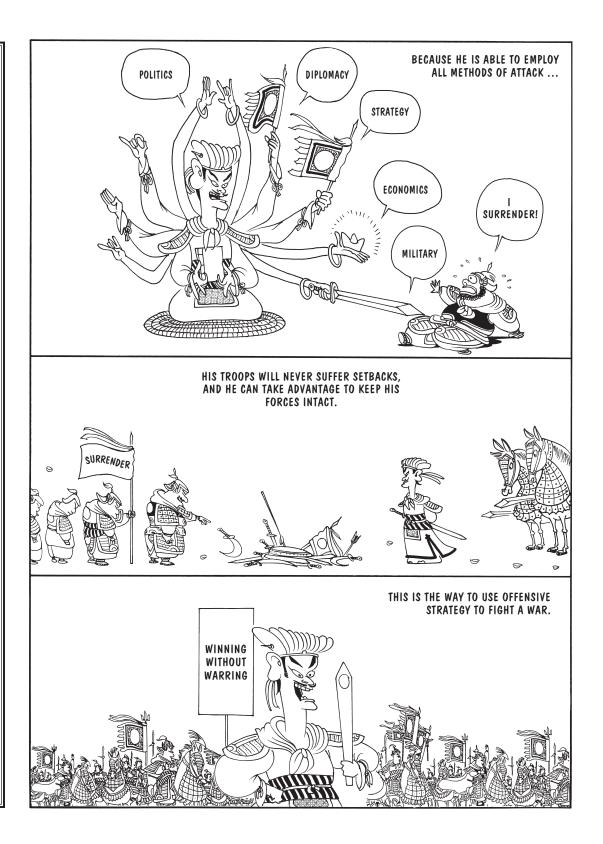
將不勝其忿而蟻附之,殺士三分之一,而城不拔者,此攻之災也。

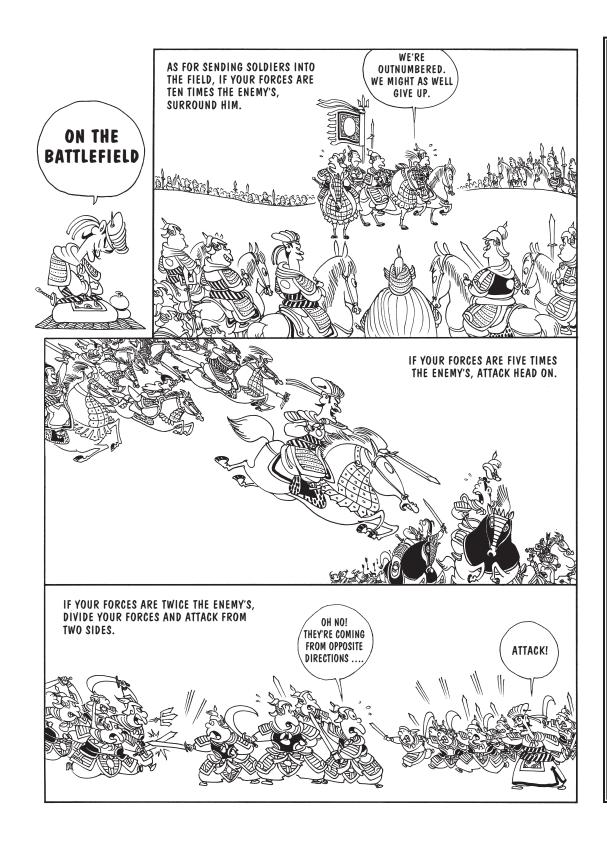


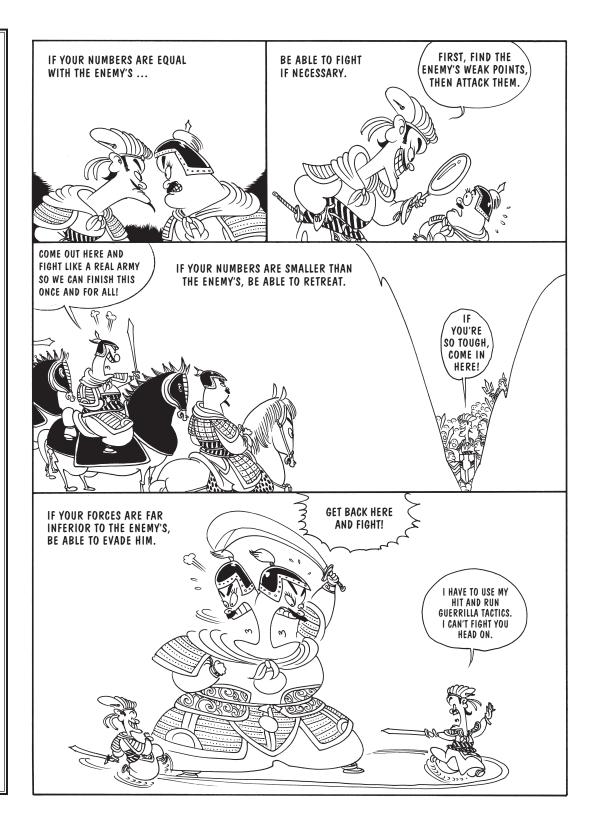




必以全爭於天下,故兵不頓而利可全,此謀攻之法也。







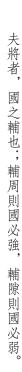


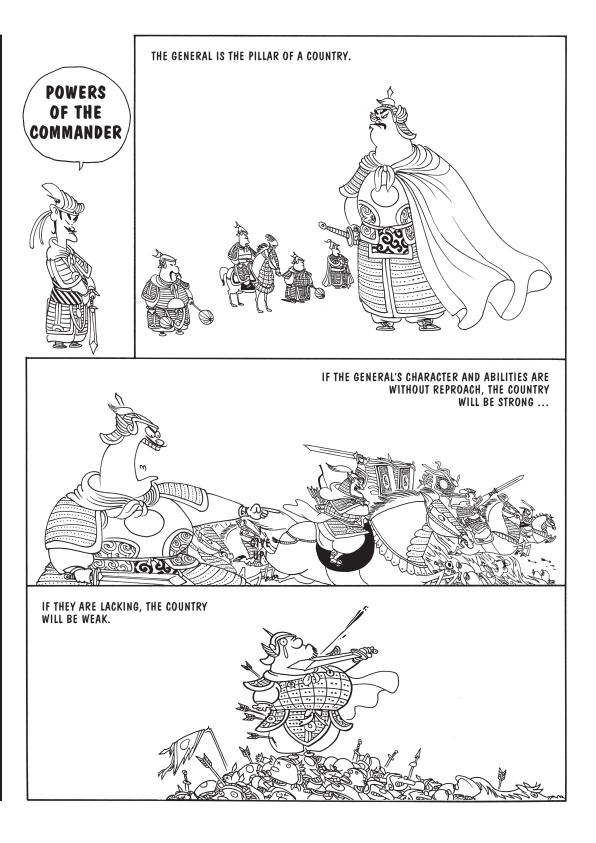


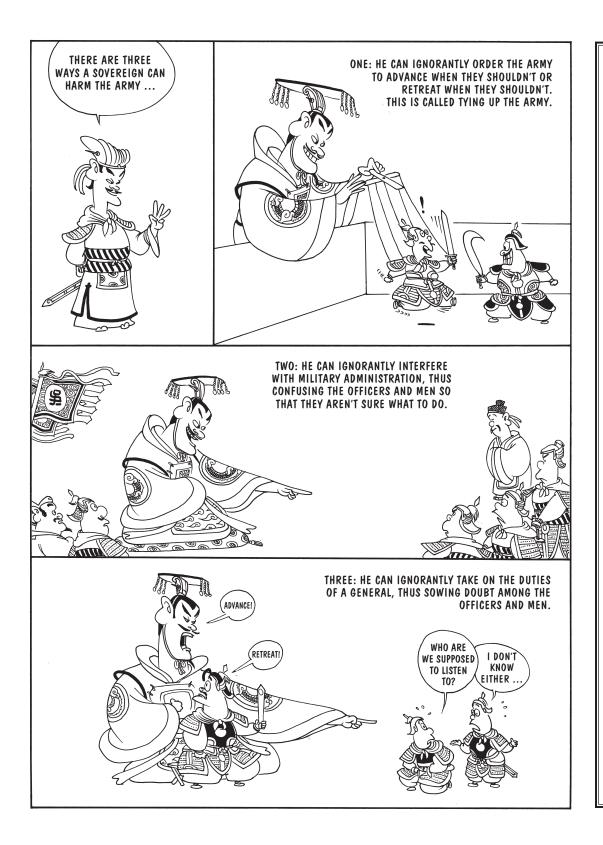


WHEN YOUR FORCES ARE STRONGER THAN THE ENEMY'S, SURROUND HIM, ATTACK HIM, AND DIVIDE HIM. WHEN YOUR FORCES DON'T MEASURE UP TO THE ENEMY'S, BE ABLE TO FIGHT, BE ABLE TO HOLD YOUR GROUND, AND BE ABLE TO EVADE HIM. IN ADDITION, EXCEPTIONAL LEADERSHIP IS NEEDED TO ATTAIN THE GOALS OF FIGHTING, HOLDING GROUND, AND EVADING THE ENEMY. OTHERWISE, THERE WILL BE THE DANGER OF SUFFERING AN AGONIZING DEFEAT.









故君之所以患於軍者三:: 而同三軍之政, 則軍士惑矣;,不知三軍之權, 不知軍之不可以進而謂之進, 而同三軍之任, 不 知軍之不可以退而謂之退, 則軍士疑矣。 是謂縻軍。 不知三軍

御者勝。 知勝 此 有五: 五者, 知 知勝之道也。 可 以 戰與不可以戰者勝, 識眾寡之用者勝, 上下同欲者勝, 以虞待不虞者勝, 將能而君

不

三軍既惑且疑.

則

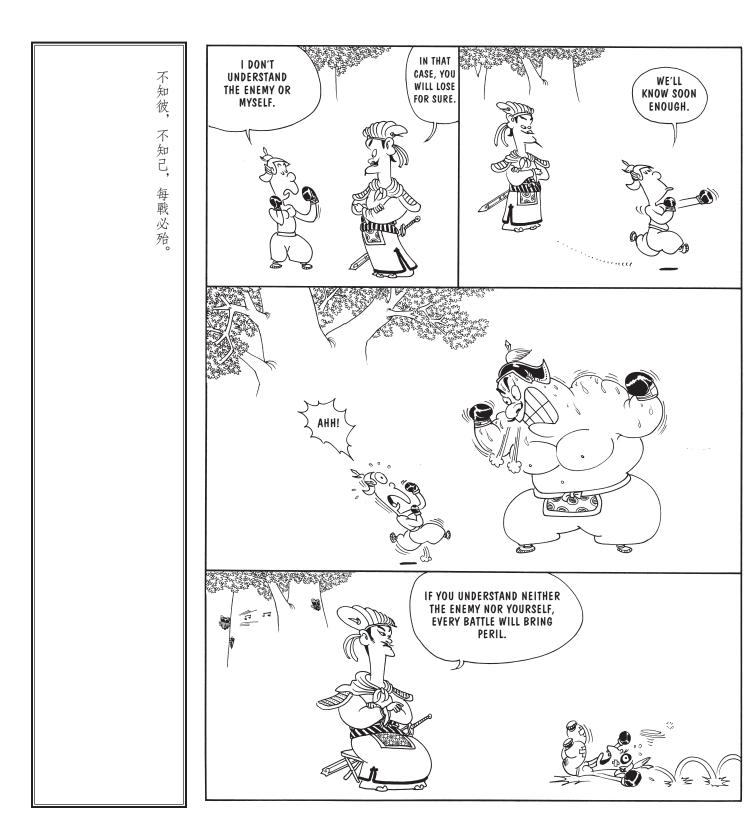
諸侯之難至矣。

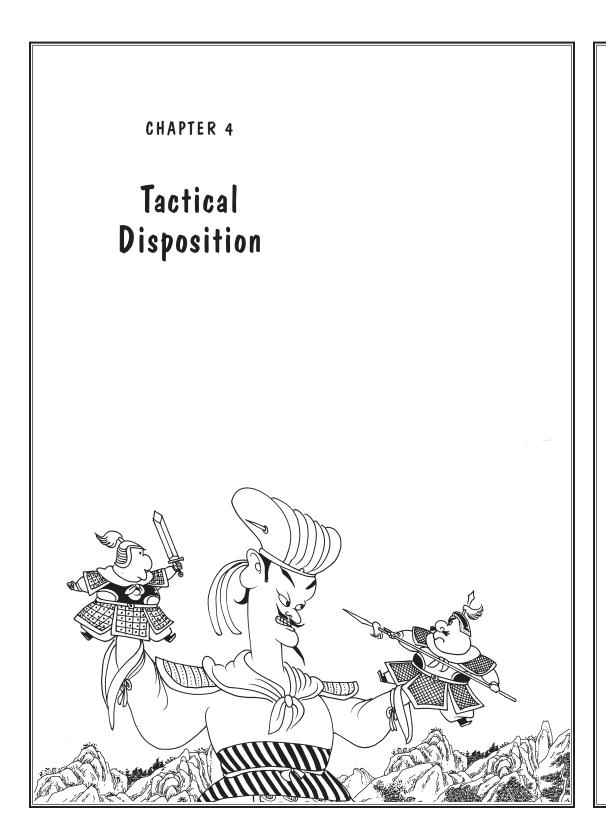
是謂亂

軍引勝。

IF CONFUSION OR DOUBT TAKES THERE ARE HOLD IN YOUR ARMY, THE ENEMY FIVE POINTS WILL TAKE ADVANTAGE AND THAT CAN HELP ADVANCE. SO WE SAY, CAUSING CALCULATE HAVOC IN ONE'S OWN ARMY LEADS WHICH SIDE TO VICTORY FOR THE ENEMY. WILL BE **VICTORIOUS:** 1. VICTORY WILL GO TO THOSE WHO KNOW WHEN TO FIGHT AND WHEN NOT TO FIGHT. 2. VICTORY WILL GO TO THOSE WHO KNOW HOW MANY MEN TO DEPLOY. 3. VICTORY WILL GO TO THOSE WHO CAN ESTABLISH A MORAL CAUSE BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT AND THE PEOPLE. 4. VICTORY WILL GO TO THOSE WHO ARE WELL PREPARED WHILE THE ENEMY IS ILL PREPARED. 5. VICTORY WILL GO TO THOSE WHOSE GENERAL IS CAPABLE AND WHOSE SOVEREIGN DOES NOT INTERFERE. THIS IS HOW TO PREDICT WHO WILL BE VICTORIOUS.



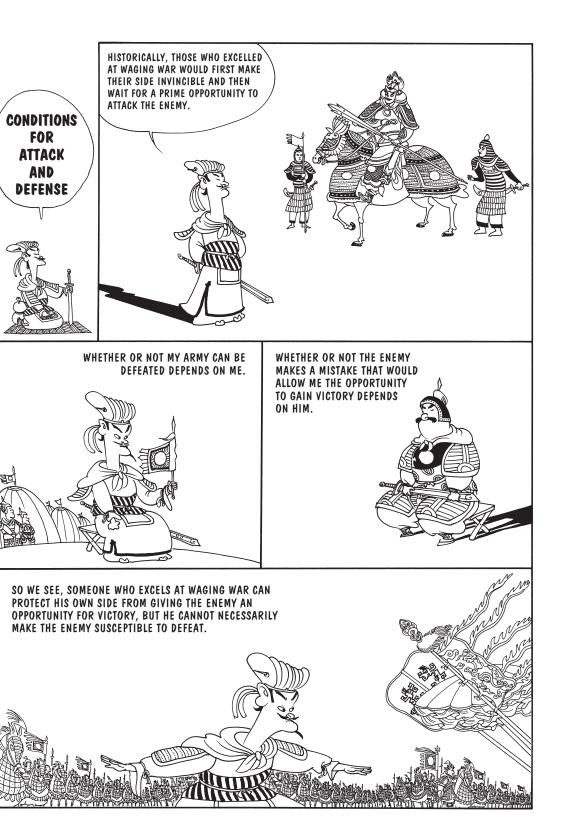


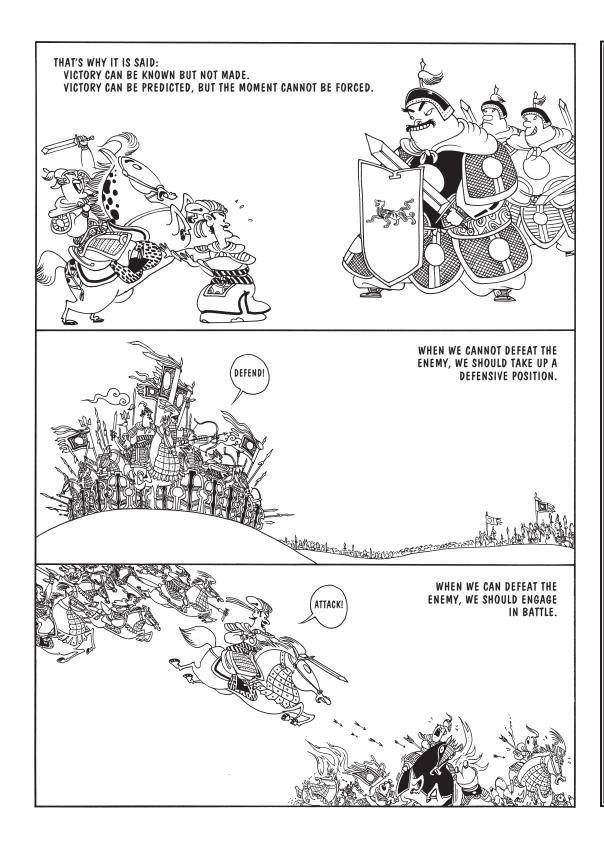


能使敵之可勝。

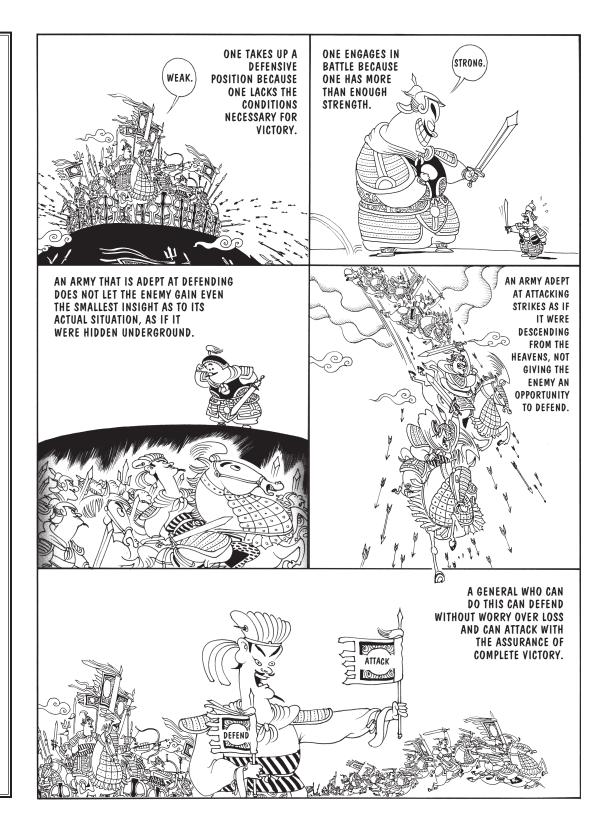
孫子曰: 昔之善戰者, 先為不可勝, 以待敵之可勝;不可勝在己, 可勝在敵。 故善戰者, 能為不可勝

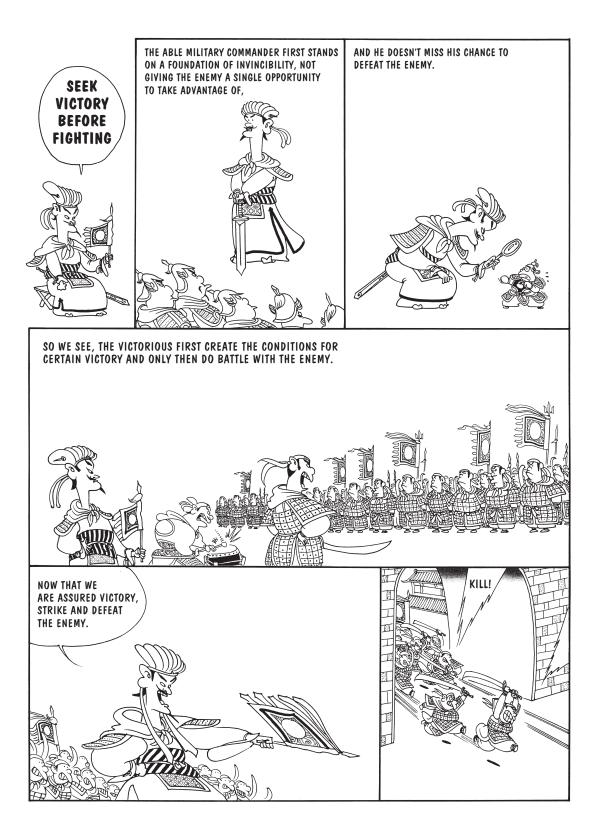
不





守則不足, 攻則有餘。 善守者藏於九地之下, 善攻者動於九天之上, 故能自保而全勝也。

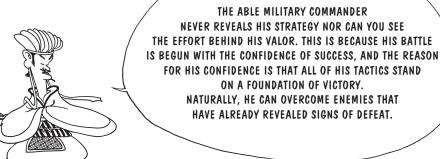




故善戰者之勝也, 無智名, 無勇功, 故其戰勝不忒。 不忒者, 其所措必勝, 勝已敗者也。

FORGET THAT. FIGHT WHAT ARE OUR AND WHAT OF THE FIRST AND ASK 敗兵先戰而後求勝。 CHANCES THIS **DEFEATED SIDE?** QUESTIONS LATER! TIME OUT? HE ALWAYS **ENGAGES THE** ENEMY FIRST ... THEN HOPES THAT HE IS LUCKY ENOUGH TO WIN.

THE ART OF WAR



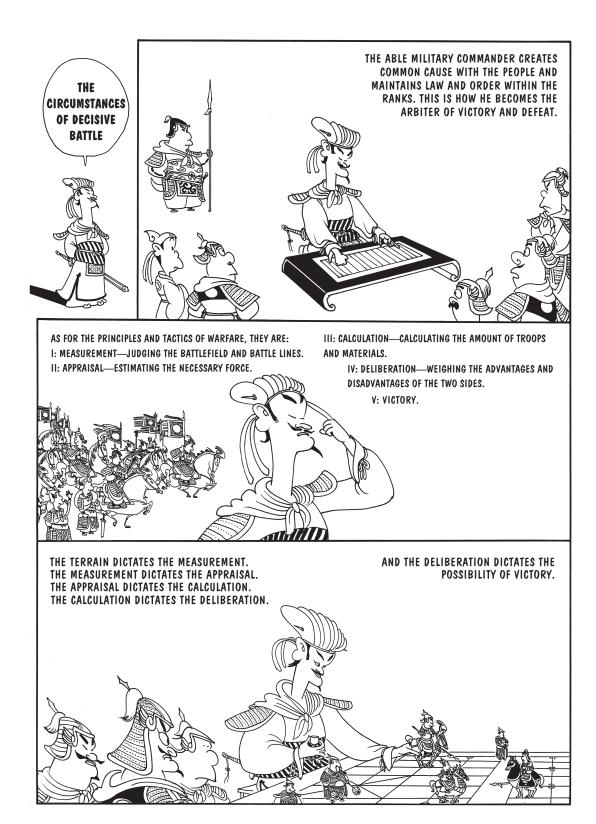
0H NO!

I NEVER

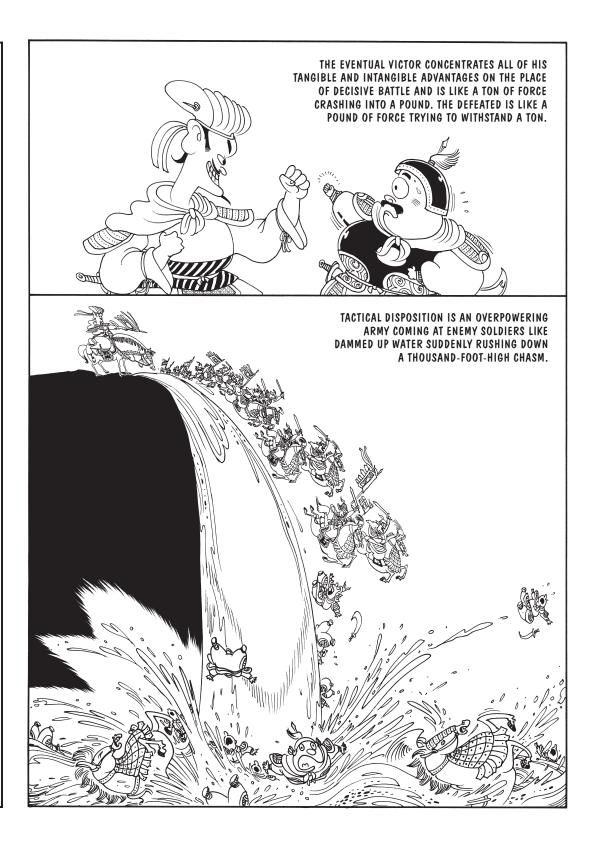
WOULD BE THIS STRONG!

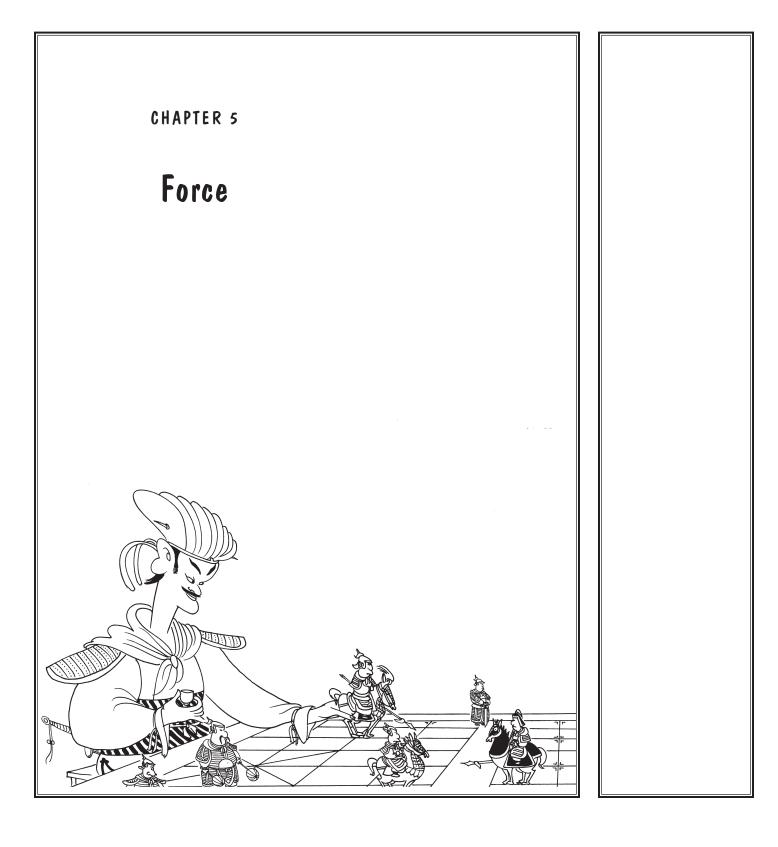
THOUGHT THE ENEMY





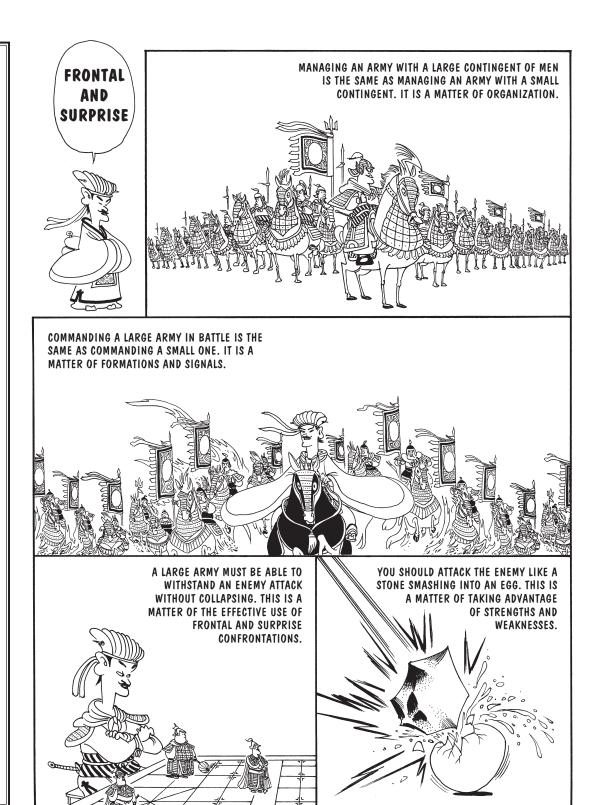
勝者之戰民也,若決積水於千仞之谿者,形也故勝兵若以鎰稱銖,敗兵若以銖稱鎰。



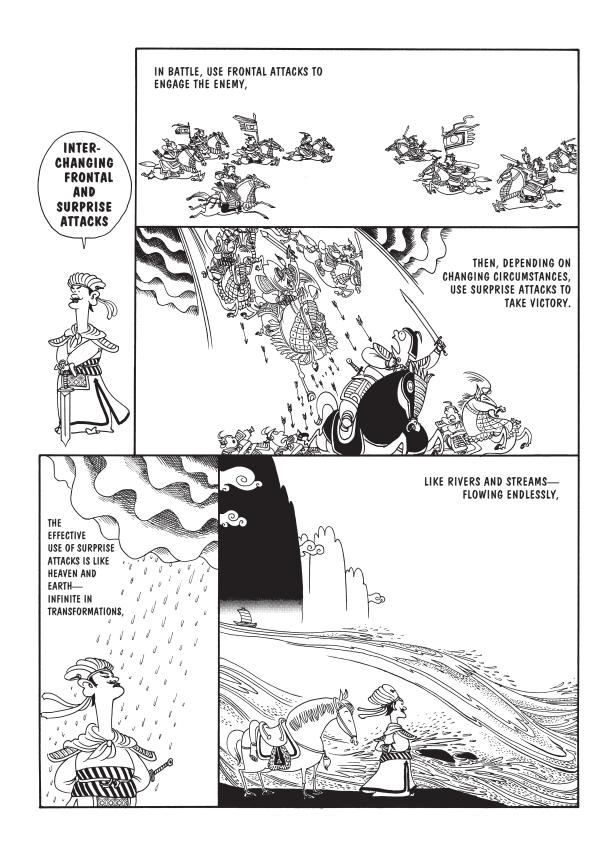


兵之所加, 孫子曰: 如 凡治眾如治寡, 虚實是也。 分數是也;關眾如關寡, 形名是也; 三軍之眾, 可使必受敵而無敗者, 奇正是也;

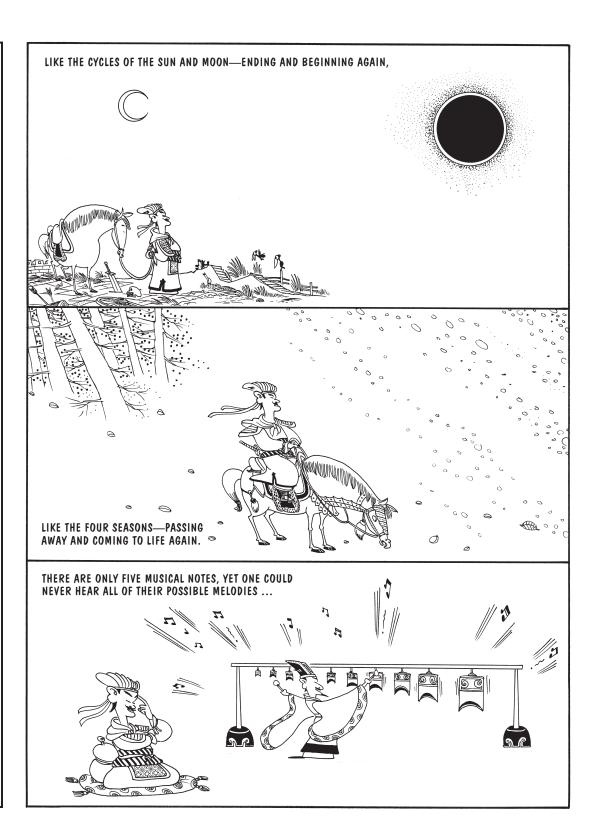
以暇投卵者,

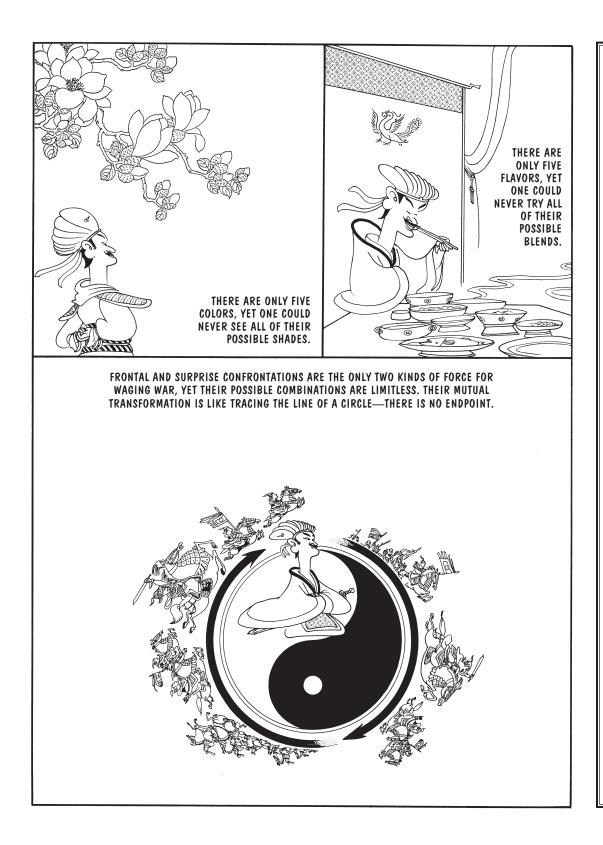






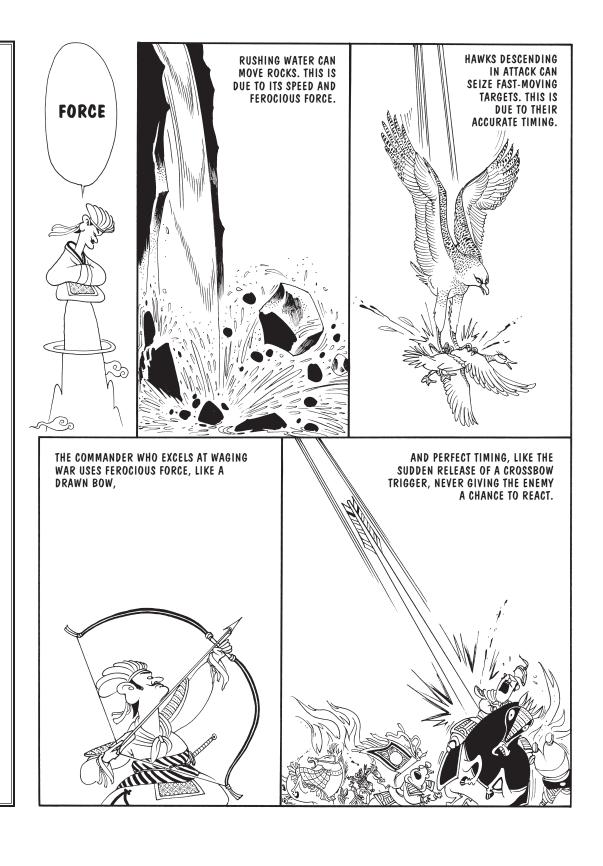






色不過五, 奇正相生, 五色之變, 如循環之無端, 不可勝觀也; 孰能窮之? 味不過五, 五味之變, 不可勝嘗也;戰勢不過奇正, 奇正之變, 不可勝窮也。

節如發機。 激水之疾, 至於漂石者, 勢也;鷙烏之疾, 至於毀折者, 節也。 是故善戰者, 其勢險, 其節短;勢如曠弩,





故善戰者,求之於勢,不責於人,故能擇人而任勢。

任勢者,其戰人也,

如轉木石。

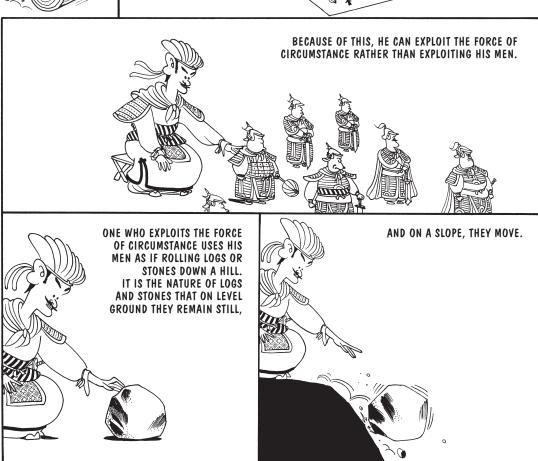
木石之性:安則靜,

危則



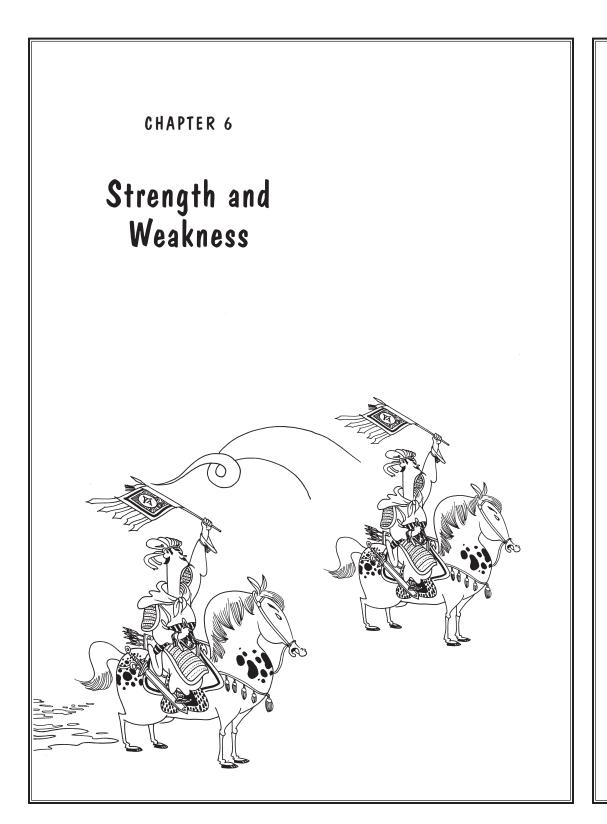
**CREATING** 

**FORCE** 



故善戰人之勢, 如轉圓石於千仞之山者,

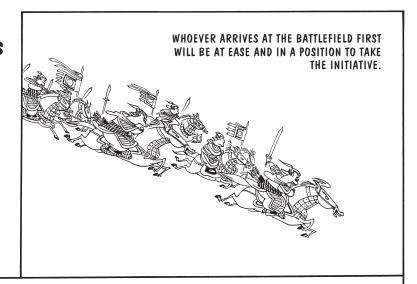


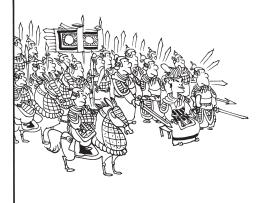


## 孫子曰: 凡先處戰地而待敵者佚 後處戰地而趨戰者勞。 故善戰者, 致人而不致於人。

## CONTROL OTHERS INSTEAD OF BEING CONTROLLED



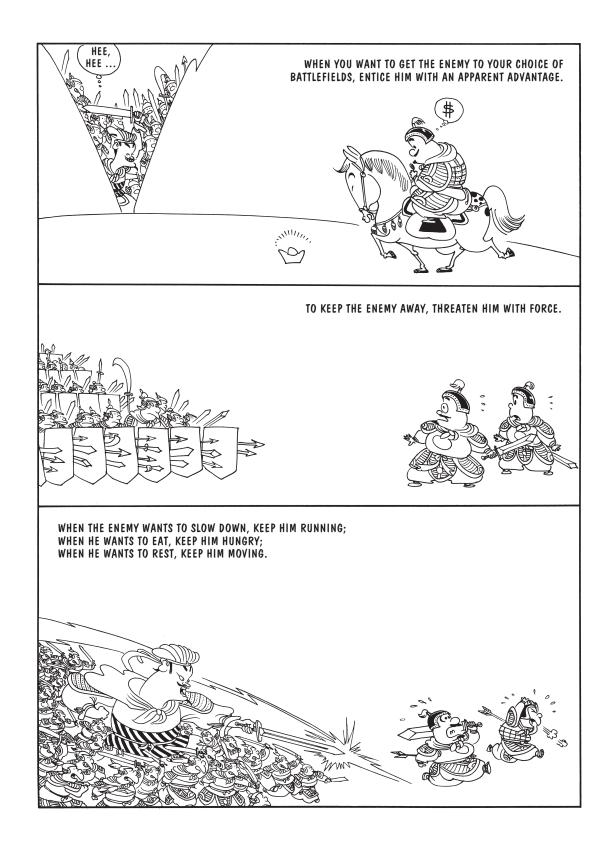




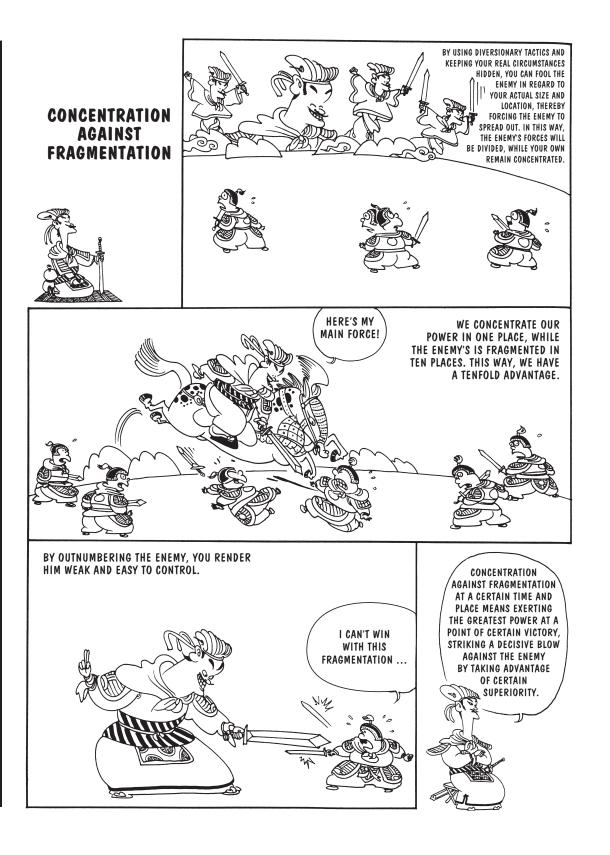
THE LATECOMER WILL HAVE TO RUSH TO MEET THE ENEMY ON THE BATTLEFIELD AND THUS WILL BE TIRED AND AT A DISADVANTAGE.

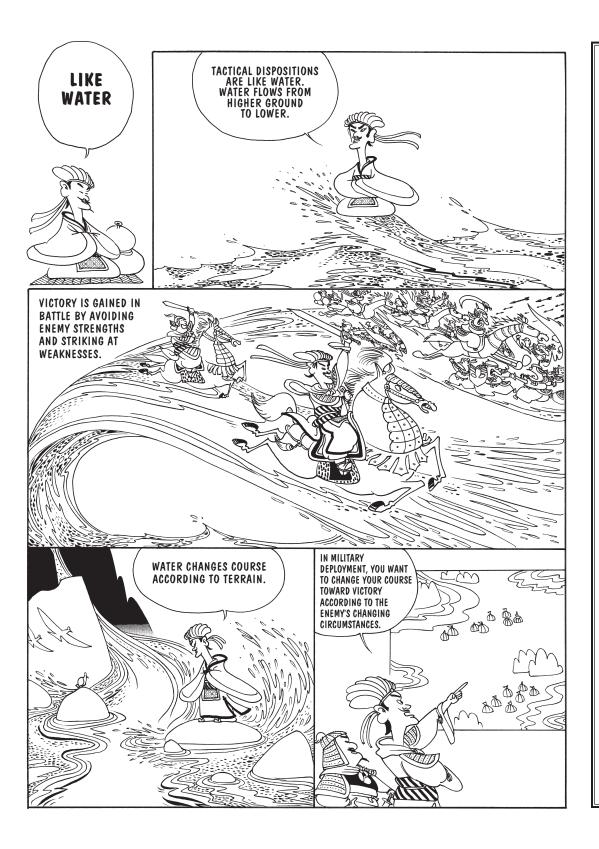






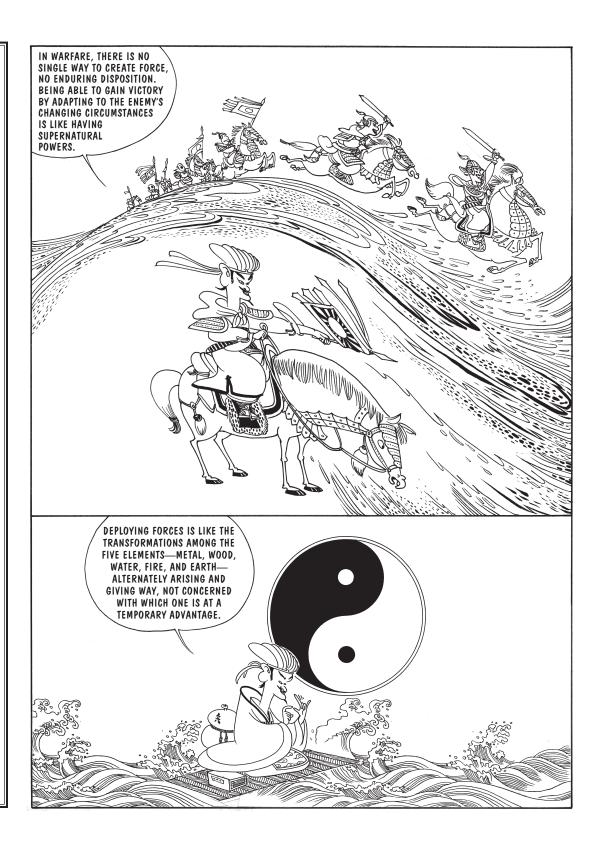
則吾之所與戰者約矣。 故形 人而我無形, 吾所與戰之地不可知, 則我專而敵分; 我專 為 不可 知 敵 分為十, 則敵所備者多; 是以十攻其 敵所備者多, 也 則 我眾而敵寡, 則吾所與戰者寡矣。 能以眾擊寡者





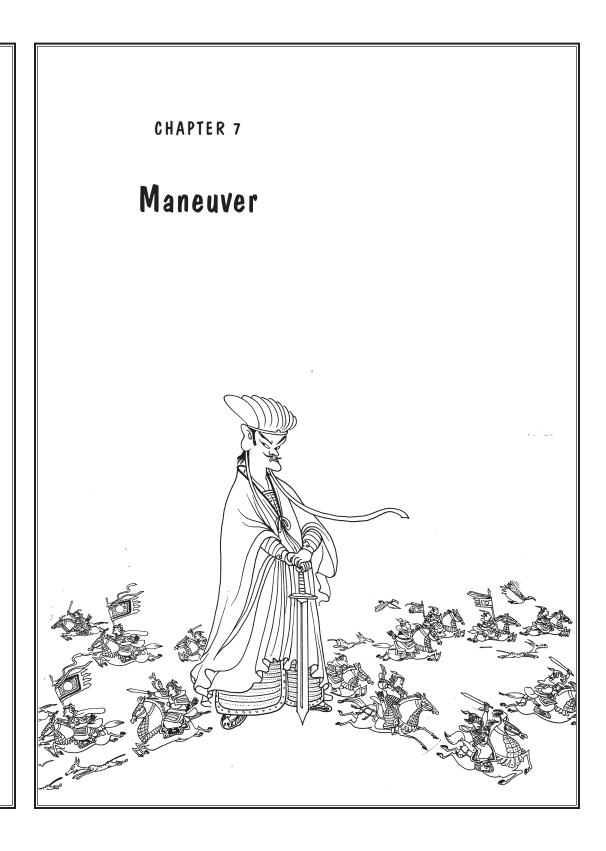
夫兵形象水, 水之形避高而趨下, 兵之形避實而擊虛。 水因地 而制 流 兵因敵而制勝。

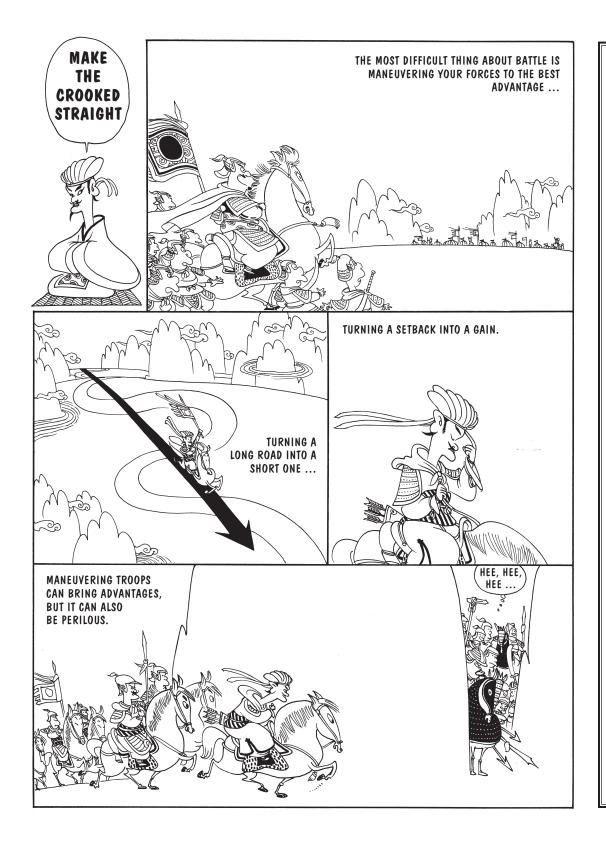
故五行無常勝,水無常形,能因敵變化而取勝者謂之神。





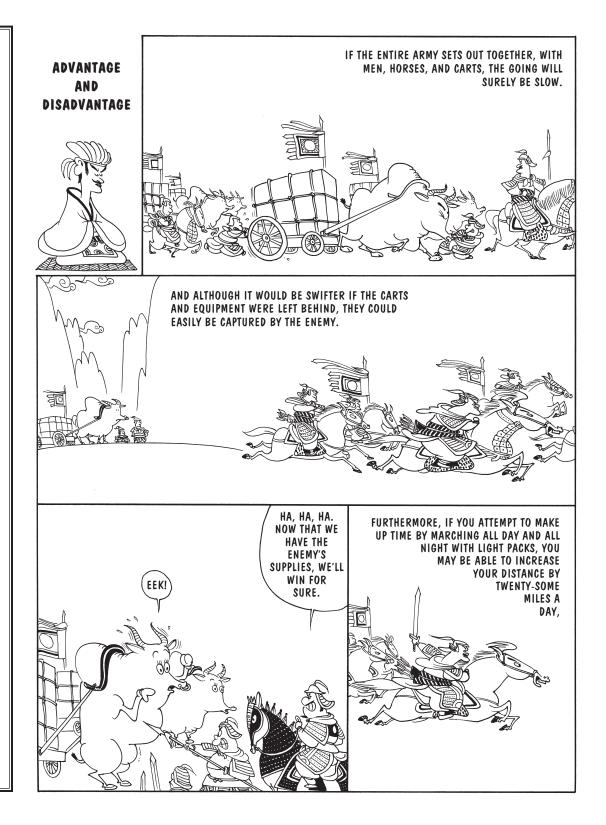




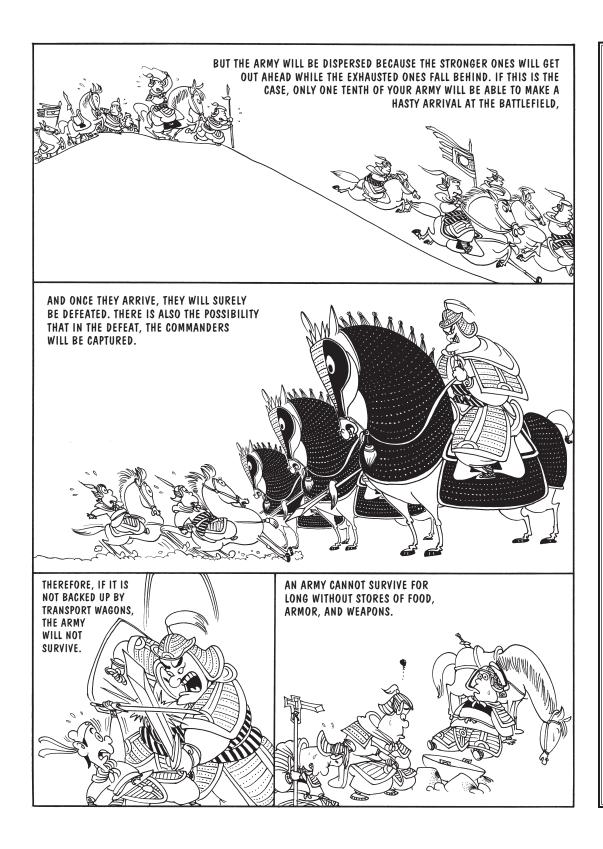


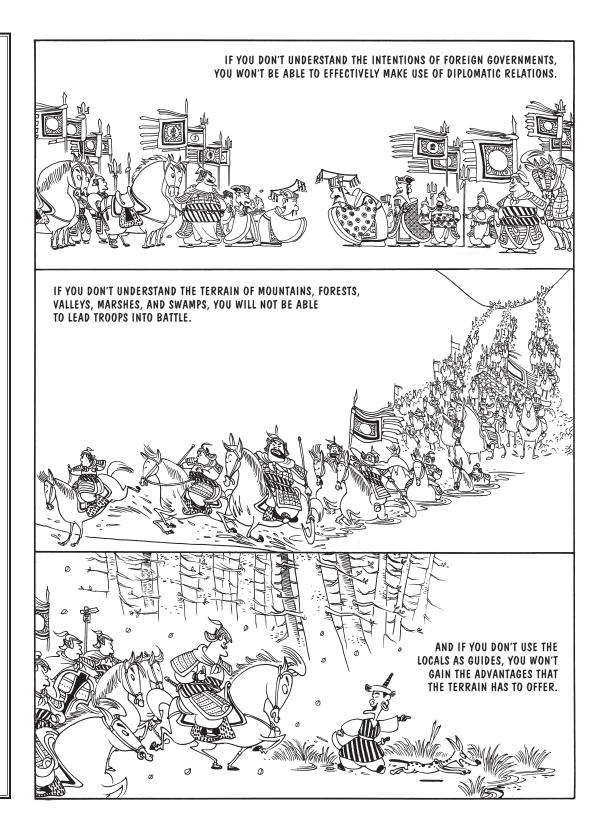
故迂其途而誘之以利, 孫子曰: 凡用兵之法, 將受命於君, 先人至, 合軍聚眾, 此知迂直之計者也。 交和而舍, 莫難於軍爭。 軍爭之難者, 以迂為直, 以患為利。

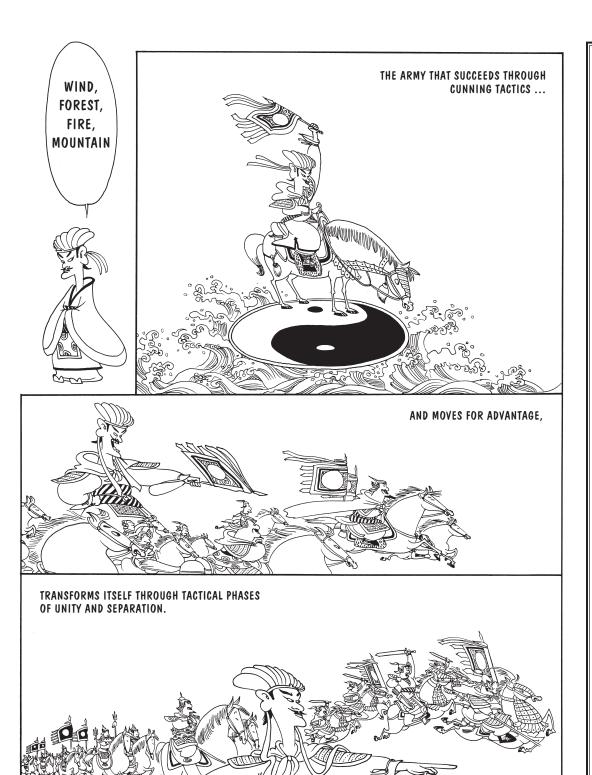
百里而爭利, 故軍爭為 利, 則擒三將軍 軍爭為危。 舉軍而爭利則不及, 委軍而爭利則輜重捐。 是故卷甲而趨, 日夜不處, 倍道兼行

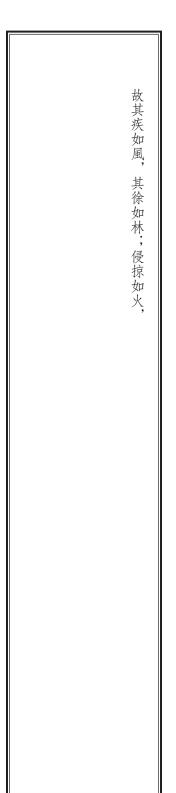


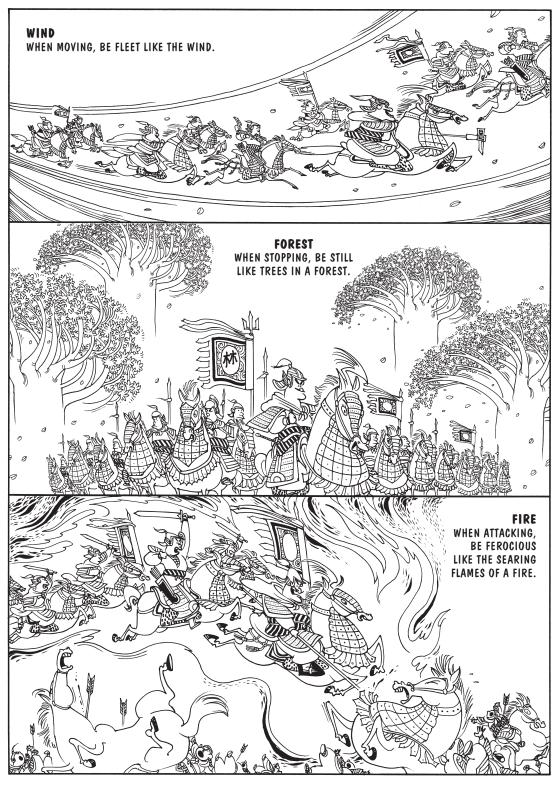


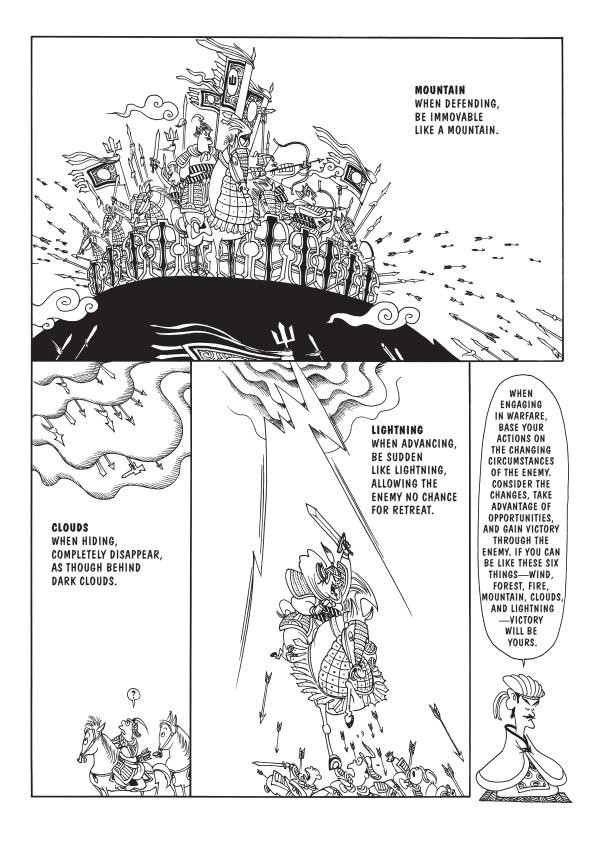




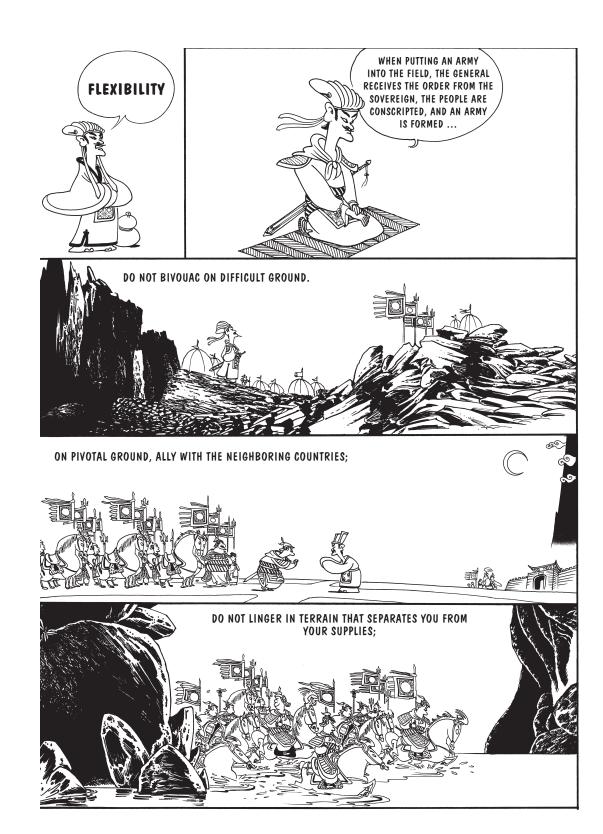




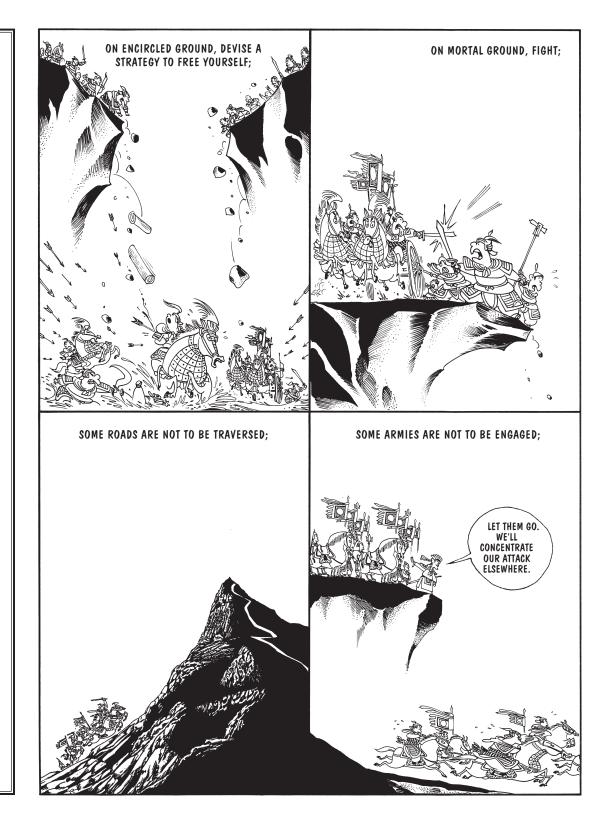


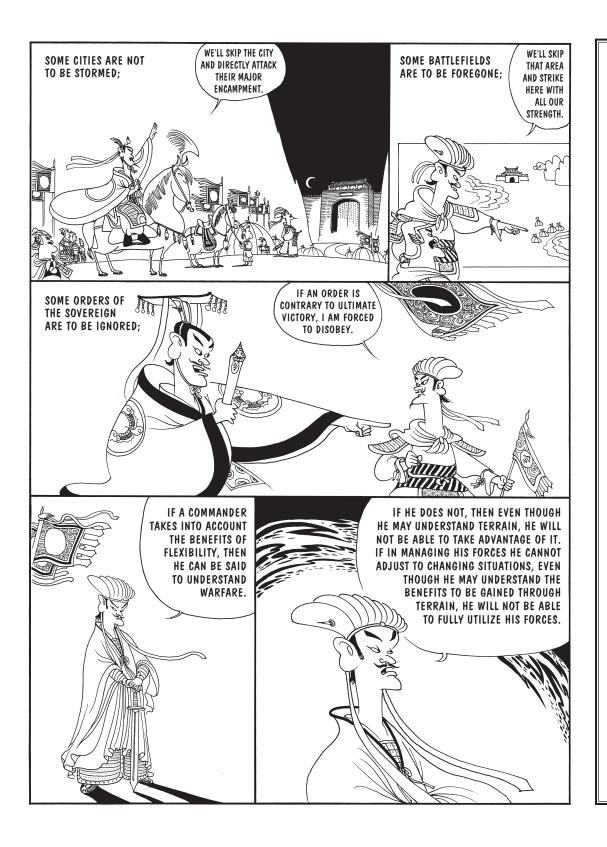


## CHAPTER 8 Flexibility



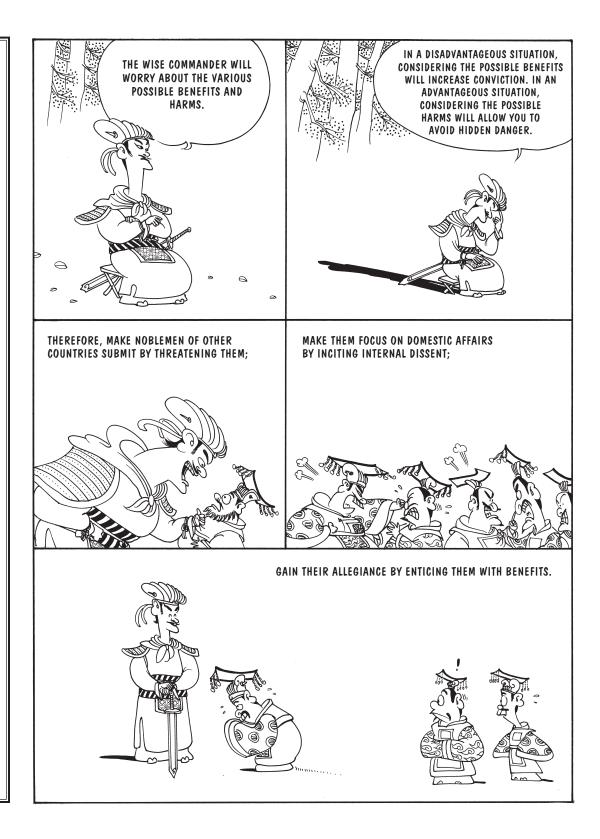
圍地則謀, 死地則戰。

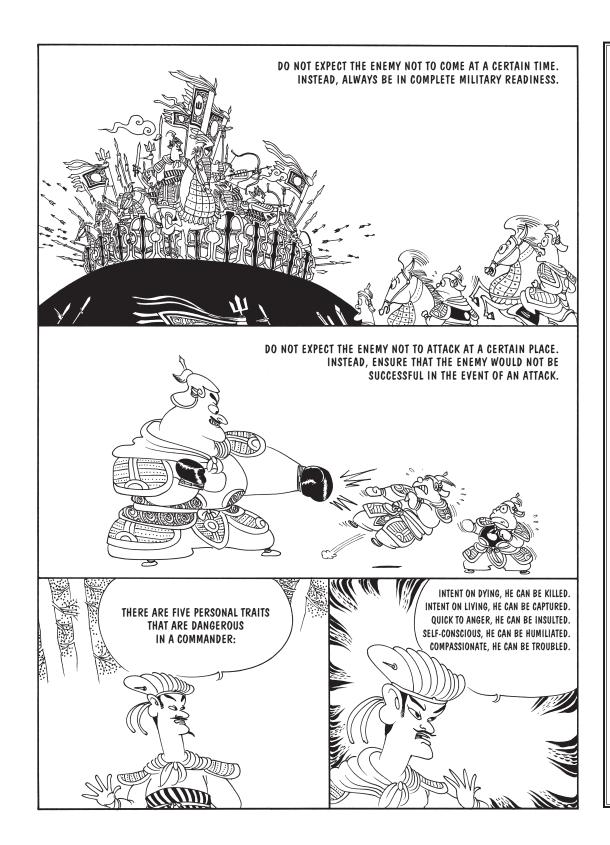




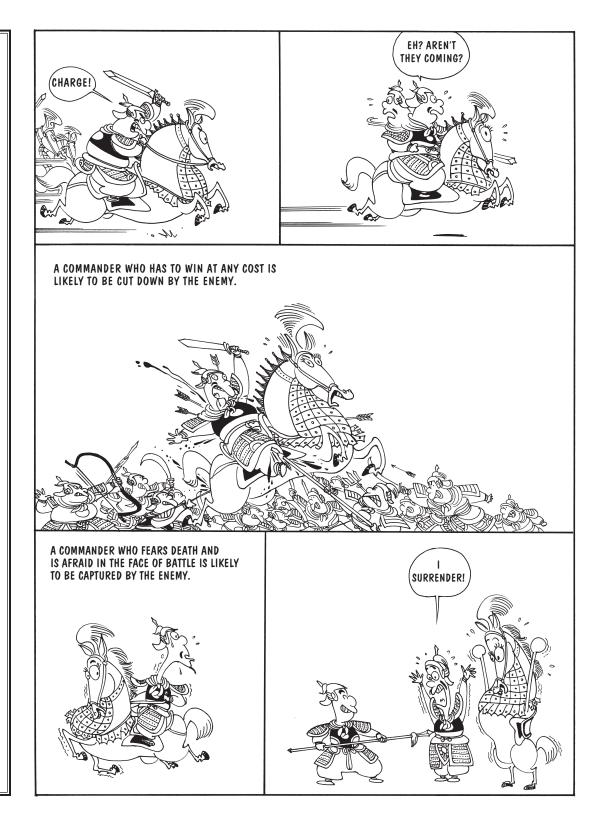
雖 城 知 有所不攻, 五利, 故將通於九變之利 不能得人之用矣。 地 有所不爭, 者, 君命有所不受。 知用兵矣;將不通於九變之利者, 雖 知 (地形, 不能得地之利矣;治兵不知九變之術

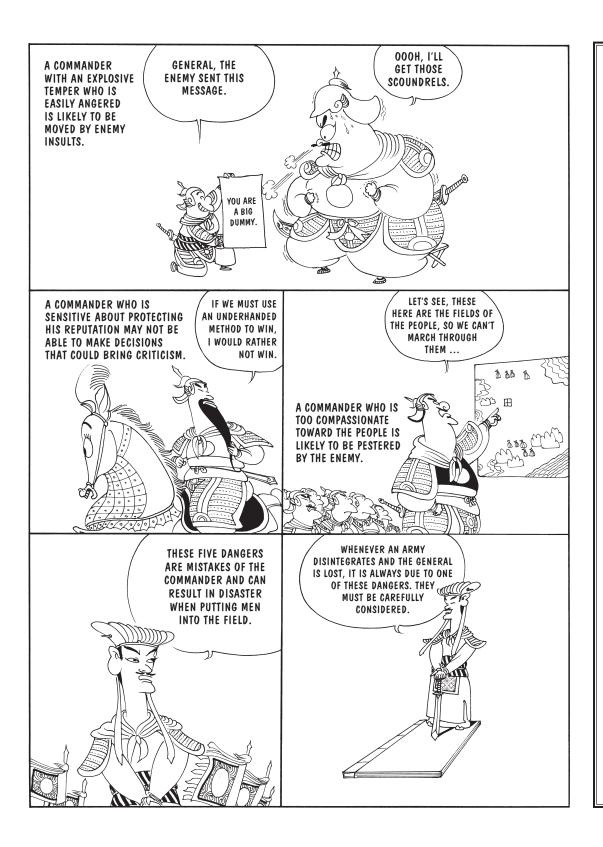
是故屈諸侯者以害, 是故智者之慮 必雜於利害; 役諸侯者以業, 雜於利而務可信也, 趨諸侯者以利。 雜於害而患可解也







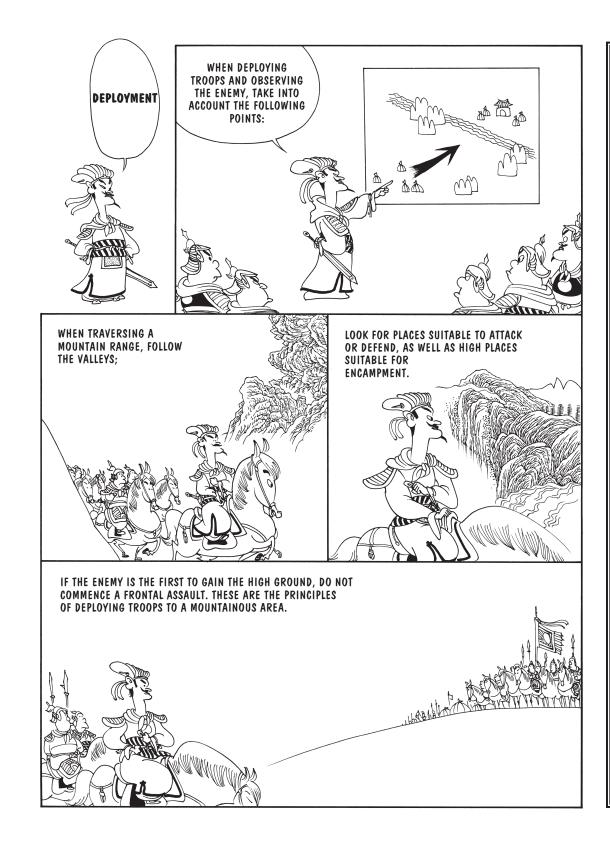




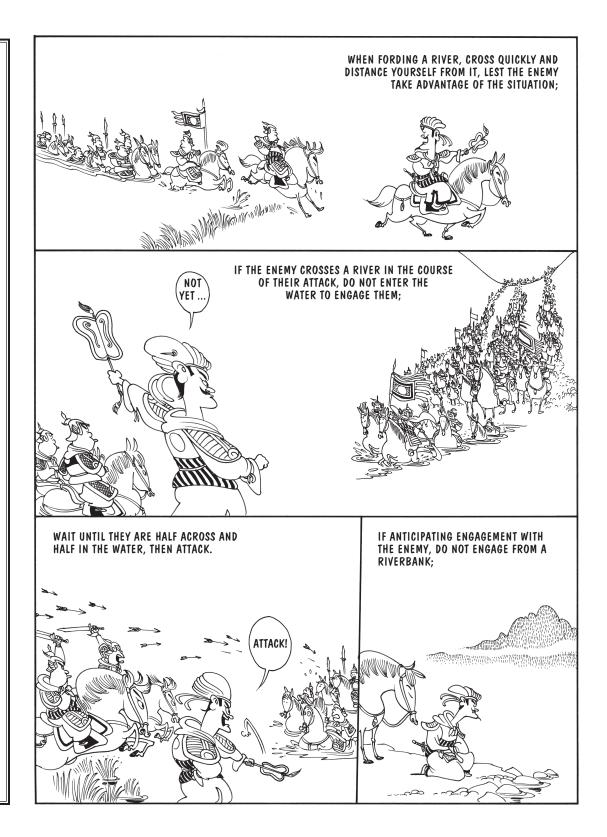
凡此五者, 忿速可侮也, 將之過也 廉 潔 可辱 也, 用兵之災也。 愛民可煩也。 覆軍殺將, 必以五危, 不可不察也。

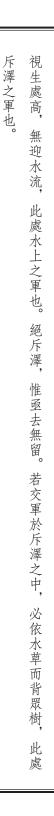
## CHAPTER 9 On the March

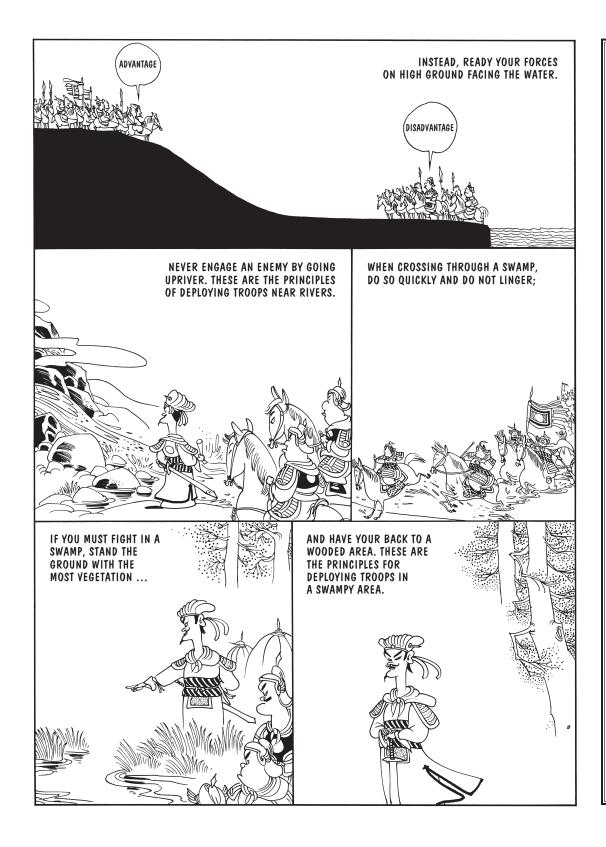




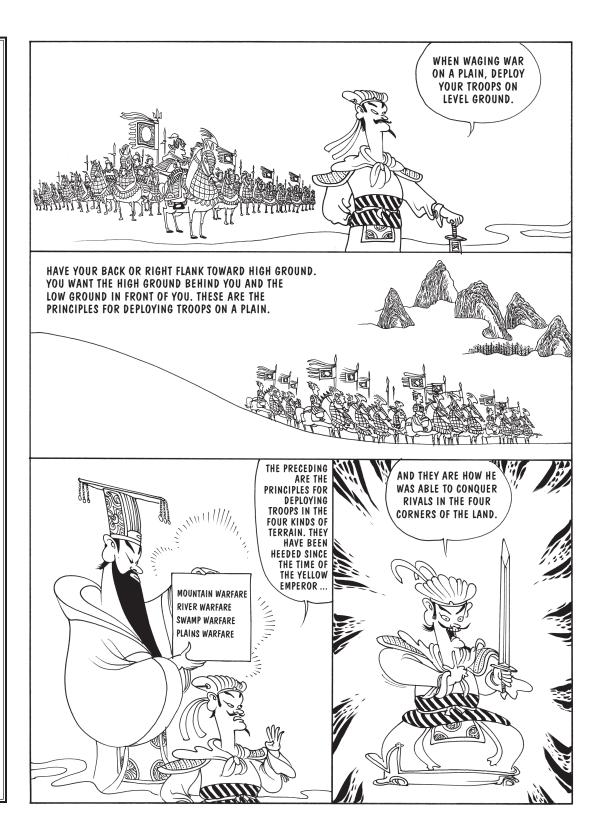


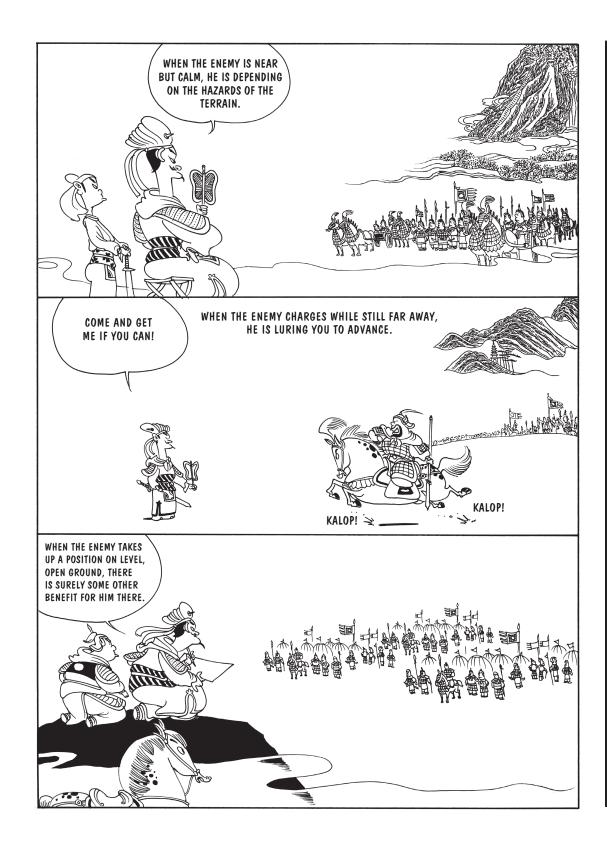




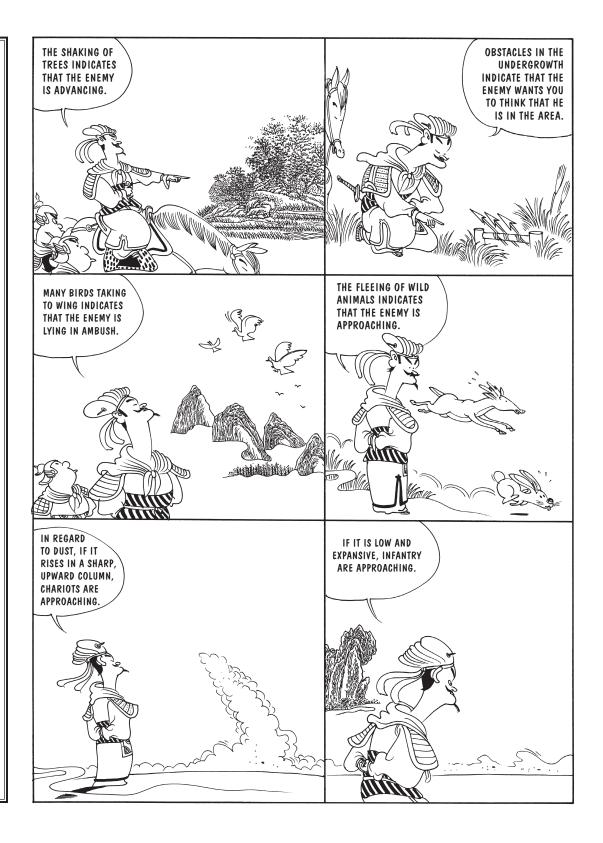


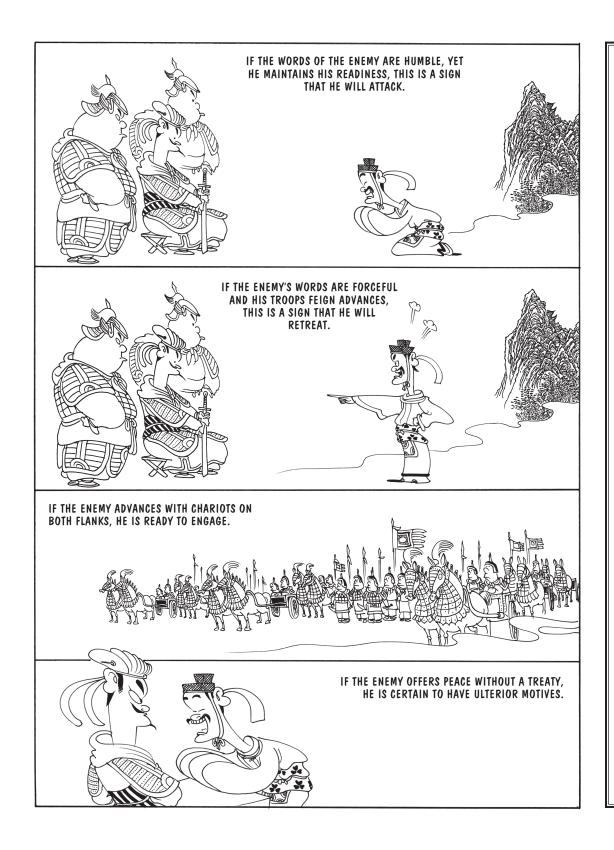
平陸處易, 而右背高, 前死後生, 此處平陸之軍也。 凡此四軍之利, 黄帝之所以勝四帝也。

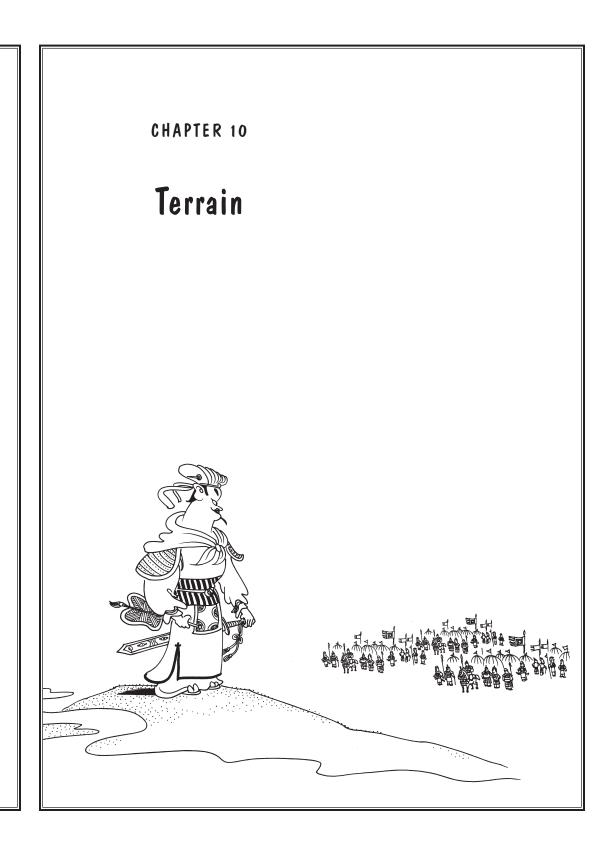


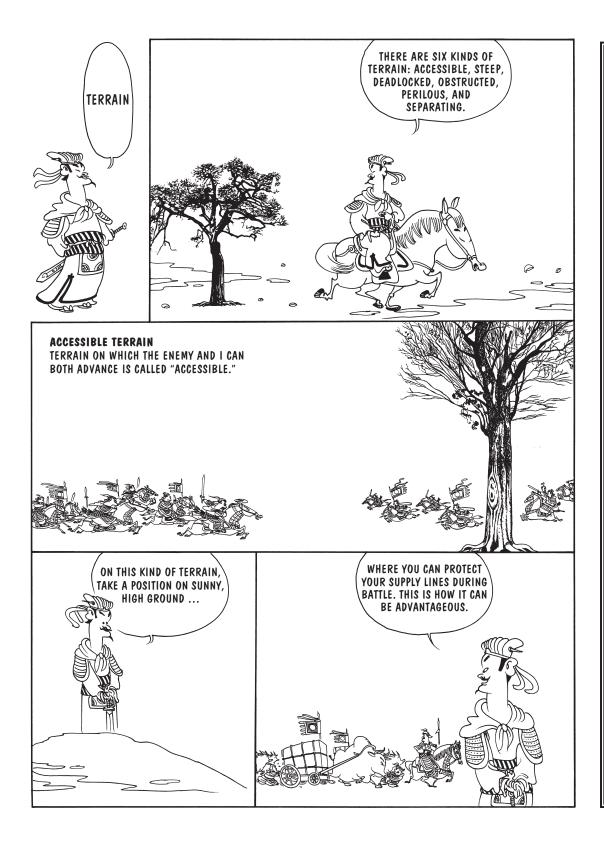












孫子 日 地形有通者, 有挂者, 有支者, 有隘者, 有險者, 有遠者。 我可以往, 彼可以來, 曰 通; 通形者

先居高陽,

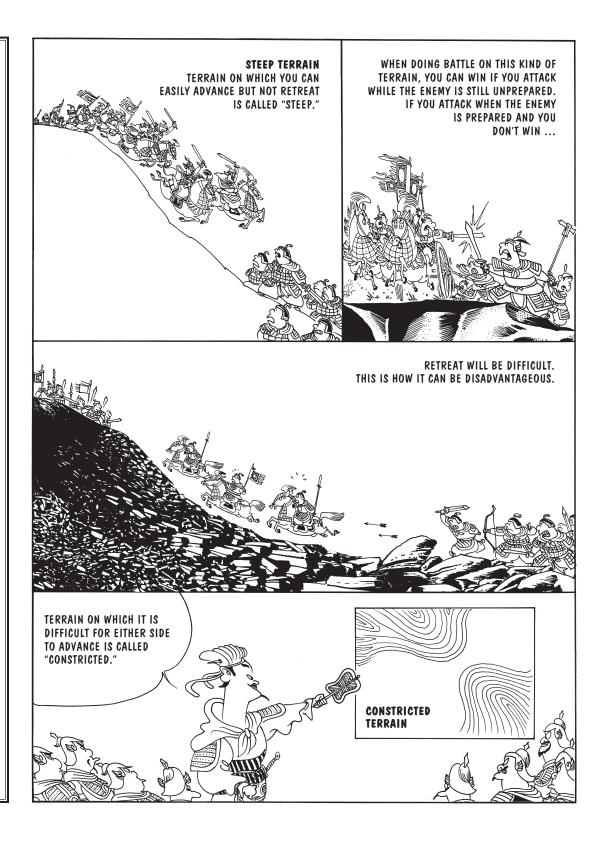
利糧道,

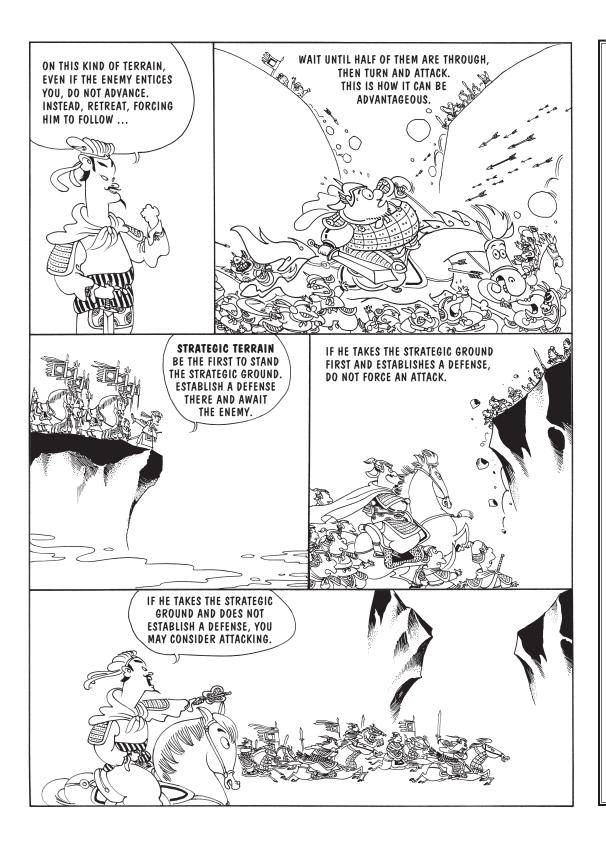
以戰則利。

可 以 往, 難以返, 曰挂;挂形者, 敵無備 出而勝之; 敵若有備 出 而不勝 難以返, 不利。 我出而不利

彼出而不利,

曰支;



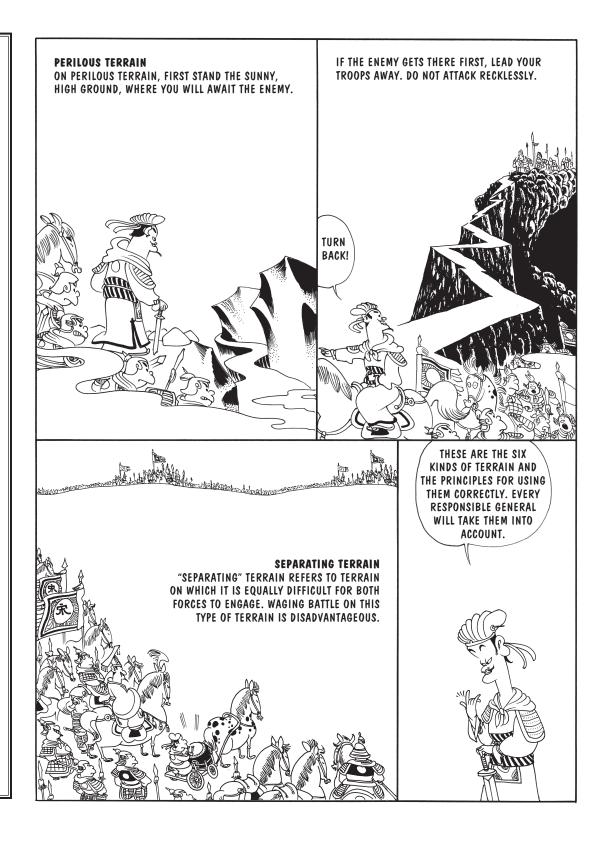


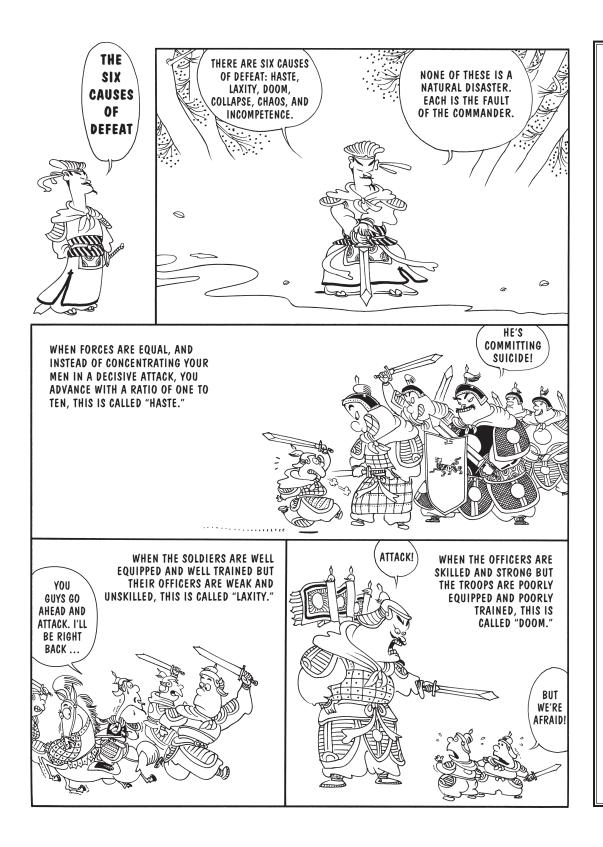
支形者, 敵 雖利我, 我無出 也, 引而去之, 令敵半出而擊之, 隘形者, 我先居之, 必盈之以待敵; 若敵先居之

盈而勿從,

不盈而從之。

險形 凡此六者, 者, 我先居之, 地之道也, 必居高陽以待 將之至任, 敵; 不可不察也。 若敵先居之, 引而去之, 勿從也。 遠形者, 勢均, 難以挑戰, 戰而不利。





故兵有走者, 有驰者, 有陷 者, 有 崩 者, 有亂 者, 有北者。 凡此六者, 非天之災,將之過也。 夫勢均, 以

日

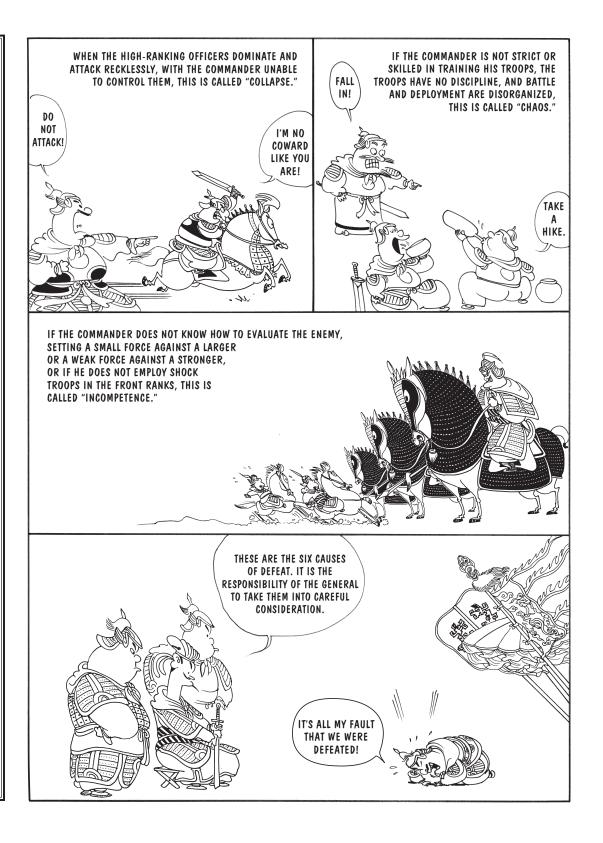
走;卒強吏弱,

曰驰;

吏強卒弱

曰

大吏怒而不 以少合眾 服, 以弱擊強, 遇 )敵懟 而自戰, 兵無選鋒 將 不 曰 知 北。 其 能, 凡此六者, 曰 崩 將弱不嚴,教道不明, 敗之道也, 將之至任, 吏卒 -無常, 不可不察也。 陳兵縱橫, 日 亂 將不能料敵



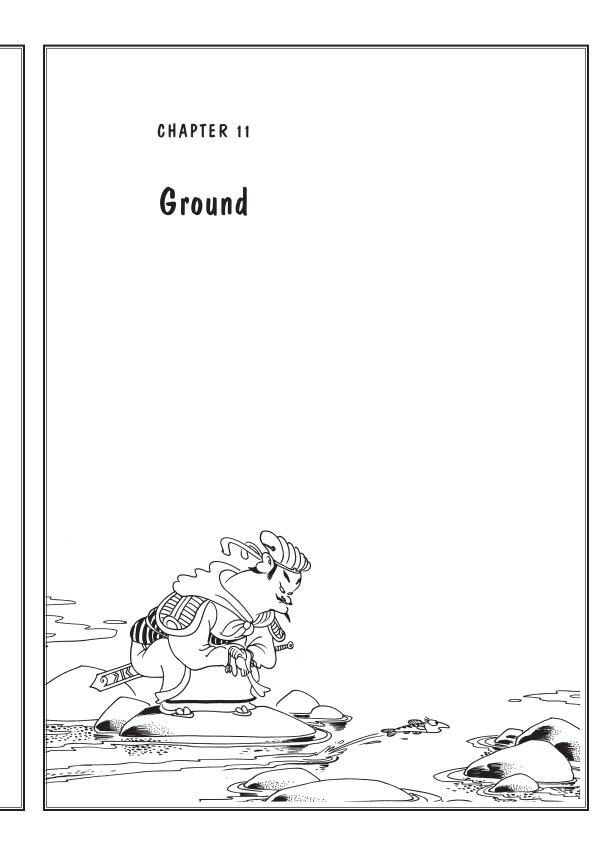


故戦 夫地 道必 形 者, 勝 兵之助 主曰無戰 也。 必 敵 戦 制 勝 可 也; 計 戰 險 道不勝, 阨 遠 近, 主日 將 1必戰, 之道也。 無戦 知 可也。 此 而 用 戰 故進不求名, 者必勝, 不 知 退不避罪 此 而 用戦 者必敗。

而

利合於主,

國之寶也。



IF YOUR ARMY IS BATTLING IN YOUR OWN TERRITORY, THIS IS CALLED "DISPERSIVE GROUND." IF YOU ENTER A SHORT DISTANCE ACROSS THE BORDER, THIS IS CALLED "SHALLOW GROUND." WHEN YOU CAN ADVANCE TOWARD THE ENEMY AND THE ENEMY CAN ADVANCE TOWARD YOU, THIS IS CALLED "COMMUNICATING GROUND."

STRATEGIES OF GROUND



WHEN SENDING THE
MILITARY INTO THE FIELD,
THERE ARE NINE KINDS OF
GROUND TO CONSIDER:
DISPERSIVE, SHALLOW,
CONTENTIOUS, PIVOTAL, DEEP,
DIFFICULT, ENCIRCLED,
AND MORTAL.





WHEN BOTH SIDES HAVE GAINED THE

SAME ADVANTAGEOUS POSITION, THIS

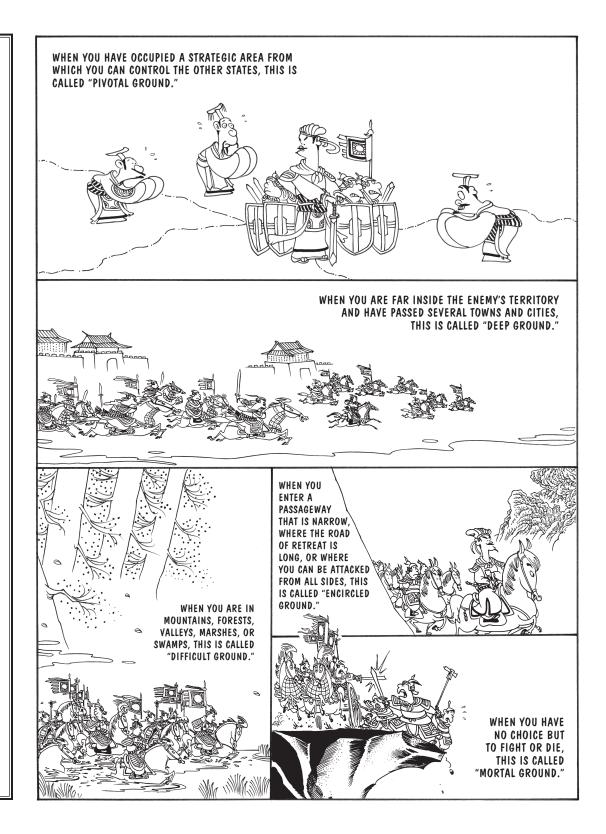
用兵之法: 入人之地而不深者. 有散地, 有輕地: 為輕地;我得則利、 有爭地: 有交地, 有 彼得亦利者, 衢地, 有重地, 為爭地; 有圯地, 我可以往、 有 圍地 彼可以來者 有死 地。 諸

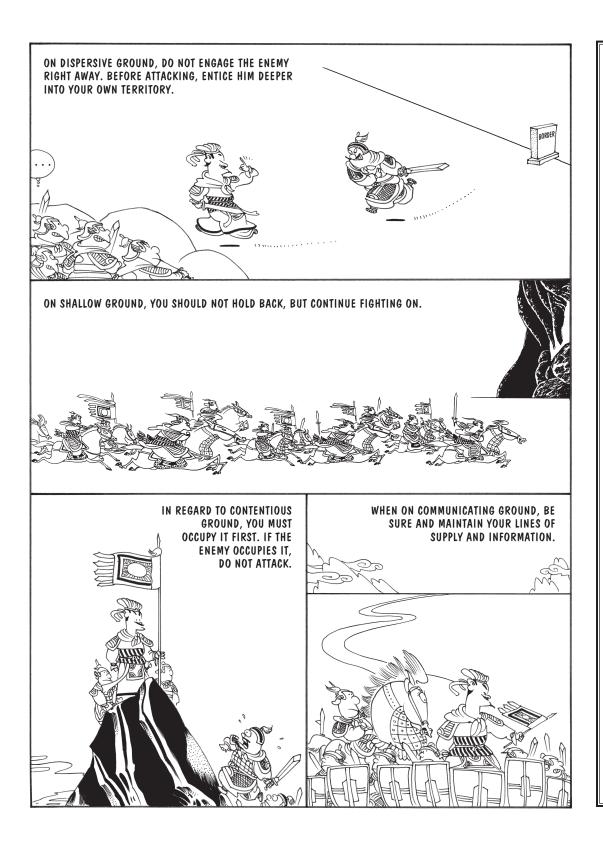
侯自

地,

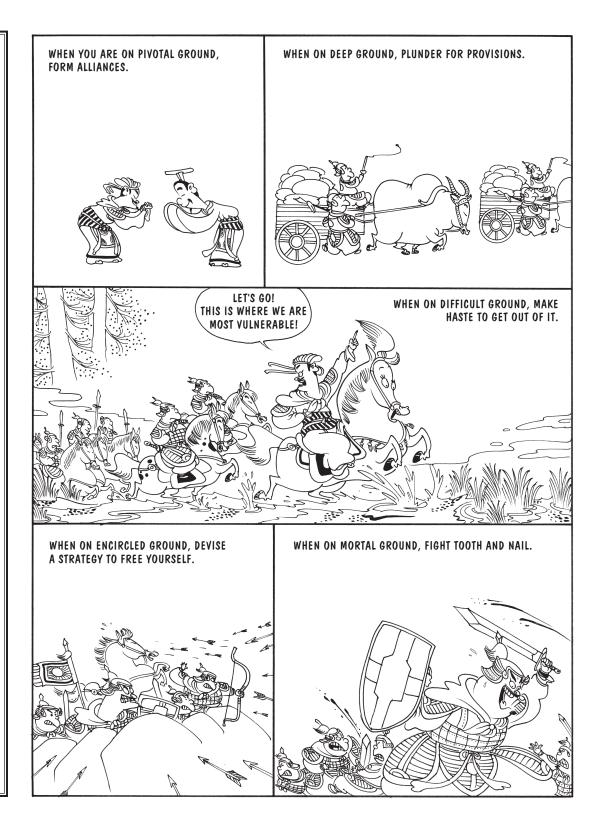
孫子曰:

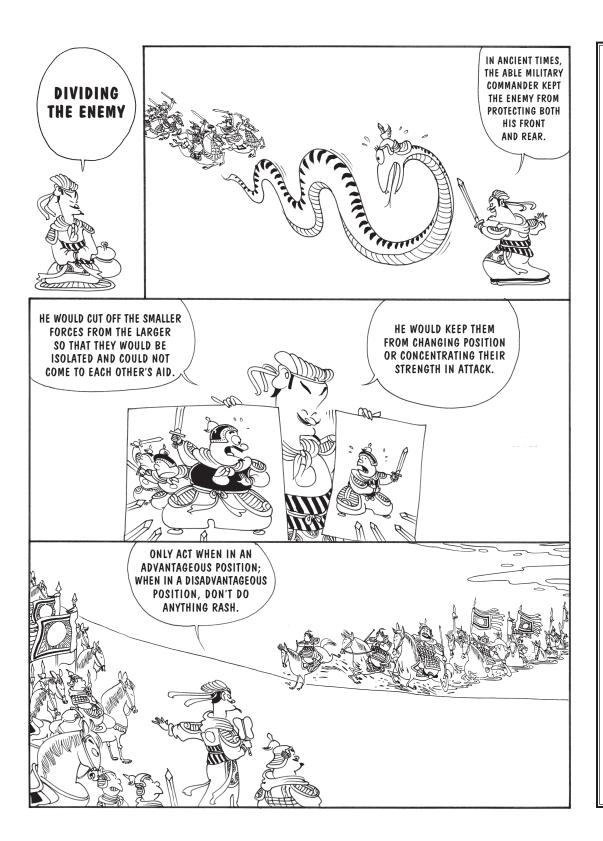
諸侯之地三屬 難行之道者, 為圯地; 先至而得天下之眾者, 所由入者隘, 所從歸者迂, 為衢地; λ 人之地深、 彼寡可以擊吾之眾者, 背城邑多者, 為圍地; 為重地; 疾戰則存, 行 山 林、 險 不疾戰則亡者 阻 沮 澤 凡









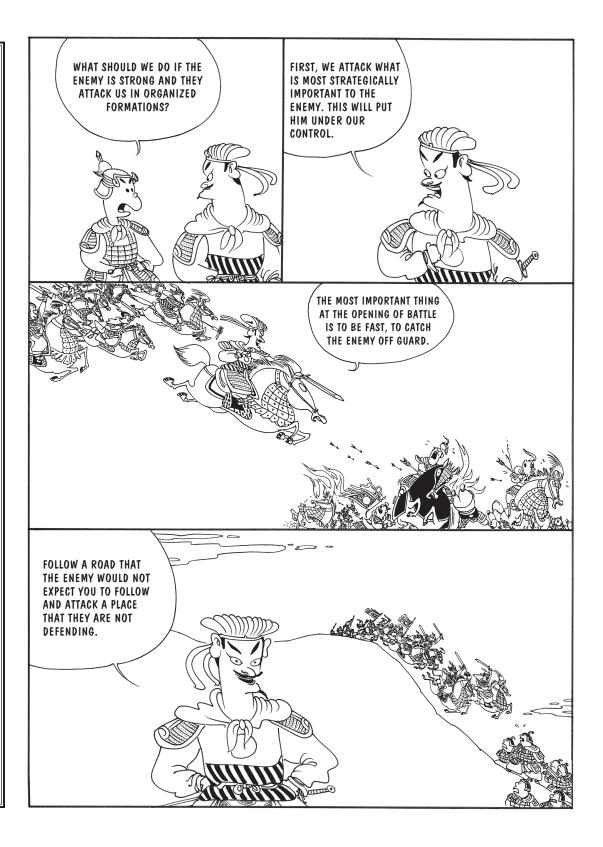


所謂古之善用兵者, 能使敵人前後不相及, 眾寡不相恃, 貴賤不相救, 上下不相收, 卒離而不集, 兵合而不齊。

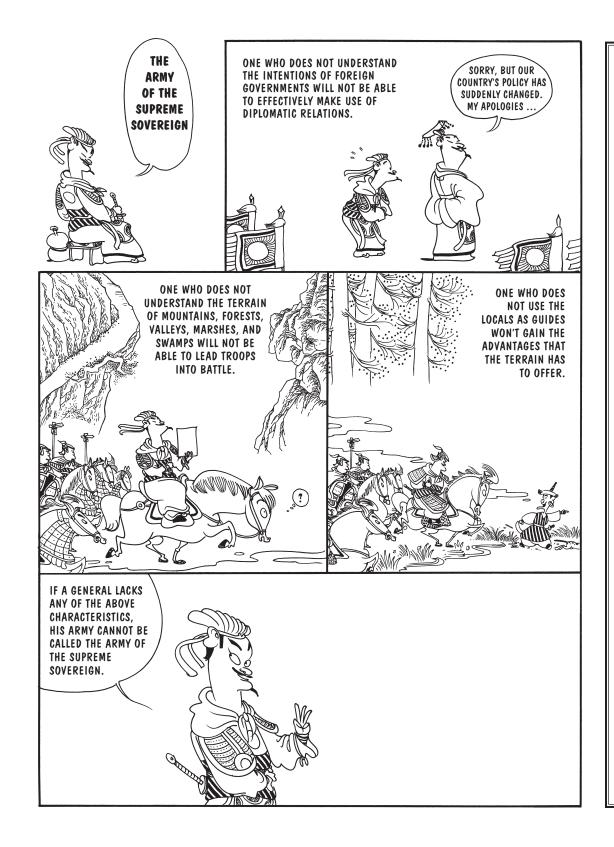
合於利而動,

不合於利而止。

兵之情, 敢問敵眾整而將來, 主速乘人之不及, 待之若何?曰:先奪其所愛, 由不虞之道, 攻其所不戒也。 則聽矣。

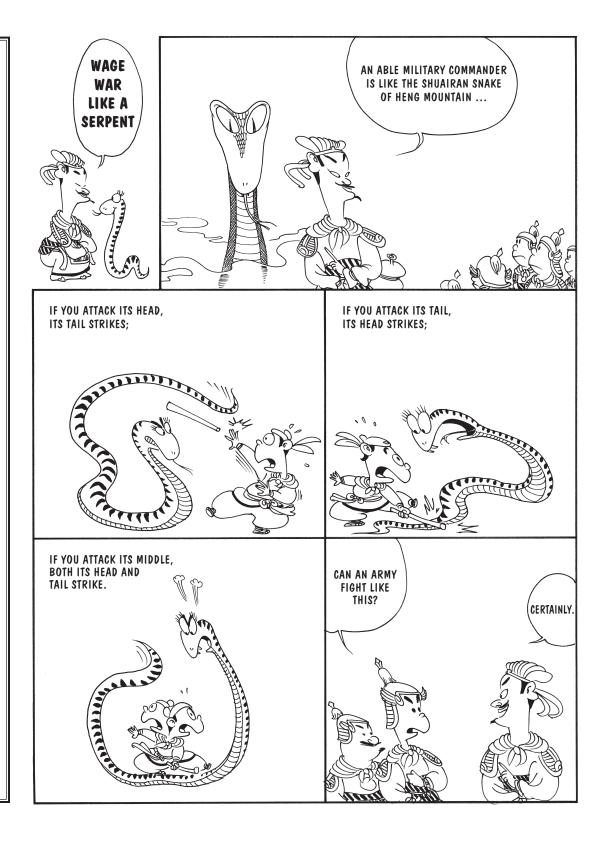


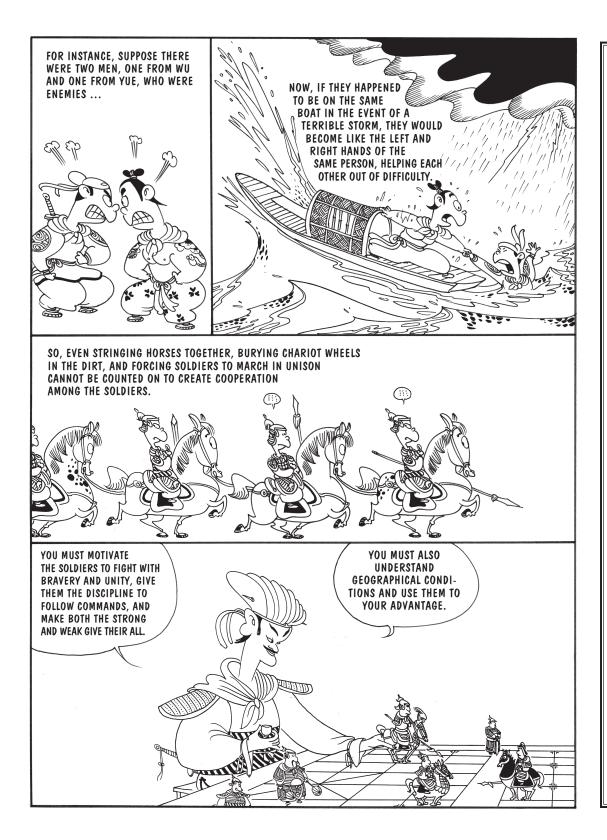




兵可使如率然乎?曰:可。 故善用兵者, 如率然; 率然者, 常山之蛇也, 擊其首則尾至, 擊其尾則首至, 擊其中則首尾俱至。 敢

問





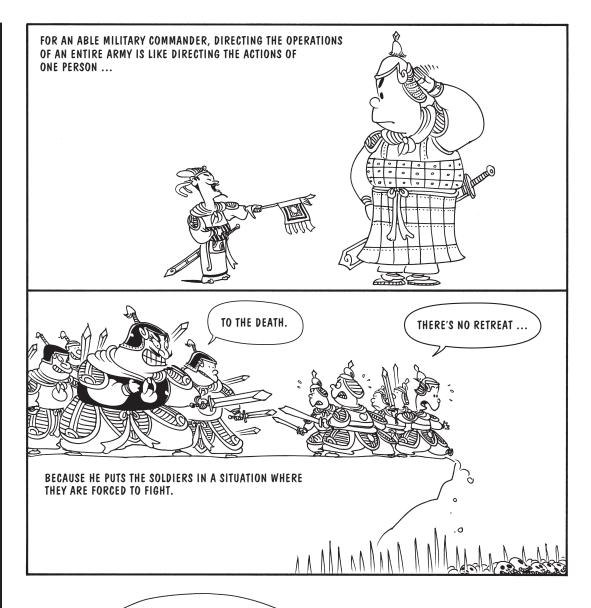
夫吳人 與越 人 相 惡也, 當其同 舟 而 濟 遇 其 相 也 如 (左右手。 是故方馬埋輪 未足恃也;齊勇若

政之道也;

剛柔皆得

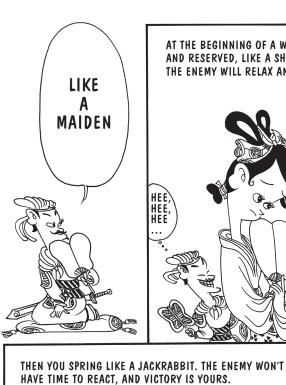
地之理也。

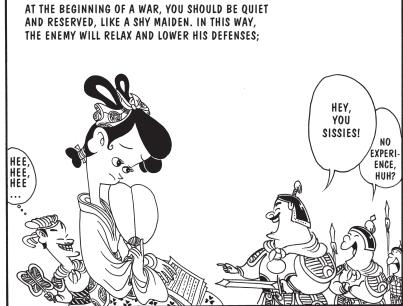
故善用兵者,攜手若使一人,不得已也。



THE GREAT COMMANDER OF A
LARGE FORCE IS ABLE TO RALLY HIS
SOLDIERS TO ACT WITH ONE MIND, GOING
THROUGH THICK AND THIN, AND HELPING
EACH OTHER OUT OF TROUBLE. HE DOES THIS
BY PLACING THEM ON "MORTAL GROUND,"
THUS GIVING THEM NO CHOICE BUT
TO FIGHT OR DIE.

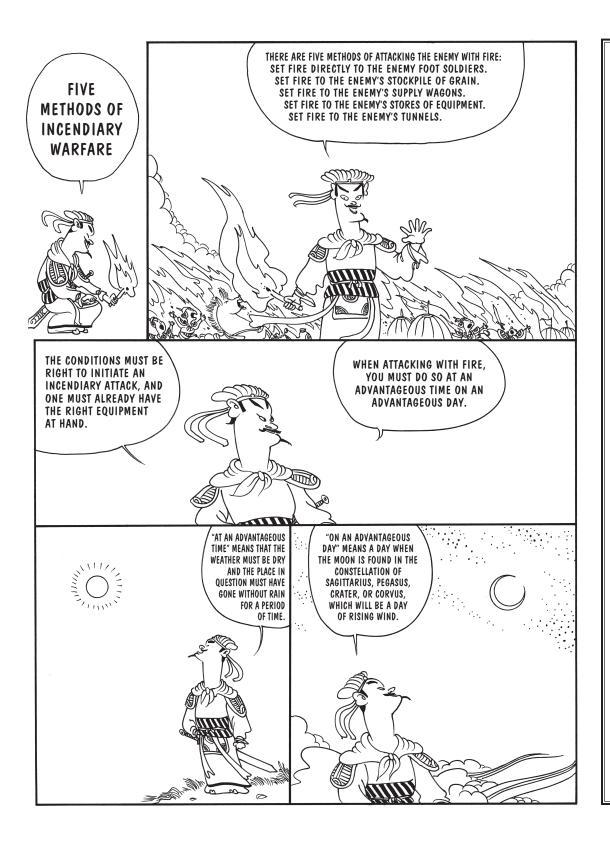






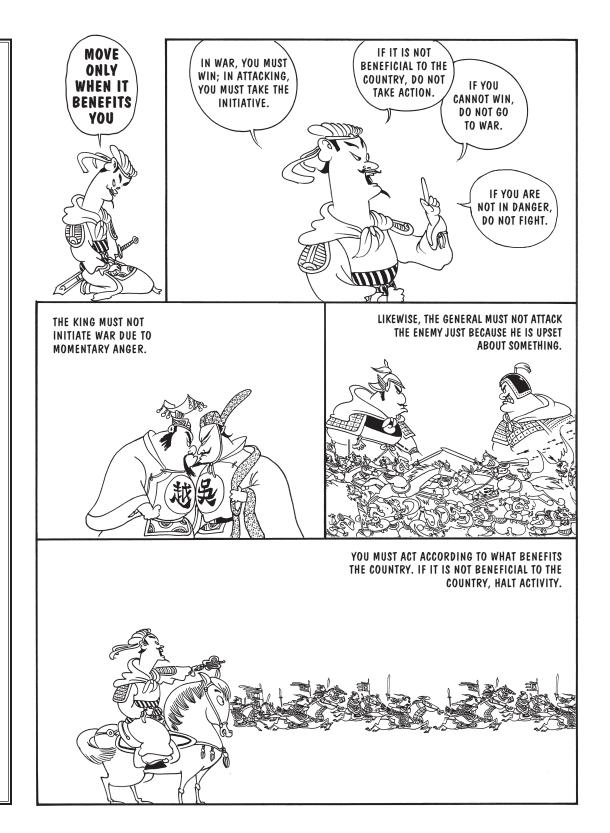


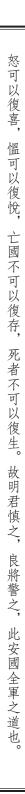
## CHAPTER 12 Incendiary Warfare

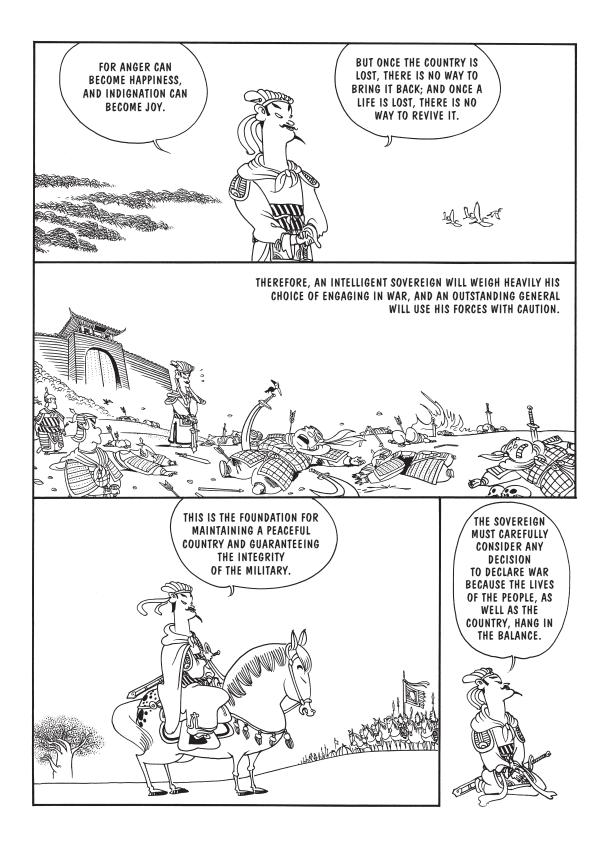


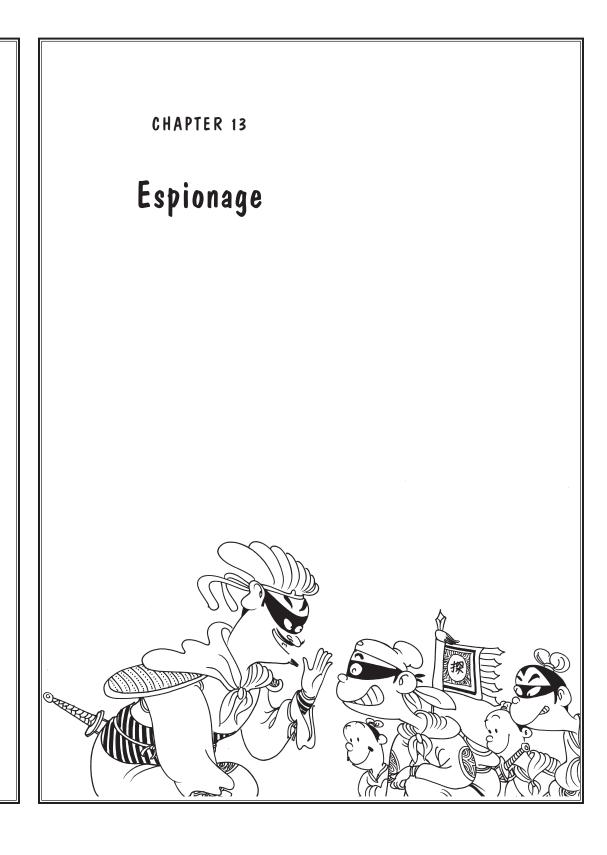
發火有時, 孫子 日 起火有日。 凡火攻有五: 時者 天之燥也; 日 火 日者, 曰 1火積, 月在箕壁翼軫也, 三日 火輜 四 日 凡 火庫, 此四宿者, 五 日 [火隊。 風起之日也。 行火必有因, 煙火必素具。

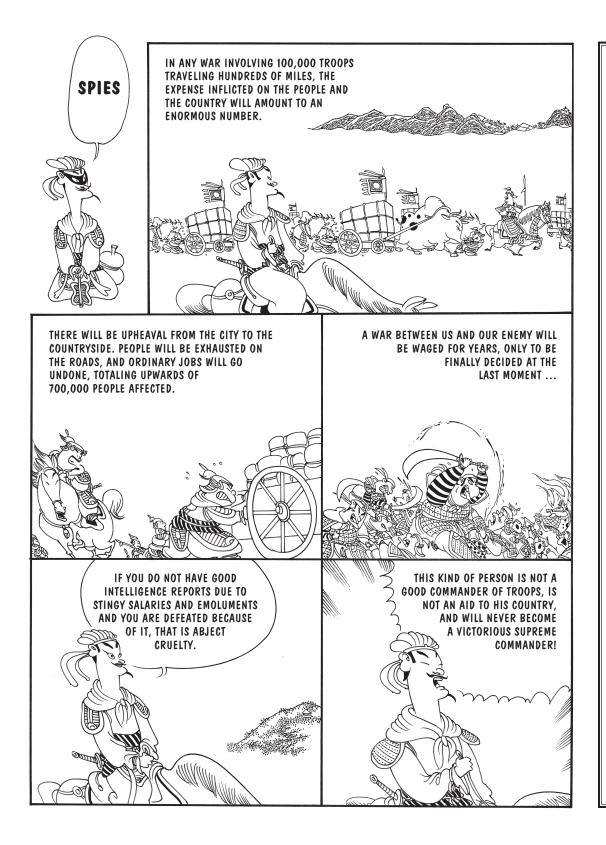






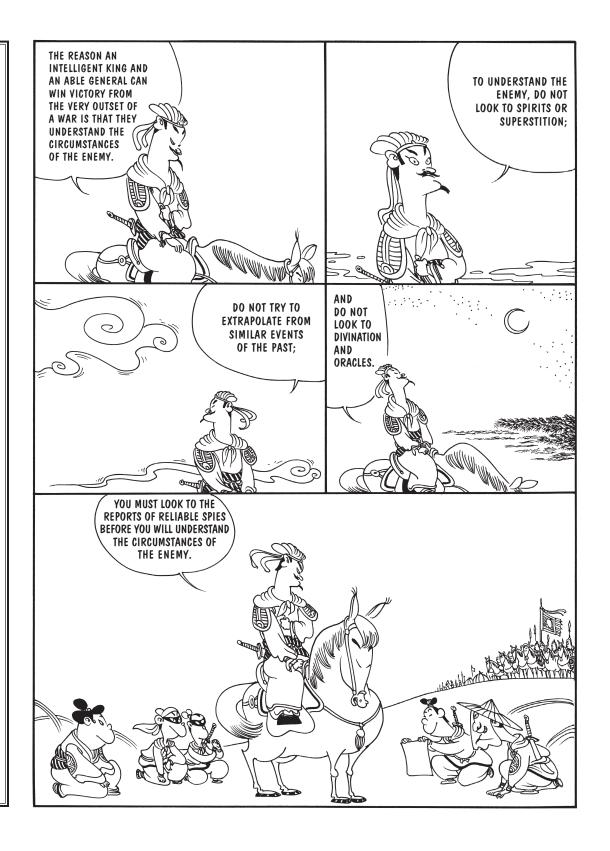






相守數年, 孫子 Ė 以爭 凡興師十萬 一日之勝 出征千里, 而愛爵祿百金, 百姓之費, 不知敵之情者, 公家之奉, 日費千金, 不仁之至也, 內外騷動, 非人之將也, 怠於道路, 非主之佐也, 不得操事者七十萬家 非勝之主也。

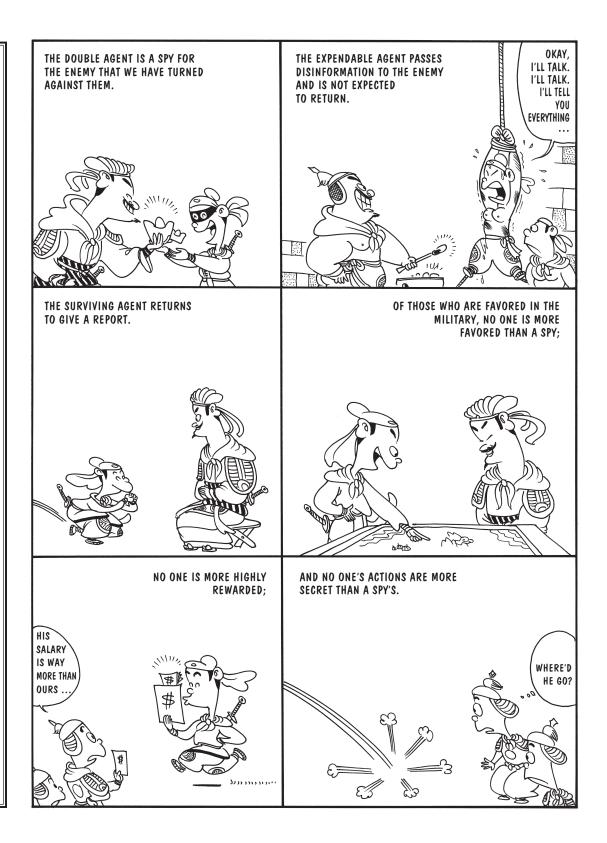
必取於人知敵之情者也。 故明君賢將 所 以動 而勝人, 成功出於眾者, 先知也。 先知 者, 不可取於鬼神, 不可象於事, 不可驗於度





間 者, 用 間 因其鄉人而用之; 有五: 有 因 間 內間者, 有 內 間 因其官人而用之: 有 反間. 有死間, 有生間。 五間 程規起, 莫知其道, 是謂神紀, 人君之寶也。

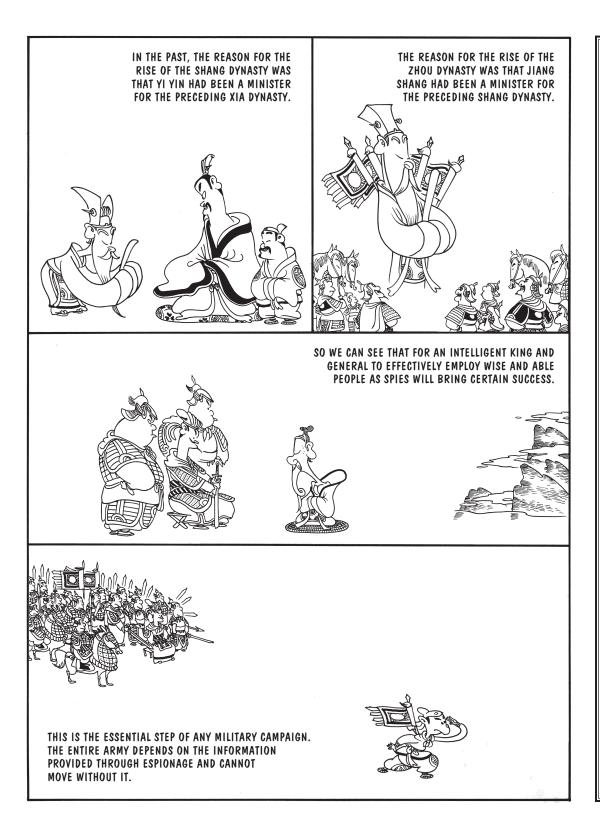
反 間 故三軍之事, 者, 因 其敵間而用之; 莫親於間, 死間者, 賞莫厚於間, 為誑事於外, 事莫密於間。 令吾間知之, 而傳於敵間也; 生間者, 反報也。





因是而知之, 故反間不可不厚也 必索敵人之間來間我者, 凡軍之所欲擊, 故死間為誑 城之所欲攻, 事, 因 可使告敵; 1而利之, 人之所欲殺, 導而舍之, 因是而知之, 必先知其守將、 故反間可得而用也;因是而知之, 故生間可使如期。 左右、 謁者、 五間之事, 門者、 舍人之姓名, 主必知之, 故鄉間、 內間可得而使也 知之必在於反間 令吾間必索知之。

EVEN MORE IMPORTANTLY, YOU MUST FIND OUT WHO THE ENEMY'S SPIES ARE AND TRY TO BUY THEM OVER TO YOUR SIDE. WHETHER YOU WANT TO ATTACK A CERTAIN PLACE, LAY SIEGE TO A CITY, OR ASSASSINATE SOMEONE, YOU MUST FIRST HAVE A SPY FIND OUT THE NAMES OF THE COMMANDER IN CHARGE, HIS ADVISORS, HIS SECRETARY, HIS GUARDS, AND HIS ATTENDANTS. USE THE HELP OF THE DOUBLE AGENT TO CULTIVATE THE ASSISTANCE OF VILLAGE AGENTS AND INTERNAL AGENTS. THEN, USE THE EXPENDABLE AGENT TO FOOL THE ENEMY. FINALLY, USE THE SURVIVING AGENT TO FIND OUT WHAT THE ENEMY'S CIRCUMSTANCES AND PLANS ARE. IN USING THESE FIVE KINDS OF THEREFORE, YOU MUST GIVE THE DOUBLE AGENTS, THE COMMANDER AGENT SPECIAL TREATMENT. SHOULD UNDERSTAND THAT THE KEY TO THEIR SUCCESS IS THE DOUBLE AGENT.



此兵之要

## **Pronunciation Index**

There are different systems of Romanization of Chinese words, but in all of these systems the sounds of the letters used do not necessarily correspond to those sounds which we are accustomed to using in English (for instance, would you have guessed that zh is pronounced like j as in "jelly"—not as in "je ne sais quoi"?). Of course, these systems can be learned, but to save some time and effort for the reader who is not a student of Chinese, we have provided the following pronunciation guide. The Chinese words appear on the left as they do in the text and are followed by their pronunciations. Just sound out the pronunciations as you would for an unfamiliar English word, and you will be quite close to the proper Mandarin pronunciation.

In addition, Chinese philosophical terms have been defined, and page numbers have been provided where every glossed term appears in the book.

## NOTES

- -dz is a combination of a d and a z in one sound, without the ee sound at the end; so it sounds kind of like a bee in flight with a slight d sound at the beginning.
- -zh is pronounced like the j in "jelly" and not like the j in "je ne sais quoi."

Bingfa 兵法 (principles and tactics of warfare): beeng-faw 2,53

Boju 柏舉: bwo (o as in more)-jew (ew as in few) vii

Chu 楚: choo vii, viii, 9

Da Xue 大學: daw shweh xii

Dao 道 (moral cause): dow viii, 12, 13, 18 Daodejing 道德經: dow-du (u as in pull)-jeeng xii

ge 戈: gu (u as in pull) xiii

Han 漢: hon (as in honcho) xi

Han Feizi 韓非子: hon (as in honcho) fay-dz xii

Helü 闔廬: hu (u as in pull)-lew (ew as in few) vii, 2, 9

Jiang Shang 姜尚: jyong shong 125

Jin 晉: jeen 9

Kongzi 孔子: kong (long o)-dz 2

Laozi 老子: lou (as in lounge)-dz xii

Liezi 列子: lyeh-dz xii

Mao Zedong 毛澤東: mou (as in mouse) dzu (u as in pull)-dong

(long o) viii Ming 明: meeng xi Mengzi 孟子: mung-dz 2

Qi 齊: chee xi, 2, 9 Qin 秦: cheen xi Qing 清: cheeng xi

Quan Rong 犬戎: chwen rong (long o)

Shang 商: shong xi Shen 申: shun xi

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