

**CHINESE
BASIC COURSE**

TEXTBOOK

**Module 1
Lessons 1-6**

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**DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
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PREFACE

This third validation edition is the result of the revision of Units 1 through 4, Orientation Module, Standard Chinese: A Modular Approach (SCAMA), and the feedback received during the second validation of these materials (April 87.)

Abbreviations used in the glossary of this module:

A: Adverb	MA: Movable Adverb S/SUB: Subject	
ADJ: Adjective	N: Noun	SP: Specifier
AV: Auxiliary Verb	NU: Number	SV: Stative Verb
BF: Bound Form	O: Object	Tt: Tàitai
C/CONJ: Conjunction	P: Particle	TW: Time Word
CV: Co-Verb	PH: Phrase	Tz: Tóngzhǐ
EV: Equative Verb	PN: Pronoun	V: Verb
EX: Exclamation	PT: Pattern	VO: Verb Object
IE: Idiomatic Expression	PW: Place Word	Xj: Xiǎojiě
M: Measure	QW: Question Word	Xs: Xiansheng

MODULE OBJECTIVES

Upon successful completion of this module you will be able to recognize, discriminate and produce the sounds of Chinese Mandarin and to write the Hànyǔ Pīnyīn romanization of any of its sounds.

FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

At the end of the module you will be able to appropriately use Chinese to:

1. Identify yourself or someone else by title, surname and/or full name.
2. Affirm or negate someone's identity.
3. Greet someone and respond to a greeting.
4. Count from 0 to 99,999 in isolation.
5. State location of people and places.
6. Identify your or someone else's place of origin and nationality.
7. Ask and respond to questions about where someone is staying or living.
8. Express possession and existence using the verb yǒu.
9. Ask and respond to questions about the number of someone's family members, and their relationship to each other.
10. Ask and respond to questions about birthday and birth places.
11. Ask and respond to questions about employment and places of employment.
12. Ask and respond to questions about specific location of place of employment.
13. Ask and respond to questions regarding location of specific building in relation to other buildings or places of employment.
14. Dodge an impolite or embarrassing question.

Achievement of the above objectives will be evaluated by means of a CRT (Criterion Referenced Test) administered at the end of the module.

INTRODUCTION

ABOUT CHINESE

The Chinese Languages

We find it perfectly natural to talk about a language called 'Chinese.' We say, for example, that the people of China speak different dialects of Chinese, and that Confucius wrote in an ancient form of Chinese. On the other hand, we would never think of saying that the people of Italy, France, Spain, and Portugal speak dialects of one language, and that Julius Caesar wrote in an ancient form of that language, but the facts are almost exactly parallel.

In terms, then, of what we think of as a language when closer to home, 'Chinese' is not one language, but a family of languages. The language of Confucius is part-way up the stem of the family tree. Like Latin, it is a language which lived on as a literary language long after its death as the language of the classics. The seven modern languages of China, traditionally the 'dialects,' are on the branches of the tree. They share as strong a family resemblance as do Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese, and are about as different from one another.

The predominant language of China is now known as Pǔtōnghuà, or 'Standard Chinese,' literally 'the common speech.' The more traditional term, still used in Taiwan, is Guóyǔ, or 'Mandarin', literally 'the national language'. Standard Chinese is spoken natively by almost two-thirds of the population and throughout the greater part of the country.

Standard Chinese

The term 'Standard Chinese' is often used more narrowly to refer to the true national language which is emerging. This national language, which is already the language of all national broadcasting, is based primarily on the Peking dialect but takes in elements from other dialects of Standard Chinese and even from other Chinese languages. Like many national languages, it is more widely understood than spoken, and often spoken with some concessions to local speech, particularly in pronunciation.

The Chinese languages and their dialects differ far more in pronunciation than in grammar or vocabulary. What distinguishes Standard Chinese most from the other Chinese languages, for example, is that it has the fewest tones and the fewest final consonants.

The remaining six Chinese languages, together spoken by approximately a quarter of the population, are tightly grouped in the southeast, below the Yangtze River. These are: the Wú language (吳), including the 'Shanghai dialect'; Hunanese (湘 Xiang); the Gan language (贛 Gàn), spoken in Kangsi province; Cantonese (粵 Yuè), the language of Kuangtung province and widely spoken in Chinese communities in the United States; Fukienese (閩 Mīn), a variant of which is spoken by the majority of Taiwan and hence called Taiwanese; and Hakka (客家 Kèjia), spoken in a belt above the Cantonese area, as well as by a minority on Taiwan. Cantonese, Fukienese, and Hakka are also widely spoken throughout Southeast Asia.

In addition to these Chinese languages, there are also non-Chinese languages spoken by minority ethnic groups. Some of these, such as Tibetan, are distantly related to the Chinese languages. Others, such as Mongolian, are entirely unrelated.

Some Characteristics of Chinese

Perhaps the most striking feature of Chinese to us is the use of 'tones' to distinguish the meaning of individual syllables. All languages, and Chinese is no exception, make use of sentence intonation to indicate how whole sentences are to be understood. In English, for example, the rising pattern in 'He's gone?' tells us that it is meant as a question. The Chinese tones, however, are quite a different matter. They belong to individual syllables, not to the sentence as a whole. Each syllable of Standard Chinese has one of four distinctive tones as an inherent part. The tone does just as much to distinguish the syllable from other possible syllables as do the consonants and vowels. For example, the only difference between the verb 'to buy', mǎi, and the verb 'to sell', mài, is the difference between the Low Tone and the Falling Tone. And yet these words are just as distinguishable as our words 'buy' and 'guy,' or 'buy' and 'boy.' Apart from the tones, the sound system of Standard Chinese is no more different from English than French is.

The grammar of Standard Chinese is relatively simple. For one thing, it has no conjugations such as are found in many European languages. Chinese verbs have fewer forms than English verbs, and nowhere near as many irregularities. Chinese grammar relies heavily on word order, and often the word order is the same as in English: 'John loves Mary' versus 'Mary loves John.' For these reasons Chinese is not as difficult for Americans to learn to speak as one might think.

It is often said that Chinese is a monosyllabic language. This notion contains a good deal of truth. It has been found that, on the average, every other word in ordinary conversation is a single-syllable word. Moreover, although most words in the dictionary have two syllables, and some have more, these words can almost always be broken down into single-syllable units of meaning, many of which can stand alone as words themselves.

Written Chinese

Most languages with which we are familiar are written with an alphabet. The letters may be different from ours, as in the Greek alphabet, but the principle is the same: One letter for each consonant or vowel sound, more or less. Chinese, however, is written with 'characters' which stand for whole syllables - in fact, for whole syllables with particular meanings. There are only about thirteen hundred phonetically distinct syllables in everyday use, essentially one for each single-syllable unit of meaning. Chinese characters are often referred to as 'ideographs,' which suggests that they stand directly for ideas. But this is misleading; it is better to think of them as standing for the meaningful syllables of the spoken language.

Minimal literacy in Chinese calls for knowing about a thousand characters. These thousand characters, in combination, give a reading vocabulary of several thousand words. Full literacy calls for knowing some three thousand characters. In order to reduce the amount of time needed to learn characters, there has been a vast extension in the People's Republic of China of the principle of character simplification, which has reduced the average number of strokes per character by half.

One reason often given for the retention of characters is that they can be read, with the local pronunciation, by speakers of all the Chinese languages. Probably a stronger reason for their retention is that the characters help keep alive distinctions of meaning between words, which are fading in the spoken language. Against this, however, is the consideration that a Cantonese could learn to speak Standard Chinese, and read it alphabetically, at least as easily as he can learn several thousand characters.

Pinyin is used throughout this course to provide a simple written representation of pronunciation.

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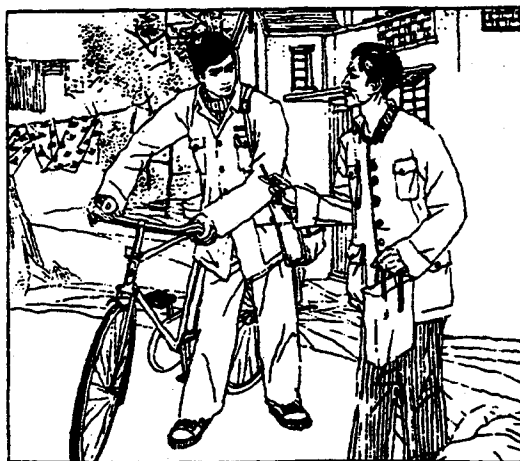
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LESSON 1

INTRODUCTION



In this lesson you will be learning about full names, surnames, and titles ("Mr.," "Mrs.," etc.). Also, you'll be introduced to the sound system of Standard Chinese and to its written representation in Pinyin romanization.



Tóngzhī, nǐ xìng shénme?

OBJECTIVES



Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to identify yourself or someone else by title, surname, and/or full name.

GLOSSARY



1.	nǐ	你	PN:	you
2.	shéi ¹	谁	PN:	who, whom
3.	shénme	什么	PN:	what
4.	shì	是	EV:	to be (am, is, are), yes
5.	tā ²	他、她、(它)	PN:	he, she, (it)
6.	tàitai	太太	N:	Mrs., wife, married woman, lady
7.	tóngzhì	同志	N:	comrade
8.	wǒ	我	PN:	I, me
9.	xiānsheng	先生	N:	Mr., sir, husband, teacher
10.	xiǎojiě	小姐	N:	Miss, lady, daughter (polite)
11.	xìng ³	姓	N/EV:	to be surnamed

1 shéi, shénme. For the first several lessons, these two words will be used as "question words" (QW). Later, you will learn to use them in other ways.

2 tā. The word tā in the spoken language has no gender and can mean "he," "she" and on occasion "it." In the written language, tā has three different forms to indicate gender. All are pronounced tā.

3 xìng. Xìng is used in this lesson as a verb. In later lessons you will learn to use it also as a noun.

ABBREVIATIONS FOR PARTS OF SPEECH ABOVE: (See preface, page (ii))

PN - Pronoun

N - Noun

EV - Equative verb. (Note: Equative verbs connect or equate two nouns or nominal expressions. They resemble in function the English verb is in the sentence "That man is my brother." The verb shì is the most common EV.)

CLASSROOM EXPRESSIONS: Learn and use these expressions in class.

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| 1. Zǎo. | Good morning. |
| 2. Wǒmen shàngkè ba. | Let's begin class. |
| 3. Nǐ dǒng ma? | Do you understand? |
| 4. Wǒ dǒng./Wǒ bùdǒng. | I understand./I don't understand. |
| 5. Duì le. | That's correct. |
| 6. Búduì. | That's not correct.
(That's not right.) |
| 7. Wǒ bùzhīdào. | I don't know. |
| 8. Xiàkè le. | Class is dismissed. |
| 9. Míngtiān jiàn. | See you tomorrow. |
| 10. Zài jiàn. | Good-bye. (See you again.) |

COMMUNICATIVE EXCHANGES



FRAME 1

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. | A: <u>NĪ shì shéi?</u> | Who are you? |
| | B: <u>WŌ shì Wáng Dànián.</u> | I am Wáng Dànián. |
| 2. | A: NĪ shì shéi? | Who are you? |
| | B: WŌ shì Hú Měilíng. | I am Hú Měilíng. |
| 3. | A: <u>Tā shì shéi?</u> | Who is he? |
| | B: <u>Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ.</u> | He is Mǎ Mínglǐ. |
| 4. | A: Shéi shì Hú Měilíng? | Who is Hú Měilíng? |
| | B: <u>Tā shì Hú Měilíng.</u> | She is Hú Měilíng. |

Notes

§1 The verb shì means "to be" in the sense of "to be someone or something," as in "I am Daniel King." It expresses identity. (Later, you will learn a verb which means "to be" in another sense, "to be somewhere," as in "I am in Běijīng." That verb expresses location.)

Unlike verbs in European languages, Chinese verbs do not distinguish first, second, and third persons. A single form serves for all three persons.

WŌ	<u>shì</u>	Wáng Dànián.	(I <u>am</u> Wáng Dànián.)
NĪ	<u>shì</u>	Hú Měilíng.	(You <u>are</u> Hú Měilíng.)
TĀ	<u>shì</u>	Mǎ Mínglǐ.	(He <u>is</u> Mǎ Mínglǐ.)

Later, you will find that Chinese verbs (and nouns) do not distinguish singular and plural, either, and that they do not distinguish past, present, and future as such. You need to learn only one form for each verb.

§2 The question NĪ shì shéi? is actually too direct for most situations, although it is all right from teacher to student or from student to student. (A more polite question is introduced in Lesson 2.)

§3 The pronoun tā is equivalent to "he," "she," or (in limited use) "it."

§4 Unlike English, changing a question into a statement does not alter word order. Chinese uses the same word order in questions as in statements.

Q1	Tā	shì	<u>shéi</u> ?	(Who is he?)
S1	Tā	shì	<u>Mǎ Mínglǐ</u> .	(He is <u>Mǎ Mínglǐ</u> .)
Q2	<u>Shéi</u>	shì	Hú Měilíng?	(Who is Hú Měilíng?)
S2	<u>Tā</u>	shì	Hú Měilíng.	(She is Hú Měilíng.)

When you answer a question containing a question word like shéi, "who," simply replace the question word with the information it asks for.

FRAME 2

5.	A: Nǐ <u>xìng</u> <u>shénme</u> ?	What is your surname?
	B: Wǒ <u>xìng</u> Wáng.	My surname is Wáng.
6.	A: Tā <u>xìng</u> <u>shénme</u> ?	What is his surname?
	B: Tā <u>xìng</u> Mǎ.	His surname is Mǎ.
7.	A: <u>Shéi</u> <u>xìng</u> Hú?	Whose surname is Hú?
	B: Tā <u>xìng</u> Hú.	Her surname is Hú.

Notes

§5 Xìng is a verb, "to be surnamed." It is in the same position in the sentence as shì, "to be."

Wǒ	<u>shì</u>	Wáng Dànián.
(I	<u>am</u>	Wáng Dànián.)

Wǒ	<u>xìng</u>	Wáng.
(I	<u>am surnamed</u>	Wáng.)

§5 Notice that the question word shénme, "what," takes the same position as the question word shéi, "who."

NĪ	shì	<u>shéi?</u>
(You	are	<u>who?</u>

NĪ	xìng	<u>shénme?</u>
(You	are surnamed	<u>what?</u>

Shénme is the official spelling. However, the word is pronounced as if it were spelled shémma, or even shénma (often with a single rise in pitch extending over both syllables).

FRAME 3

8.	A: Tā shì shéi?	Who is he?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ Xiānsheng.	He is Mr. Mǎ.
9.	A: Tā shì shéi?	Who is he?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ Xiānsheng.	He is Mr. Mǎ Mínglǐ.

Notes

§5 After the verb shì, you may have the full name alone, the surname plus title, or the full name plus title.

Tā	shì	Mǎ	Mínglǐ.	
Tā	shì	Mǎ		Xiānsheng.
Tā	shì	Mǎ	Mínglǐ	Xiānsheng.

§8 Xiānsheng, literally "first-born," has more of a connotation of respectfulness than "Mr." Xiānsheng is usually applied only to people other than oneself. Do not use the title Xiānsheng (or any other respectful title, such as "Professor") when giving your own name. If you want to say "I am Mr. Jones," you should say Wǒ xìng Jones.

When a name and title are said together, logically enough it is the name which gets the heavy stress: Wáng Xiānsheng. You will often hear the title pronounced with no full tones: Wáng Xiānsheng. Sometimes, a westernized Chinese married woman may refer to herself as Wáng Tàitai, "Mrs. Wáng" or Wáng Dànián Tàitai "Mrs. Wáng Dànián."

FRAME 4

10.	A: <u>Wáng Xiānsheng</u> , tā shì shéi?	Mr. Wáng, who is he?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ Xiānsheng.	He is Mr. Mǎ Mínglǐ.
11.	A: <u>Xiānsheng</u> , tā shì shéi?	Sir, who is he?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ Xiānsheng.	He is Mr. Mǎ.
12.	A: <u>Xiānsheng</u> , tā shì shéi?	Sir, who is she?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ <u>Tàitai</u> .	She is Mrs. Mǎ.
13.	A: <u>Wáng Xiānsheng</u> , tā shì shéi?	Mr. Wáng, who is she?
	B: Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ Tàitai.	She is Mrs. Mǎ Mínglǐ.

Notes

§11 When you address someone directly, use either the name plus the title alone. Xiānsheng must be translated as "sir" when it is used alone, since "Mr." would not capture its respectful tone. (Tàitai, however, is less respectful when used alone. You should address Mrs. Mǎ as Mǎ Tàitai.)

FRAME 5

14. A: Wáng Xiānsheng, tā shì shéi? B: Tā shì Mǎ Xiǎojié.	Mr. Wáng, who is she? She is Miss Mǎ.
15. A: Tā shì shéi? B: Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ Tóngzhì.	Who is he? He is Comrade Mǎ Mínglǐ.
16. A: Tóngzhì, tā shì shéi? B: Tā shì Fāng Bǎolán.	Comrade, who is she? She is Fāng Bǎolán.
17. A: Tóngzhì, tā shì shéi? B: Tā shì Fāng Bǎolán Tóngzhì.	Comrade, who is she? She is Comrade Fāng Bǎolán.

Note

§15 See the Background Notes on Chinese personal names and titles.

对话

FRAME 1

1. A: 你是谁? B: 我是王大年。	Who are you? I am Wáng Dànián.
2. A: 你是谁? B: 我是胡美玲。	Who are you? I am Hú Měilíng.
3. A: 他是谁? B: 他是马明理。	Who is he? He is Mǎ Mínglǐ.
4. A: 谁是胡美玲? B: 她是胡美玲。	Who is Hú Měilíng? She is Hú Měilíng.

FRAME 2

5. A: 你姓什么? B: 我姓王。	What is your surname? My surname is Wáng.
6. A: 他姓什么? B: 他姓马。	What is his surname? His surname is Mǎ.
7. A: 谁姓胡? B: 她姓胡。	Whose surname is Hú? Her surname is Hú.

FRAME 3

8. A: 他是谁? B: 他是马先生。	Who is he? He is Mr. Mǎ.
9. A: 他是谁? B: 他是马明理先生。	Who is he? He is Mr. Mǎ Mínglǐ.

FRAME 4

10. A: 王先生, 他是谁? B: 他是马明理先生。	Mr. Wáng, who is he? He is Mr. Mǎ Mínglǐ.
11. A: 先生, 他是谁? B: 他是马先生。	Sir, who is he? He is Mr. Mǎ.
12. A: 先生, 她是谁? B: 她是马太太。	Sir, who is she? She is Mrs. Mǎ.
13. A: 王先生, 她是谁? B: 她是马明理太太。	Mr. Wáng, who is she? She is Mrs. Mǎ Mínglǐ.

FRAME 5

14. A: 王先生, 她是谁? B: 她是马小姐。	Mr. Wáng, who is she? She is Miss Mǎ.
15. A: 他是谁? B: 他是马明理同志。	Who is he? He is Comrade Mǎ Mínglǐ.
16. A: 同志, 她是谁? B: 她是方宝兰。	Comrade, who is she? She is Fāng Bǎolán.
17. A: 同志, 她是谁? B: 她是胡美玲同志。	Comrade, who is she? She is Comrade Hú Měilíng.

SUMMARY



Frame 1

- a. The verb shì "to be" expresses identity.
- b. Chinese verbs and nouns do not indicate person, number, or tense.
- c. The pronoun tā means either "he," or "she."
- d. In Chinese changing a question into a statement does not alter word order.

Frame 2

Xìng means "to be surnamed." It can also be used as a noun, "surname."

Frame 3

People do not use titles, such as Xiānsheng etc. when referring to themselves.

Frame 4

- a. When addressing someone directly, use the name plus Xiānsheng, or Xiānsheng alone.
- b. Xiānsheng means "Mr." when used with a name. It means "sir" when used alone.

Frame 5

The title Tóngzhī, "Comrade," is applied to all regardless of sex or marital status.

BACKGROUND NOTES: ABOUT CHINESE PERSONAL NAMES AND TITLES

A Chinese personal name consists of two parts: a surname and a given name. There is no middle name. The order is the reverse of ours: surname first, given name last.

The most common pattern for Chinese names is a single-syllable surname followed by a two-syllable given name: *

Máo Zédōng (Mao Tse-tung)
 Zhōu Ēnlái (Chou En-lai)
 Jiǎng Jièshí (Chiang Kai-shek)
 Sòng Qīnglíng (Soong Ch'ing-ling -- Mme Sun Yat-sen)
 Sòng Měilíng (Soong Me-ling -- Mme Chiang Kai-shek)

It is not uncommon, however, for the given name to consist of a single syllable:

Zhū Dé (Chu Teh) (father of the Chinese Red Army)
 Lín Biāo (Lin Piao) (former Vice-chairman of the Chinese Communist Party)
 Hú Shì (Hu Shih) (famous writer and philosopher)
 Jiāng Qīng (Chiang Ch'ing -- Mme Mao Tse-tung)

There are a few two-syllable surnames. These are usually followed by single-syllable given names:

Sīmǎ Guāng (Ssu-ma Kuang) (prominent statesman in ancient China)
 Ōuyáng Xiū (Ou-yang Hsiu) (writer in ancient China)
 Zhūgě Liàng (Chu-ke Liang) (Statesman in ancient China)

But two-syllable surnames may also be followed by two-syllable given names:

Sīmǎ Xiāngrú (Ssu-ma Hsiang-ju) (well-known writer in ancient China)

In Chinese, each syllable is a distinct Chinese character.

A complete list of Chinese surnames includes several hundred written with a single character and several dozen written with two characters. Some single-character surnames sound

* The first version of each example is in the Pinyin system of romanization. The versions in parenthesis are conventional spellings from other romanization system.

exactly alike although written with different characters, and to distinguish them, the Chinese may occasionally have to describe the character or "write" it with a finger on the palm of a hand. But the surnames that you are likely to encounter are fewer than a hundred, and a handful of these are so common that they account for a good majority of China's population.

Given names, as opposed to surnames, are not restricted to a limited list of characters. Men's names are often but not always distinguishable from women's; the difference, however, usually lies in the meaning of the characters and so is not readily apparent to the beginning student with a limited knowledge of characters.

Outside the People's Republic the traditional system of titles is still in use. These titles closely parallel our own "Mr.," and "Miss." Notice, however, that all Chinese titles follow the name -- either the full name or the surname alone -- rather than preceding it.

The title "Mr." is Xiānsheng.

Mǎ Xiānsheng
Mǎ Mínglǐ Xiānsheng

The title "Mrs." is Tàitai. It follows the husband's full name or surname alone.

Mǎ Tàitai
Mǎ Mínglǐ Tàitai

The title "Miss" is Xiáojie. The Mǎ family's grown daughter, Défen, would be:

Mǎ Xiáojie
Mǎ Défen Xiáojie

Even traditionally, outside the People's Republic, a married woman does not take her husband's name in the same sense as in our culture. If Miss Fāng Bǎolán married Mr. Mǎ Mínglǐ, she becomes Mrs. Mǎ Mínglǐ, but at the same time she remains Fāng Bǎolán. She does not become Mǎ Bǎolán; there is no equivalent of "Mrs. Mary Smith." She may, however, add her husband's surname to her own full name and refer to herself as Mǎ Fāng Bǎolán. At work she is quite likely to continue as Miss Fāng.

These customs regarding names are still observed by many Chinese today in various parts of the world. The titles carry certain connotations, however, when used in the PRC today: Tàitai should not be used because it designates that woman as a member of the leisure class. Xiáojie should not be used because it carries the connotation of being from a rich family.

In the People's Republic, the title "Comrade," Tóngzhì, is used in place of the titles Xiansheng, Tàitai, and Xiáojié. Mǎ Mínglǐ would be:

Mǎ Tóngzhì
Mǎ Mínglǐ Tóngzhì

The title "Comrade" is applied to all, regardless of sex or marital status. A married woman does not take her husband's name in any sense. Mǎ Mínglǐ's wife would be:

Fāng Tóngzhì
Fāng Bǎolán Tóngzhì

Children may be given either the mother's or the father's surname at birth. In some families one child has the father's surname, and another child has the mother's surname. Mǎ Mínglǐ's and Fāng Bǎolán's grown daughter could be:

Mǎ Tóngzhì
Mǎ Défen Tóngzhì

Their grown son could be:

Fāng Tóngzhì
Fāng Zìqiáng Tóngzhì

Both in the PRC and elsewhere, of course, there are official titles and titles of respect in addition to the common titles we have discussed here. Several of these will be introduced later in the course.

The question of adapting foreign names to Chinese calls for special consideration. In the People's Republic the policy is to assign Chinese phonetic equivalents to foreign names. These approximations are often not as close phonetically as they might be, since the choice of appropriate written characters may bring in nonphonetic considerations. (An attempt is usually made when transliterating to use characters with attractive meanings.) For the most part, the resulting names do not at all resemble Chinese names. For example, the official version of "David Anderson" is Dàiwéi Àndésen.

An older approach, still in use outside the PRC, is to construct a valid Chinese name that suggests the foreign name phonetically. For example, "David Anderson" might be Àn Dàwèi.

Sometimes, when a foreign surname has the same meaning as a Chinese surname, semantic suggestiveness is chosen over phonetic suggestiveness. For example, Wáng, a common Chinese surname, means "king," so "Daniel King" might be rendered Wáng Dànián.

Your instructor will give you a Chinese name to facilitate conversation.

DRILLS I



A. Substitution Drill. After the teacher gives the stimulus, you (the student) place it in the indicated structured pattern.

(T) Mǎ Mínglǐ

(S) Tā shì Mǎ Mínglǐ.
(He is Mǎ Mínglǐ.)

B. Response Drill. After the teacher gives the cue, you place it in the indicated structured pattern.

(T) Nǐ shì shéi? Wáng Dànián
(Who are you?)

(S) Wǒ shì Wáng Dànián.
(I am Wáng Dànián.)

OR Nǐ shì shéi? Hú Měilíng

Wǒ shì Hú Měilíng.
(I am Hú Měilíng.)

C. Response Drill

(T) Tā shì shéi? Mǎ Xiānsheng

(S) Tā shì Mǎ Xiānsheng.
(He is Mr. Mǎ.)

D. Response Drill. After the teacher gives the cue in English, you translate it into Chinese and place it in the indicated structured pattern.

(T) Tā shì shéi? Mr. Wáng
(Who is he?)

(S) Tā shì Wáng Xiānsheng.
(He is Mr. Wáng.)

E. Transformation Drill. After the teacher gives the stimulus, transform it into the structured pattern shown.

(T) Tā shì Fāng Bǎolán.
(She is Fang Bǎolán.)

(S) Shéi shì Fāng Bǎolán?
(Who is Fang Bǎolán?)

F. Response Drill. Answer the teacher's questions using the cues and pattern shown.

(T) Shéi shì Mǎ Tóngzhì? (Who is Comrade Mǎ?)	<u>Tā</u>	(S) Tā shì Mǎ Tóngzhì. (He is Comrade Mǎ.)
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G. Response Drill. Respond to questions according to cues, using the pattern shown.

(T) Shéi xìng Mǎ? (Whose surname is Mǎ?)	<u>Hē</u>	(S) Tā xìng Mǎ. (His surname is Mǎ.)
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H. Response Drill. Respond to the questions with cued surnames using the pattern shown.

(T) Tā xìng shénme? (What is her surname?)	<u>Mǎ</u>	(S) Tā xìng Mǎ. (Her surname is Mǎ.)
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RESOURCE MATERIALS



PRONUNCIATION AND ROMANIZATION (P & R)

Your chief concern as you start this course is learning to pronounce Chinese. This Resource Material, which plunges you right into trying to say things in Chinese, naturally involves a certain amount of pronunciation work. This section is designed to supplement that work with a brief, systematic introduction to the sound system of Standard Chinese, as well as to its written representation in Pinyin romanization.

The essential part of this section consists of the Pronunciation and Romanization (P & R) tapes and the accompanying displays and exercises.

The tapes contain discussions of the sounds of the language and their spellings. You may find that these discussions offer useful hints, allowing you to put your intellect to work on the problems of pronunciation and romanization. However, particularly in pronunciation, most of your learning must come from doing. It is important to practice reading and writing the romanization, but it is vital to practice recognizing and producing the sounds of the language. Serious and sustained attempts to mimic, as faithfully as possible, either your instructor or the speakers on the tapes will allow you to pick up unconsciously far more than you can attend to consciously.

The most important thing for you to do is to abandon the phonetic "prejudices" you have built up as a speaker of English and surrender yourself to the sounds of Chinese. Being less set than adults in their ways, children are quicker to pick up a proper accent. Try to regress to the phonetic suggestibility of childhood, however hard it is to shed the safe and comfortable rigidity and certainty of adulthood. The most your intellect can supply is a certain amount of guidance and monitoring.

Be sure to repeat the words and sentences on the tapes in your full normal speaking voice, or even louder, as you were speaking to someone at a reasonable distance. When you speak to yourself under your breath, you are considerably less precise in your pronunciation than when you speak aloud. This is all right in English, since you can already pronounce the language. But, in Chinese, you would not be practicing that skill which you are trying to develop, and you would find yourself at a loss when you tried to switch to full volume in class.

One of the advantages an adult has over a child in learning is the ability to make use of a written representation of it. In this course you learn the Pinyin system of romanization at the

same time that you are learning the sound system of Standard Chinese. (The nonalphabetic system of written characters is taught as a separate component of the course.) You will find that Pinyin is not the simplest possible phonetic transcription. Some of the letters and combinations of letters chosen to represent the sounds of Chinese are not the most obvious ones. While consonant letters generally stand for fixed consonant sounds, vowel letters can stand for various vowel sounds, depending on what letters precede them and follow them. Some of the abbreviation rules are more trouble than they are worth at first. These drawbacks - which are actually relatively minor compared with those of most spelling systems - stem from the fact that Pinyin was designed for speakers of Chinese, not for speakers of English. The primary consideration in devising the system was the most efficient use of the letters of the Roman alphabet to represent the sounds of Chinese. The drawbacks to learning Pinyin are considerably outweighed by the advantage that Pinyin is widely taught and used as a supplementary script in the People's Republic of China. You are learning Pinyin not merely as an aid during the first few weeks of the course, but also as one of the ways Chinese is actually written, and as what may well represent the wave of the future.

