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*To learn a language is to have one more window
from which to look at the world.* Chinese proverb

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Mandarin

Mandarin Chinese, also known as Standard Chinese or Modern Standard Mandarin, is the sole official language of China and Taiwan, and one of the four official languages of Singapore. Although there are eight major Chinese dialects, Mandarin is native to approximately 70% of the population. Chinese who are educated through at least the primary grades speak Mandarin as well as the local dialects. However, due to the size of China and the ethnic diversity of its inhabitants, hundreds of other dialects are spoken in different areas. The dialects spoken today are based more on geography than on ethnicity. For instance, residents of Shanghai will speak Wu, and in some parts of China, particularly the central and southern areas, official business is transacted in the locally dominant language. Although people from different parts of China generally do not understand one another's spoken language, they all use Mandarin characters (hanzi) for writing.

Today's Mandarin is closely based on "northern speech" which was the *lingua franca* of the ruling class, spoken in Beijing, the capital during the Ming and Qing Dynasties. After the Nationalists overthrew the Qing Dynasty in 1912, government officials at first considered creating a new "national language" by adopting a mixture of dialects, but in the end it was decided to retain Mandarin as the "National Language." The Communists, who defeated the

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Nationalists in 1949, continued this policy, but they changed the name and coined the term *pu tong hua*, or "common speech," for "Mandarin." This is the word for Mandarin used throughout mainland China. In Hong Kong, however, as in Taiwan and most overseas communities, *guo yu*, the older term, continues to be used.

Pronunciation of the national language differs slightly geographically, and there are some significant regional vocabulary differences. The Nationalists, whose capital was the southern city of Nanjing, were influenced by southern dialects, primarily Cantonese. The Communists, whose capital is Beijing, were influenced by "northern speech."

Pictographs

It is commonly thought that every Chinese character is a picture, or "pictograph," but only a few hundred of the several thousand characters are true pictographs. However, most of these are now written in such a way that it is difficult to immediately guess their meaning. There is also a very small group of characters called ideographs or ideograms, which represent ideas or objects directly. All other Chinese characters are combinations of these pictographs and basic ideographs.

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Traditional and Simplified Script

In 1949 China's new government considered instituting an alphabet in place of the traditional characters, as a refutation of traditional or "feudal" culture. Instead, they decided to simplify the existing characters by reducing the number of strokes necessary to create them. By 1964, a list of 2,200 simplified characters was created for use as a modified script. Further simplification was briefly adopted, then abandoned, at the end of the Cultural Revolution in 1977.

Presently, simplified characters are used in mainland China and Singapore, although there is a movement for the restoration of traditional characters, especially in southern China. Hong Kong, Taiwan, and many overseas Chinese communities continue to use the traditional characters.

Pinyin Transliteration

In this Introductory Reading Program you will continue learning to read Hanyu Pinyin – pinyin for short. It's the official phonetic system for transcribing pronunciations of the Chinese characters into a Latin alphabet, and will give you a way to "read" an approximation of the sounds in written form. In China it's often used in elementary schools as a first step toward learning to read. It is also used

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to alphabetically order dictionary entries, and it is used for entering Chinese text into computers as well as communicating via email and text messaging. In many large cities, street signs are often displayed in both Chinese characters and pinyin to aid foreign visitors.

Readings

There are twenty Reading Lessons in all. Although the pinyin alphabet may appear similar to the Latin alphabet, the sounds of some letters in pinyin are quite different. You will learn to sound out the pinyin starting with individual letters, then letter combinations, words, then word combinations and short phrases, building in length until you will be sounding out complete sentences. Keep in mind that learning to read pinyin is not the same as learning to read hanzi, the Chinese characters. These lessons are designed to give you an easy way to "read" the Chinese sounds, and the Simplified Chinese characters are displayed as well.

Feel free to repeat each Reading Lesson until you feel comfortable proceeding to the next. With a little effort, you will be astonished at how quickly you are able to sound out the Mandarin words. A pronunciation chart is included which is for reference

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only, however, as all the information you need to do the readings is contained in the audio.

Although translations are included, the meanings at this point are secondary, and we recommend that you look at them only after first attempting to sound out the phrases with Mandarin pronunciation. Each item has been selected especially to give you practice in the tones, the sounds, and the sound combinations. You should read aloud, as directed, which will help to lodge the sounds in your memory. Before long you will be reading pinyin aloud without an American accent.

Tonality

Chinese is a tonal language. This means that in addition to the sounds of the consonants and vowels, the tone with which a syllable is pronounced helps to determine its meaning. The Chinese languages are almost exclusively made up of one-syllable words, composed of an initial consonant sound followed by the syllable's main vowel, sometimes in combination with another consonant or vowel. Longer words do exist, but almost all are compound words, formed by combining one-syllable words.

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The tone is determined by the pronunciation of the syllable's main vowel. Each tone has a name which describes the motion of the sound: falling, rising, or even. With the tones, several meanings can be assigned to any one syllable. For example, when pronounced using a falling-rising tone, the word *nar* means "where." However, when pronounced with just a falling tone, it means "there."

There are four main tones used in speaking Mandarin – high, rising, falling-rising, falling – and a fifth, referred to as a soft or neutral tone. This last tone is used for the second syllable in a set of doubled characters, as well as for the final syllable (or question word) at the end of a query. This neutral tone doesn't have a marker. For example, in the questions, *nǐ ne?* (How about you?) and *hǎo ma?* (OK?), the syllables *ne* and *ma* are pronounced using this soft, falling sound, as if the sound is fading away. Here is an example of one word with different meanings depending on the tone with which it is pronounced:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| • 1st tone: high | <i>shī</i> (poem) |
| • 2nd tone: rising | <i>shí</i> (ten or time) |
| • 3rd tone: falling-rising | <i>shǐ</i> (history) |
| • 4th tone: falling | <i>shì</i> (to be) |

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There are four tonal markers to indicate the tones of the vowels. In these lessons, we will include them for the four tones above the vowels they affect. Pay close attention to the markers because they can change the meaning of a word completely. It may take a while before you hear the differences, and we encourage you to repeat each lesson as often as necessary, in order to both familiarize yourself with the Mandarin sounds represented by the letters and to practice the tones.

All tonal markers are placed above the single vowels (a, o, e, i, u, ü). The chart that follows uses the vowel "a" as an example.

Tone #	English Name	Marker shown with "a"
1.	High-level tone – Starts with normal vocal range of the speaker and stays even.	ā
2.	Rising tone – Starts at normal vocal range, then rises up.	á
3.	Falling-rising tone – Starts at normal vocal range, then falls down and rises up.	ǎ
4.	Falling tone – Starts at normal vocal range, then falls down.	à

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In Mandarin the absence of a tonal marker above a vowel, as in "a," indicates a neutral tone. This neutral tone starts with a slightly soft sound and is shorter than the sounds of the tones listed above.

Tone Change or Tone Sandhi

Although each Chinese syllable standing alone has a specific tone, in the flow of speech the tone of a syllable can change depending on the tone of the following syllable. In some Chinese dialects, tone change is common, and there are complex rules governing it. In contemporary Mandarin, however, it is less common than in other dialects, and there are only a few rules to remember. The first governs falling-rising or 3rd tones when they are spoken in sequence:

1. When two falling-rising or 3rd tones occur together, the first falling-rising tone becomes a rising, or 2nd tone. The second remains a falling-rising or 3rd tone. For example, "very" and "good" are both falling-rising, 3rd tones by themselves, but when spoken together as *hen hao*, the first word changes to a rising or 2nd tone, while the second keeps its original falling-rising, 3rd tone.

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2. When three falling-rising tones are spoken one after the other, the first two become rising or 2nd tones, while the third remains a falling-rising tone.
3. When four falling-rising tones occur one after the other, the first three change to rising or 2nd tones, while the fourth remains a falling-rising or 3rd tone.

In contemporary Mandarin, tone change is also associated with two specific characters. The first of these is *yi* (one).

1. When it is by itself or at the end of a word it is a high level or 1st tone.
2. When *yi* comes before a falling or 4th tone, it changes to a rising or 2nd tone, for example, *yi* (2nd) *yue* (4th) ("one month").
3. When *yi* comes before any of the three remaining tones (high, rising, or falling-rising), it changes to a falling or 4th tone.

The second character associated with tone change in contemporary Mandarin is *bu* (means "no" or "not").

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1. When *bu* stands alone, it is a falling or 4th tone.
2. It changes to a rising or 2nd tone only when it comes before another falling or 4th tone.
3. When combined with the 2nd and 3rd tones, *bu* remains a falling tone.

The various tone changes occur in speech only. In writing, the original tone is retained. In time, these changes will become automatic and natural.

Pinyin Pronunciation Chart

(where no sound is indicated, the sound matches English)

Letter	Sound
a	"a" in "father"
b	
c	"ts" in "boots"
ch	"ch" in "church"
d	
e	"ir" in "girl"
f	
g	"g" in "go"
h	

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Letter	Sound
i	"ee" as in "feet" but after "r" sounds like the "ir" in "shirt"
j	
k	
l	
m	
n	
o	"o" in "no"
p	
q	"ch" in "cheese"
r	"r" as in "war" or "run" (before an "i" it sounds somewhere between an "r" and "j" or the "s" in "leisure")
s	"s" as in "seed"
sh	"sh" as in "shine"
t	
u	"oo" as in "boot"
ü	similar to the "u" sound in "you"
x	the sound in between "s" and "sh"
w	
y	"y" as in "yes"
z	"ds" as in "lads"
zh	"j" as in "jam"

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Letter	Sound Combinations
ai	"eye"
ei	"ay" in "say"
ao	"ow" in "how"
ou	"o" in "dough"
ia	"ee-ya"
ie	"ee-yeah"
iu	"ee-oo"
ua	"wa" like the end of "aqua"
uo	"wo" in "won't"
üe	"u" in "you" followed by the sound "e" – "ee"
iao	like "meow"
iou (iu)	"eew"
uai	"why"
uei (ui)	"way"
an	"un" in "until"
en	"en" in "hen"
in	"een" in "seen"
ün	"une" in "tune"
ang	"ong" in "song"
eng	"ung" in "sung"
ing	"ing" in "sing"
ong	like "long," except with the "o" pronounced "oh"

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Letter	Sound Combinations
ian	"yan"
uan	"wan"
uen (un)	similar to "one"
üan	"u" in "you" plus "an"
iang	"young"
iong	"yong," with the "o" pronounced "oh"
uang	"wong"
ueng	like "wor" in "work," plus an "ng" at the end
er	sounds like "are," but is usually linked to the previous word to form an "er" sound

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Lesson One

1.	bā	八
2.	sì	四
3.	shí	十
4.	wǔ	五
5.	shí sì	十四
6.	sì shí	四十
7.	sān	三
8.	qī	七
9.	bǎi	百
10.	èr	二
11.	liǎng	两
12.	liǎng bǎi	两百
13.	jiǔ	九
14.	liù	六
15.	wàn	万
16.	liù shí wàn	六十万
17.	yī	一
18.	qiān	千
19.	yī qiān	一千
20.	bā shí sān	八十三

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Lesson One Translations

1. eight
2. four
3. ten
4. five
5. fourteen
6. forty
7. three
8. seven
9. hundred
10. two
11. two (when talking about amounts)
12. two hundred
13. nine
14. six
15. ten thousand
16. six hundred thousand
17. one
18. thousand
19. one thousand
20. eighty-three

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Lesson Two

- | | | |
|-----|------------------|---------|
| 1. | míng tiān | 明天 |
| 2. | wǒ xiǎng yào ... | 我想要 ... |
| 3. | mǎi dōng xī | 买东西 |
| 4. | cān tīng | 餐厅 |
| 5. | xīng qī yī | 星期一 |
| 6. | wǒ jiāng yào ... | 我将要 ... |
| 7. | chū qù wánr | 出去玩儿 |
| 8. | zuó tiān | 昨天 |
| 9. | qù shāng chǎng | 去商场 |
| 10. | kàn diàn yǐng | 看电影 |
| 11. | xīng qī èr | 星期二 |
| 12. | dǎ qiú | 打球 |
| 13. | xīng qī tiān | 星期天 |
| 14. | jīn tiān | 今天 |
| 15. | zhǎo péng yǒu | 找朋友 |
| 16. | jiǔ bā | 酒吧 |
| 17. | xīng qī sān | 星期三 |
| 18. | xīng qī sì | 星期四 |
| 19. | xīng qī wǔ | 星期五 |
| 20. | xīng qī liù | 星期六 |

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Lesson Two Translations

1. tomorrow
2. I would like ...
3. shopping
4. cafeteria
5. Monday
6. I'm going to ...
7. to go out
8. yesterday
9. go to the store
10. to see a movie
11. Tuesday
12. to play ball
13. Sunday
14. today
15. to find friends
16. bar
17. Wednesday
18. Thursday
19. Friday
20. Saturday

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Lesson Three

- | | | |
|-----|---------------------|-----------|
| 1. | cān guǎn | 餐馆 |
| 2. | chī fàn | 吃饭 |
| 3. | zhōng cān | 中餐 |
| 4. | jiǎo zi | 饺子 |
| 5. | lāo miàn | 捞面 |
| 6. | niú ròu | 牛肉 |
| 7. | zhū ròu | 猪肉 |
| 8. | yú | 鱼 |
| 9. | jī | 鸡 |
| 10. | mǐ fàn | 米饭 |
| 11. | yào bú yào chī ...? | 要不要吃 ...? |
| 12. | là | 辣 |
| 13. | huǒ guō | 火锅 |
| 14. | chá | 茶 |
| 15. | diǎn xīn | 点心 |
| 16. | jǐ diǎn kāi mén? | 几点开门? |
| 17. | wèi dào hěn xiāng. | 味道很香。 |
| 18. | jǐ wèi? | 几位? |
| 19. | hǎo chī | 好吃 |
| 20. | shuǐ guǒ | 水果 |

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Lesson Three Translations

1. restaurant
2. eat food / have a meal
3. Chinese food
4. dumplings
5. noodles
6. beef
7. pork
8. fish
9. chicken
10. rice
11. Do you want to eat ...?
12. spicy / hot
13. hot pot
14. tea
15. dessert or snacks
16. What time does it open?
17. It smells very delicious.
18. How many people?
19. tastes good
20. fruits

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Lesson Four

- | | |
|------------------|-----|
| 1. fēi jī chǎng | 飞机场 |
| 2. xíng li | 行李 |
| 3. qǐ fēi | 起飞 |
| 4. jiàng luò | 降落 |
| 5. jī piào | 机票 |
| 6. fēi xíng yuán | 飞行员 |
| 7. huǒ chē | 火车 |
| 8. huǒ chē piào | 火车票 |
| 9. chéng wù yuán | 乘务员 |
| 10. guó nèi | 国内 |
| 11. guó jì | 国际 |
| 12. jiǎn piào | 检票 |
| 13. hǎi guān | 海关 |
| 14. zuò wèi | 坐位 |
| 15. jiǔ diàn | 酒店 |
| 16. zū chē | 租车 |
| 17. fáng jiān | 房间 |
| 18. dì tiě | 地铁 |
| 19. dì tú | 地图 |
| 20. shí kè biǎo | 时刻表 |

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Lesson Four Translations

1. airport
2. luggage
3. takeoff
4. landing
5. airplane ticket
6. pilot
7. train
8. train ticket
9. conductor
10. domestic
11. international
12. collect tickets / check-in
13. customs
14. seat
15. hotel
16. to rent a car
17. room
18. subway
19. map
20. timetable

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Lesson Five

- | | |
|------------------------|--------|
| 1. nǐn hǎo! | 你好！ |
| 2. duì bù qǐ. | 对不起。 |
| 3. qǐng | 请 |
| 4. qǐng jìn. | 请进。 |
| 5. huān yíng | 欢迎 |
| 6. guāng lín | 光临 |
| 7. qǐng wèn ... | 请问 ... |
| 8. qǐng zuò. | 请坐。 |
| 9. xiè xie. | 谢谢。 |
| 10. bié kè qì. | 别客气。 |
| 11. má fan nín. | 麻烦您。 |
| 12. zǎo shàng hǎo! | 早上好! |
| 13. bài fǎng | 拜访 |
| 14. dǎ rǎo | 打扰 |
| 15. bài tuō | 拜托 |
| 16. gōng xǐ! | 恭喜! |
| 17. píng ān | 平安 |
| 18. bǎo zhòng | 保重 |
| 19. zài jiàn. | 再见。 |
| 20. huān yíng zài lái. | 欢迎再来。 |

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Lesson Five Translations

1. Hello!
2. Excuse me.
3. please
4. Please come in.
5. welcome
6. coming (polite form)
7. May I ask ...
8. Sit down, please.
9. Thank you.
10. You are welcome.
11. Sorry to bother you. (polite form)
12. Good morning!
13. visit someone respectfully
14. bother
15. politely ask someone to do something
16. Congratulations!
17. peace
18. take care
19. See you later.
20. You are welcome to come back again.

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Lesson Six

- | | | |
|-----|--------------|-----|
| 1. | shēn tǐ | 身体 |
| 2. | tóu | 头 |
| 3. | tóu fa | 头发 |
| 4. | yǎn jīng | 眼睛 |
| 5. | shǒu | 手 |
| 6. | jiǎo | 脚 |
| 7. | bí zi | 鼻子 |
| 8. | ěr duo | 耳朵 |
| 9. | zuǐ bā | 嘴巴 |
| 10. | gē bo | 胳膊 |
| 11. | tuǐ | 腿 |
| 12. | kàn | 看 |
| 13. | tīng | 听 |
| 14. | wén | 闻 |
| 15. | jiān bǎng | 肩膀 |
| 16. | shǒu zhí tou | 手指头 |
| 17. | bó zi | 脖子 |
| 18. | jiǎo bó zi | 脚脖子 |
| 19. | dù zi | 肚子 |
| 20. | liǎn | 脸 |

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Lesson Six Translations

1. body
2. head
3. hair
4. eye
5. hand
6. foot
7. nose
8. ear
9. mouth
10. arm
11. leg
12. look
13. listen
14. smell
15. shoulder
16. finger
17. neck
18. ankle
19. stomach
20. face

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Lesson Seven

- | | | |
|-----|------------------------|---------|
| 1. | jiàn kāng | 健康 |
| 2. | yī shēng | 医生 |
| 3. | chī yào | 吃药 |
| 4. | téng | 疼 |
| 5. | tòng | 痛 |
| 6. | tóu téng | 头疼 |
| 7. | fā shāo | 发烧 |
| 8. | ké sòu | 咳嗽 |
| 9. | gǎn mào | 感冒 |
| 10. | dǎ pēn tì | 打喷嚏 |
| 11. | yá tòng | 牙痛 |
| 12. | yī yuàn | 医院 |
| 13. | zài nǎr? | 在哪儿? |
| 14. | yào diàn | 药店 |
| 15. | shuāi jiāo | 摔跤 |
| 16. | liú xiě | 流血 |
| 17. | liú bí xiě | 流鼻血 |
| 18. | tuǐ shuāi duàn le. | 腿摔断了。 |
| 19. | jiù hù chē | 救护车 |
| 20. | kuài jiào jiù hù chē ! | 快叫救护车 ! |

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Lesson Seven Translations

1. health
2. doctor
3. take medicine
4. hurt (casual expression)
5. pain
6. headache
7. fever
8. cough
9. have a cold
10. sneeze
11. toothache
12. hospital
13. Where is?
14. pharmacy
15. to fall
16. to bleed
17. nosebleed
18. The leg is broken.
19. ambulance
20. Call an ambulance!

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Lesson Eight

- | | | |
|-----|------------------|------|
| 1. | zhǐ jīn | 纸巾 |
| 2. | xiāng zào | 香皂 |
| 3. | yá gāo | 牙膏 |
| 4. | yá shuā | 牙刷 |
| 5. | máo jīn | 毛巾 |
| 6. | shū zi | 梳子 |
| 7. | guā hú dāo | 刮胡刀 |
| 8. | xǐ fà shuǐ | 洗发水 |
| 9. | hù fà sù | 护发素 |
| 10. | chuàng kě tiē | 创可贴 |
| 11. | ā sī pǐ lín | 阿司匹林 |
| 12. | fáng shài shuāng | 防晒霜 |
| 13. | píng zhuāng shuǐ | 瓶装水 |
| 14. | yóu piào | 邮票 |
| 15. | xìn fēng | 信封 |
| 16. | míng xìn piàn | 明信片 |
| 17. | yì zhāng zhǐ | 一张纸 |
| 18. | bǐ | 笔 |
| 19. | jiǎn dāo | 剪刀 |
| 20. | nào zhōng | 闹钟 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Eight Translations

1. tissues
2. soap
3. toothpaste
4. toothbrush
5. towel
6. comb
7. razor
8. shampoo
9. conditioner
10. Band-Aids
11. aspirin
12. sunscreen
13. bottled water
14. stamps
15. envelope
16. postcard
17. a piece of paper
18. pen
19. scissors
20. alarm clock

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Nine

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------|
| 1. yán sè | 颜色 |
| 2. lán sè | 蓝色 |
| 3. hēi | 黑 |
| 4. bái | 白 |
| 5. hóng | 红 |
| 6. fěn hóng | 粉红 |
| 7. huáng | 黄 |
| 8. jú huáng | 橘黄 |
| 9. lǜ | 绿 |
| 10. shēn yán sè | 深颜色 |
| 11. qiǎn yán sè | 浅颜色 |
| 12. cǎi hóng | 彩虹 |
| 13. huā huā lǜ lǜ | 花花绿绿 |
| 14. qiǎn huī sè | 浅灰色 |
| 15. xiān yàn | 鲜艳 |
| 16. hè sè | 褐色 |
| 17. mǐ sè | 米色 |
| 18. zǐ | 紫 |
| 19. shēn hóng | 深红 |
| 20. xǐ huān shén me yán sè? | 喜欢什么颜色? |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Nine Translations

1. color
2. blue
3. black
4. white
5. red
6. pink
7. yellow
8. orange
9. green
10. dark color
11. light color
12. rainbow
13. colorful
14. light gray
15. bright color
16. brown
17. beige
18. purple
19. dark red
20. What is your favorite color?

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Ten

- | | | |
|-----|-------------|-----|
| 1. | yī fu | 衣服 |
| 2. | chuān | 穿 |
| 3. | mǎi yī fu | 买衣服 |
| 4. | xǐ yī fu | 洗衣服 |
| 5. | chèn shān | 衬衫 |
| 6. | kù zi | 裤子 |
| 7. | cháng | 长 |
| 8. | duǎn | 短 |
| 9. | xié | 鞋 |
| 10. | dà yī | 大衣 |
| 11. | máo yī | 毛衣 |
| 12. | shǒu tà | 手套 |
| 13. | hén hǎo kàn | 很好看 |
| 14. | bù hé shēn | 不合身 |
| 15. | wà zi | 袜子 |
| 16. | tài xiǎo | 太小 |
| 17. | tài jǐn | 太紧 |
| 18. | hén shū fu | 很舒服 |
| 19. | qún zi | 裙子 |
| 20. | pí dài | 皮带 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Ten Translations

1. clothes
2. to wear
3. to buy clothes
4. to wash clothes
5. shirt
6. pants
7. long
8. short
9. shoes
10. coat
11. sweater
12. gloves
13. looks very good
14. does not fit well
15. socks
16. too small
17. too tight
18. very comfortable
19. skirt
20. belt

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Eleven

- | | | |
|-----|------------------|-------|
| 1. | chūn tiān | 春天 |
| 2. | xià tiān | 夏天 |
| 3. | qiū tiān | 秋天 |
| 4. | dōng tiān | 冬天 |
| 5. | wēn nuǎn | 温暖 |
| 6. | tài rè | 太热 |
| 7. | liáng shuǎng | 凉爽 |
| 8. | hán lěng | 寒冷 |
| 9. | qíng tiān | 晴天 |
| 10. | yīn tiān | 阴天 |
| 11. | xià yǔ | 下雨 |
| 12. | xià xuě | 下雪 |
| 13. | qí chē | 骑车 |
| 14. | pá shān | 爬山 |
| 15. | yóu yǒng | 游泳 |
| 16. | huá xuě | 滑雪 |
| 17. | dǎ gāo ěr fū qiú | 打高尔夫球 |
| 18. | tī zú qiú | 踢足球 |
| 19. | dǎ bàng qiú | 打棒球 |
| 20. | měi shì zú qiú | 美式足球 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Eleven Translations

1. spring
2. summer
3. autumn
4. winter
5. warm
6. too hot
7. cool
8. cold
9. sunny day
10. cloudy
11. raining
12. snowing
13. riding a bicycle
14. hiking
15. swimming
16. skiing
17. golfing
18. playing soccer
19. playing baseball
20. football

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Twelve

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------|
| 1. jǐ diǎn le? | 几点了? |
| 2. xiàn zài | 现在 |
| 3. bā diǎn | 八点 |
| 4. zǎo shàng qī diǎn | 早上七点 |
| 5. shàng wǔ shí yī diǎn | 上午十一点 |
| 6. xià wǔ liáng diǎn | 下午两点 |
| 7. wǎn shàng jiǔ diǎn | 晚上九点 |
| 8. zhōng wǔ | 中午 |
| 9. bàn xiǎo shí | 半小时 |
| 10. liù diǎn bàn | 六点半 |
| 11. yí kè zhōng | 一刻钟 |
| 12. sān diǎn yí kè | 三点一刻 |
| 13. bàn yè | 半夜 |
| 14. fēn zhōng | 分钟 |
| 15. wǔ diǎn shí sān fēn | 五点十三分 |
| 16. chà yí kè liǎng diǎn | 差一刻两点 |
| 17. jǐ diǎn kāi mén? | 几点开门? |
| 18. qī diǎn kāi mén. | 七点开门。 |
| 19. xiàn zài shì shí diǎn. | 现在是十点。 |
| 20. wǒ sì diǎn bàn yǒu shìr. | 我四点半有事儿。 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Twelve Translations

1. What time is it?
2. now
3. eight o'clock (morning or evening)
4. seven o'clock in the morning
5. eleven o'clock in the morning
6. two o'clock in the afternoon
7. nine o'clock in the evening
8. noon
9. half an hour
10. half past six o'clock
11. quarter of an hour
12. quarter past three o'clock
13. midnight
14. minute(s)
15. thirteen past five o'clock
16. quarter to two o'clock
17. What time do you open (your door)?
18. (Our door) opens at seven o'clock.
19. Now, it's ten o'clock.
20. I need to do something at half past four o'clock.

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Thirteen

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------|
| 1. hǎo jiǔ méi jiàn miàn le. | 好久没见面了。 |
| 2. shēn tǐ hǎo ma? | 身体好吗? |
| 3. tiān qì zhēn hǎo. | 天气真好。 |
| 4. zhēn bú cuò. | 真不错。 |
| 5. wǒ yào qù mǎi dōng xī. | 我要去买东西。 |
| 6. nǐ xiǎng mǎi shén me? | 你想买什么? |
| 7. wǒ xiǎng mǎi yī fu. | 我想买衣服。 |
| 8. wǒ yào qù shāng chǎng. | 我要去商场。 |
| 9. wǒ yě qù. | 我也去。 |
| 10. nà tài hǎo le! | 那太好了! |
| 11. jīn tiān shàng xué ma? | 今天上学吗? |
| 12. jīn tiān bú shàng xué. | 今天不上学。 |
| 13. chī wǔ fàn le ma? | 吃午饭了吗? |
| 14. hái méi yǒu. | 还没有。 |
| 15. yì qǐ qù chī ba. | 一起去吃吧。 |
| 16. wéi, zū chē gōng sī ma? | 喂, 租车公司吗? |
| 17. wǒ xiǎng zū chē. | 我想租车。 |
| 18. xíng. jǐ diǎn yào chē? | 行。几点要车? |
| 19. sān diǎn jiàn. | 三点见。 |
| 20. zài jiàn! | 再见! |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Thirteen Translations

1. Long time no see. (very casual greeting)
2. How's your health?
3. The weather is very nice.
4. Not bad at all.
5. I'm going shopping.
6. What do you want to buy?
7. I want to buy clothes.
8. I will go to the mall.
9. I also want to go.
10. That would be great!
11. Do you have school today?
12. Today we have no school.
13. Have you had your lunch yet?
14. Not yet.
15. Let's have lunch together.
16. Hello, is it the rental car company?
17. I'd like to rent a car.
18. Sure. What time do you need the car?
19. See you at three o'clock.
20. Good-bye!

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Fourteen

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------|
| 1. jiā | 家 |
| 2. jiā tíng | 家庭 |
| 3. zhàng fu | 丈夫 |
| 4. qī zi | 妻子 |
| 5. hái zi | 孩子 |
| 6. jǐ suì le? | 几岁了? |
| 7. ér zi | 儿子 |
| 8. nǚ ér | 女儿 |
| 9. qīn qi | 亲戚 |
| 10. fù mǔ | 父母 |
| 11. xiōng dì jiě mèi | 兄弟姐妹 |
| 12. bǎo bo | 伯伯 |
| 13. shū shu | 叔叔 |
| 14. ā yí | 阿姨 |
| 15. biǎo jiě mèi | 表姐妹 |
| 16. biǎo xiōng dì | 表兄弟 |
| 17. wǒ fù mǔ shì běi jīng rén. | 我父母是北京人。 |
| 18. wǒ jiě jie shì yī shēng. | 我姐姐是医生。 |
| 19. wǒ gē ge zhù zài shàng hǎi. | 我哥哥住在上海。 |
| 20. fù mǔ dōu ài hái zi. | 父母都爱孩子。 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Fourteen Translations

1. home
2. family
3. husband
4. wife
5. child(ren)
6. How old is he/she?
7. son(s)
8. daughter(s)
9. relatives
10. parents
11. siblings
12. uncle(s) (father's elder brother(s))
13. uncle(s) (father's younger brother(s))
14. aunt(s) (mother's sister(s))
15. female cousins
16. male cousins
17. My parents are from Beijing.
18. My older sister is a doctor.
19. My older brother lives in Shanghai.
20. All parents love their children.

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Fifteen

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------|
| 1. nǐ huì shuō yīng yǔ ma? | 你会说英语吗? |
| 2. nǐ dǒng yīng yǔ ma? | 你懂英语吗? |
| 3. wèi shēng jiān zài nǎr? | 卫生间在哪儿? |
| 4. nǐ jiào shén me míng zì? | 你叫什么名字? |
| 5. nǐn cóng nǎr lái? | 您从哪儿来? |
| 6. nǐ è le ma? | 你饿了吗? |
| 7. nǎ jiā cān guǎn hǎo chī? | 哪家餐馆好吃? |
| 8. jiǔ diàn zài nǎ lǐ? | 酒店在哪里? |
| 9. huǒ chē zhàn yuǎn ma? | 火车站远吗? |
| 10. jī chǎng zěn me zǒu? | 机场怎么走? |
| 11. shì qù tiān jīn ma? | 是去天津吗? |
| 12. yǒu zhù míng jǐng diǎn ma? | 有著名景点吗? |
| 13. nǎ lǐ hǎo wánr? | 哪里好玩儿? |
| 14. yì zhāng piào duō shǎo qián? | 一张票多少钱? |
| 15. shén me jià qián? | 什么价钱? |
| 16. yǒu kòng fáng jiān ma? | 有空房间吗? |
| 17. zài nǎ lǐ huàn qián? | 在哪里换钱? |
| 18. fù jìn yǒu yín háng ma? | 附近有银行吗? |
| 19. nǐ lái guò zhōng guó ma? | 你来过中国吗? |
| 20. qù yín háng zěn me zǒu? | 去银行怎么走? |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Fifteen Translations

1. Do you speak English?
2. Do you understand English?
3. Where is the restroom?
4. What is your name?
5. Where are you from? (polite form)
6. Are you hungry?
7. Which restaurants are good?
8. Where is the hotel?
9. Is the train station far?
10. How to get to the airport?
11. Does it go to Tianjin?
12. Are there any attractions?
13. Where is the fun place?
14. How much is one ticket?
15. How much?
16. Are there any rooms available?
17. Where can I exchange currency?
18. Are there any banks nearby?
19. Have you been to China?
20. How do you get to the bank?

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Sixteen

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------|
| 1. tǎo jià huán jià | 讨价还价 |
| 2. guì | 贵 |
| 3. pián yi | 便宜 |
| 4. duō shǎo qián yí gè? | 多少钱一个? |
| 5. bā shí yuán | 八十元 |
| 6. tài guì le! | 太贵了! |
| 7. néng pián yi yì diǎn ma? | 能便宜一点吗? |
| 8. zuì dī jià | 最低价 |
| 9. zuì shǎo yào duō shǎo qián? | 最少要多少钱? |
| 10. yǐ jīng jiàng jià le. | 已经降价了。 |
| 11. hěn zhí qián | 很值钱 |
| 12. bù zhí qián | 不值钱 |
| 13. zuì duō | 最多 |
| 14. nà jiù bù mǎi le. | 那就不买了。 |
| 15. duō shǎo qián, nǐ huì mǎi? | 多少钱, 你会买? |
| 16. géi nǐ pián yi diǎn, mǎi ma? | 给你便宜点, 买吗? |
| 17. liù shí wǔ yuán, xíng ma? | 六十五元, 行吗? |
| 18. liù shí bā yuán ba? | 六十八元吧? |
| 19. zhì liàng hěn hǎo | 质量很好 |
| 20. hǎo ba. | 好吧。 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Sixteen Translations

1. bargaining
2. expensive
3. cheap
4. How much does this cost?
5. eighty yuan
6. That's too expensive!
7. Can you lower the price a little?
8. the lowest price
9. What's the minimum (money) you want?
10. It's already discounted.
11. valuable
12. worthless
13. the most
14. Then, I won't buy it.
15. How much are you willing to buy?
16. I'll give you more discount, will/do you buy it?
17. How about sixty-five yuan?
18. How about sixty-eight yuan?
19. good quality
20. Fine.

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Seventeen

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------|
| 1. diàn huà | 电话 |
| 2. shǒu jī | 手机 |
| 3. diàn huà hào mǎ | 电话号码 |
| 4. diàn nǎo | 电脑 |
| 5. dǎ yìn jī | 打印机 |
| 6. wǎng luò | 网络 |
| 7. diàn zǐ yóu xiāng | 电子邮箱 |
| 8. wǎng zhǐ | 网址 |
| 9. fā duǎn xìn | 发短信 |
| 10. xìn hào | 信号 |
| 11. diàn chí | 电池 |
| 12. chōng diàn qì | 充电器 |
| 13. yìng yòng chéng xù | 应用程序 |
| 14. chù cún wén jiàn | 储存文件 |
| 15. ruǎn jiàn | 软件 |
| 16. xià zǎi | 下载 |
| 17. shàng zǎi | 上载 |
| 18. dǎ yìn wén jiàn | 打印文件 |
| 19. diàn nǎo méi diàn le. | 电脑没电了。 |
| 20. shǒu jī yǒu xìn hào ma? | 手机有信号吗? |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Seventeen Translations

1. phone
2. cell phone
3. phone number
4. computer
5. printer
6. Internet
7. e-mail address
8. website
9. send a text message
10. signal
11. battery
12. charger
13. applications
14. saving files
15. software
16. download
17. upload
18. to print a file
19. The computer is out of power.
20. Does the phone have (a) signal?

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Eighteen

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|
| 1. zhōu mò yǒu jì huà ma? | 周末有计划吗? |
| 2. wǒ xiǎng qù mǎi dōng xī. | 我想去买东西。 |
| 3. nǐ qù shāng chéng ma? | 你去商城吗? |
| 4. bú qù. wǒ qù xiǎo shì chǎng. | 不去。我去小市场。 |
| 5. wǒ hé nǐ yì qǐ qù. | 我和你一起去。 |
| 6. hǎo ma? | 好吗? |
| 7. dāng rán hǎo la! | 当然好啦! |
| 8. xià kè hò, wǒ men qù dǎ wǎng qiú. | 下课后, 我们去打网球。 |
| 9. nǐ xiǎng qù ma? | 你想去吗? |
| 10. bù xíng, wǒ yào kāi huì. | 不行, 我要开会。 |
| 11. xià cì wǒ yí dìng qù. | 下次我一定去。 |
| 12. wǒ qù kàn diàn yǐng. | 我去看电影。 |
| 13. yǒu shé me xīn diàn yǐng ma? | 有什么新电影吗? |
| 14. yǒu hěn duō xīn diàn yǐng. | 有很多新电影。 |
| 15. nǐ cháng qù diàn yǐng yuàn ma? | 你常去电影院吗? |
| 16. wǒ hěn shǎo kàn diàn yǐng. | 我很少看电影。 |
| 17. zhōu mò de tiān qì ... | 周末的天气 ... |
| 18. yīng gāi hěn hǎo. | 应该很好。 |
| 19. wǒ xiǎng qù qí chē. | 我想去骑车。 |
| 20. zhù nǐ wánr de gāo xìng! | 祝你玩儿得高兴! |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Eighteen Translations

1. Do you have any plans for the weekend?
2. I want to go shopping.
3. Are you going to the mall?
4. No. I'll go to the flea market.
5. I'm going to go with you.
6. OK?
7. Of course!
8. After the class, we'll play tennis.
9. Do you want to go?
10. I can't, I have a meeting.
11. Next time I definitely go.
12. I'm going to see a movie.
13. Are there any new movies?
14. There are many new movies.
15. Do you often go to movie theaters?
16. I rarely watch movies.
17. The weather of this weekend ...
18. will be very nice.
19. I want to go biking.
20. Wish you have fun!

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Nineteen

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------|-------|
| 1. | gù gōng | 故宫 |
| 2. | tiān ān mén guǎng chǎng | 天安门广场 |
| 3. | yí hé yuán | 颐和园 |
| 4. | tiān tán | 天坛 |
| 5. | cháng chéng | 长城 |
| 6. | xī ān | 西安 |
| 7. | bīng mǎ yǒng | 兵马俑 |
| 8. | shào lín sì | 少林寺 |
| 9. | cháng jiāng | 长江 |
| 10. | huáng hé | 黄河 |
| 11. | huàng shān | 黄山 |
| 12. | tài shān | 泰山 |
| 13. | háng zhōu | 杭州 |
| 14. | xī hú | 西湖 |
| 15. | sū zhōu | 苏州 |
| 16. | yù yuán | 豫园 |
| 17. | guǎng zhōu | 广州 |
| 18. | shēn zhèn | 深圳 |
| 19. | chóng qìng | 重庆 |
| 20. | chéng dū | 成都 |

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Nineteen Translations

1. Forbidden City
2. Tiananmen Square
3. Summer Palace
4. Temple of Heaven
5. Great Wall
6. Xi'an
7. Terracotta Warriors
8. Shaolin Temple
9. Yangtze River
10. Yellow River
11. Mount Huang
12. Mount Tai
13. Hangzhou
14. West Lake
15. Suzhou
16. Yuyuan Garden
17. Guangzhou
18. Shenzhen
19. Chongqing
20. Chengdu

Mandarin Chinese 2

Lesson Twenty

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------|
| 1. wǒ xiǎng qù tiān ān mén. | 我想去天安门。 |
| 2. qǐng wèn, zěn me zǒu? | 请问，怎么走？ |
| 3. kě yǐ chéng dì tiě. | 可以乘地铁。 |
| 4. yào chéng duō jiǔ? | 要乘多久？ |
| 5. yào yí gè xiǎo shí. | 要一个小时。 |
| 6. kě yǐ dǎ chē ma? | 可以打车吗？ |
| 7. kě yǐ. dàn lù shàng hěn dǔ chē. | 可以。但路上很堵车。 |
| 8. yào liǎng gè xiǎo shí. | 要两个小时。 |
| 9. tài màn le! | 太慢了！ |
| 10. nà wǒ chéng dì tiě qù. | 那我乘地铁去。 |
| 11. wǒ yào qù shàng hǎi le. | 我要去上海了。 |
| 12. nǎ tiān zǒu? | 哪天走？ |
| 13. míng tiān wǎn shàng. | 明天晚上。 |
| 14. xū yào bāng máng ma? | 需要帮忙吗？ |
| 15. nǐ néng jiè shào yí xià, | 你能介绍一下， |
| 16. wǒ gāi qù ná li wánr? | 我该去哪里玩儿？ |
| 17. yí dìng yào qù chéng huáng miào. | 一定要去城隍庙。 |
| 18. hái yào qù wài tān. | 还要去外滩。 |
| 19. tài hǎo le! xiè xie nǐ! | 太好了！谢谢你！ |
| 20. bú kè qì. | 不客气。 |

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Lesson Twenty Translations

1. I want to go to Tiananmen.
2. Would you please tell me how to get there?
3. You may take the subway.
4. How long will it take?
5. It takes one hour.
6. Can I call a taxi?
7. Yes. But there is a lot of traffic.
8. It takes two hours.
9. That's too slow!
10. Then I'll take the subway.
11. I'm going to go to Shanghai.
12. Which day?
13. Tomorrow evening.
14. Do you need any help?
15. Can you introduce,
16. where should I go for fun?
17. You must go to Chenghuang Temple.
18. And go to the Bund (Waitan).
19. That's great! Thank you!
20. You're welcome.

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*Travelers should always check with
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current advisories on local conditions
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Booklet Design: Maia Kennedy

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Regional Accents

Mandarin, China's standard spoken language, is taught in schools throughout mainland China and Taiwan. It has become even more widespread through the reach of television. Today virtually all young people on both sides of the Taiwan Strait understand and speak Mandarin, in addition to their native dialects.

As you might expect, the degree of fluency varies. Few people in the South can reproduce the kind of Mandarin heard on television or in films. For instance, when southerners speak Mandarin, they tend to stress every syllable. The "soft sound," also known as the "neutral tone," is often absent from their speech. Whereas Northerners will leave particles and the last syllable of certain compound words unstressed, people from Taiwan or Hong Kong are more likely to give equal stress to each syllable. For example, Northerners will pronounce the word that means "to be acquainted with" as *renshi* (falling and neutral tones), while Southerners will pronounce it *ren sh'*, stressing the last syllable and giving it its full dictionary tonal value. The neutral tone always occurs in the last syllable of a compound word. Stressing it does not usually cause confusion or misunderstanding, but it does mark the speaker as a Southerner.

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Particles

In Chinese, particles, such as *le*, *de*, and *ne*, perform a number of important functions; for this reason, they are sometimes called "function words." For instance, to indicate that an action has already taken place, you add *le* to the verb: *chi le* ("ate") *kan le* ("saw"). The particle *de* can indicate possession: *wo de shu*, "my book." *ne* as in *ni ne*, means "What about you?" Particles, including these three, are always pronounced with the neutral tone. The word "neutral" is used because their exact tonal value depends on that of the preceding syllable. Whatever tonal value they acquire in natural speech is barely audible. That is why they are also said to be "soft."

Dining Out

Apart from the imperial cuisine associated with the Manchu emperors, in the past Beijing was not particularly known for fine dining. The restaurant scene, however, has changed dramatically in recent years. Now tens of thousands of restaurants featuring a vast array of cooking styles dot the city. Good and inexpensive local food is plentiful, as well as exotic fare from all over the world. As people become more and more affluent, they are increasingly dining out. One of the most famous traditional restaurants in Beijing is Quanjude. Its Peking duck is renowned throughout China.

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Chengde

Chengde is a resort city about 135 miles northeast of Beijing. In 1703 Emperor Kangxi started constructing a summer palace in what was then an obscure provincial town. Eventually the palace grew to the size of Beijing's Summer Palace and the Forbidden City combined. The summer retreat, called Bishu Shanzhuang, or Heat-Fleeing Mountain Villa, boasts a vast park. Because their empire was both large and multi-ethnic, the imperial family made a concerted effort to accommodate the Mongolians and other followers of Tibetan and Mongolian Buddhism. To this end they built a group of Lamaist temples to the northwest of the palace. The Qing court not only summered in Chengde, but also received Mongolian and Tibetan leaders and some European diplomats there. Recently the local government has restored many of the palace structures and temples for the sake of tourism. UNESCO has designated the former imperial Summer Palace at Chengde a World Heritage Site.

Alcoholic Beverages

Among urban and Westernized Chinese, beer is the most popular alcoholic beverage. Despite joint ventures with international wine makers, the production and consumption of wine lag far behind that of beer. Many people, however, prefer Chinese

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hard liquor to either beer or wine. A formal meal or banquet would not be complete without what the Chinese call *bai jiu*, or white liquor made from grains. Rice wine, served warm, is popular in certain parts of China as well. Almost all liquor is consumed to accompany food.

Although many people have heard of cocktails, they are not common even among Chinese who are reasonably familiar with western ways.

Friends and Family

Foreigners visiting China are most likely to interact with the Chinese in a business setting. After a meeting, guests are often treated to a lavish multi-course meal in a fancy restaurant or hotel. Some tourist agencies also arrange for tourists to spend a day with a Chinese family. Away from tourist hotels and official interpreters, however, spontaneous invitations to one's home are infrequent.

Since most Chinese live in cramped apartments, they are less inclined to invite friends to their home than are Americans. Relatives, of course, are another matter. While three generations living under one roof is becoming increasingly rare, especially in urban areas, close relatives still frequently visit one another.

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Teahouses

Teahouses were once ubiquitous in market towns and other urban centers in China. The mainly male clientele went to teahouses not only to quench their thirst, but also to socialize. To attract more patrons, teahouses provided various forms of entertainment such as storytelling and puppet theater. Although tea remains the most popular non-alcoholic beverage today, traditional-style teahouses have virtually disappeared from the Chinese urban landscape.

Women in the Workforce

The percentage of women working outside the home is quite high in China. In cities, virtually all women have jobs. As in the U. S., women dominate certain professions, such as teaching and nursing. There are also many women doctors and scientists. In other important areas, however, they haven't yet achieved parity with men. Women who occupy positions of power are still rare. The burden of restructuring the manufacturing industries in the last twenty years has also fallen more heavily on women, as they are more likely to be laid off than their male counterparts. Older, unskilled women in particular have difficulty finding a job.

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Travel in China by Train and Plane

The transportation system in China has seen vast improvements in recent years. The coastal areas are well served by an ever-expanding network of railroads and highways, while all over the country, numerous airports have been built or expanded.

Trains, often packed to capacity, are the traditional people-movers in China. Instead of first or second class, passengers choose hard seat, hard sleeper, soft seat, or soft sleeper. Despite its name, hard seat is in fact not hard, but padded. Since those fares are the cheapest, hard seat is often uncomfortably crowded. By contrast, a sleeper carriage can accommodate only a limited number of people. There are half a dozen bunks in three tiers; sheets, pillows, and blankets are provided. On short distances some trains have soft seats, which cost about the same as hard sleeper. In soft seat, overcrowding and smoking are not permitted. Soft sleeper is the ultimate luxury, with four comfortable bunks in a closed compartment complete with wood paneling, potted plants, lace curtains, and often air-conditioning. Since few Chinese can afford soft sleeper, tickets, which cost twice as much as those for hard sleeper, are easy to obtain.

China has many different types of trains, although there are three main ones: slow, direct express, and special express. Conditions in trains are improving considerably. Faced with stiff competition from air-

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lines and long distance buses, the state-owned rail bureaus have tried to introduce faster and cleaner services, especially to tourist destinations. The most exciting development for lovers of rail travel, however, is China's plan to build the world's largest network of high-speed railways by 2020. The country is already home to the world's only commercial application of the magnetic levitation technology. It is possible to take a Maglev train to downtown Shanghai from its international airport.

Air travel continues to be popular, especially for long-distance travel. There are now frequent flights between major cities.

Stores and Shopping

Shopping is a favorite pastime for many Chinese. Department stores in major cities remain open well after 9:00 PM. Western-style convenience stores have also appeared in big cities; so has warehouse merchandizing. Many of the more popular department stores and supermarkets are joint ventures with international retail giants. Designer brands and labels are available to those who can afford them. By contrast, state-owned stores cater to the tastes and purchasing power of the working class. Street peddlers selling counterfeit goods, fake Prada jackets, Gucci shoes, etc., are popular with local residents and western tourists alike.

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Taiwan

Taiwan lies across a narrow strait from south-eastern China. It was first settled by aboriginal peoples from Asia. The Chinese began to move to Taiwan in large numbers after the fall of the Ming dynasty in the 1660s. After a humiliating defeat in the Naval Battle of 1895, the Manchu government ceded Taiwan to Japan, which became its colonial master for half a century. After the Second World War, Taiwan reverted to Chinese sovereignty. In 1949 the Nationalist government retreated to Taiwan after losing the civil war with the Communists. Today the People's Republic of China is eager to reunite with the island under the "one country, two systems" model. This formula, first proposed to Hong Kong, is meant to assure the Taiwanese that they will be able to maintain their economic and political system after reunification with the mainland.

While official relations across the Taiwan Strait have experienced ups and downs in the last two decades, economic integration is progressing apace. Taiwanese businessmen are eager to exploit their cultural and linguistic ties to the mainland. Today they can be found in all corners of the People's Republic, setting up factories and running hotels and restaurants. Despite the Taiwanese government's misgivings, a number of small and medium-sized companies have shifted their manufacturing operations to the mainland, where land and labor costs are far lower than in Taiwan.

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Days and Months

It's easy to remember the days of the week in Chinese. Monday is considered the first day of the week and is called "week-one" – *xingqi yi*. To name the rest of the week, one simply adds the appropriate number to the word *xingqi*: *xingqi er* (Tuesday), *xingqi san* (Wednesday), *xingqi si* (Thursday), *xingqi wu* (Friday), and *xingqi liu* (Saturday). Sunday is called *xingqi tian*, in colloquial Chinese, or *xingqi ri*, in written formal Chinese. *tian* and *ri* both mean "day."

The seven-day week was introduced to China by Christian missionaries who, instead of using *xingqi*, settled on the word *libai*, meaning "worship." The seven days, therefore, were known as *libai yi* (Monday), *libai er* (Tuesday), and so on, with *libai tian* for Sunday. Because of their religious overtones, the terms fell out of use in the official media, but they have been preserved in spoken Chinese, particularly in the south and in Taiwan. In fact, there the word *libai* is the norm rather than *xingqi*.

Before the introduction of the seven-day week, the Chinese followed the lunar calendar. Each month was divided into three lunar phases of ten days each. The lunar calendar, or *yinli*, was abolished in 1911. However, traditional holidays and festivals are still observed according to the *yinli*.

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The names of the months are similarly straightforward. However, one puts the number before, rather than after, the word for "month," *yue*. January is known as the first month, February the second month, and so on. Therefore, the twelve months in Chinese are:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| • <i>yi yue</i> (January) | • <i>qi yue</i> (July) |
| • <i>er yue</i> (February) | • <i>ba yue</i> (August) |
| • <i>san yue</i> (March) | • <i>jiu yue</i> (September) |
| • <i>si yue</i> (April) | • <i>shi yue</i> (October) |
| • <i>wu yue</i> (May) | • <i>shi yi yue</i> (November) |
| • <i>liu yue</i> (June) | • <i>shi er yue</i> (December) |

Movies

Cinema was introduced to China one year after its debut in Paris on December 28, 1895. Ever since, film has been an important form of entertainment for the Chinese, especially those living in cities. Hollywood films dominated the Chinese market in the 1930s and '40s. Then, after the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, Hollywood films disappeared from the scene. Since the 1990s, when the Chinese government reversed its policy, American blockbusters such as *Forrest Gump* and *Titanic* have drawn large crowds wherever they were shown in China. On the whole, however, audiences are dwindling. To attract more customers, Chinese movie theaters have started to convert to American-style

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multiplexes. Most people, however, watch films at home on pirated VCDs and DVDs, which can be found on every street corner in Chinese cities.

Popular Entertainment

As movie audiences dwindle, other forms of entertainment have taken hold. Karaoke, for instance, has become wildly popular with both young and old at banquets, in bars, or at family gatherings. Guests are often invited to join in the fun. At times like these it's best to be a good sport and play along, even if you can't hold a tune. Good-natured ribbing and hamming are part of the merriment.

Mahjong, traditionally a game for men and women of leisure, has also regained its popularity after being banned for decades. Small fortunes are won or lost at the mahjong table. Quartets of men or women often play late into the night amidst clouds of cigarette smoke. Card games are also eagerly arranged and anticipated at family reunions and parties.

Beijing Opera

Beijing opera, or literally Beijing drama, is more than just opera. It combines vocal and instrumental music, dance, mime, acrobatics, and occasionally even magic. Props and scenery are minimal: except for a table and a couple of chairs, the stage is bare.

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Actors specialize in one of four types of roles: the *sheng*, *dan*, *jing*, or *chou*. The *sheng* are the leading male roles. They portray characters like scholars, officials, and warriors. The *dan* are the female roles. Traditionally, they were played by men; today, however, only a few female impersonators are left. The *jing* are the painted-face roles. These usually include martial or heroic characters and supernatural beings. The *chou* are essentially comic roles. The actors wear clown make-up – often a small white triangle between the eyes and across the nose. The libretti of Beijing opera are adapted from classical Chinese literature and are well known to those who regularly attend the performances. The language, however, is archaic and difficult to understand. For this reason, lyrics are sometimes projected on top of the proscenium arch or on one side of the stage. Reportedly, opera star Beverly Sills attended a performance of Beijing opera during a visit to China and subsequently decided to introduce supertitles at the New York City Opera. Although most performances of Beijing opera take place in modern theaters, some ornate, traditional courtyard theaters have been renovated for tourists.

Business and Travel

In the days when the state dominated all facets of the economy, only a small portion of the population, factory directors, party secretaries, and so

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on, took business trips. The state paid for all their expenses. Today, with a booming private economic sector, China is seeing more and more people criss-crossing the country seeking business opportunities or cementing business ties.

The sight of businessmen in crisp suits and shiny leather shoes boarding trains and planes contrasts starkly with the scene at bus terminals and train stations. There, hordes of peasants from China's inland provinces descend upon the coastal cities. For lack of other accommodations, many remain in the depots. Arriving by the thousands every day, these migrants are fleeing rural poverty and looking for better jobs.

Coffee

Although tea is by far the most popular beverage in China, coffee has made inroads, particularly in big cities.

In the 1920s and '30s, coffee houses in western enclaves in Shanghai and Tianjin were favorite hangouts for writers and students. During the Cultural Revolution (1966–1976), coffee houses, along with western restaurants, virtually disappeared. In recent years, however, American franchises such as Starbucks, called *xingbake* in Chinese, have opened all over China.

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Parts of Yunnan province and Hainan Island in southern China are ideal for growing coffee. Nevertheless, to most Chinese in small cities and rural areas, coffee remains a bitter, exotic drink.

Holidays and Leisure Time

In recent years China reduced the six-day work week to five. In addition, employees get at least several days off for each major holiday: the Chinese New Year (late January or February), May Day or Labor Day (May 1st), and National Day (October 1st). These, however, are presently the only paid vacations. Thus on average, Chinese people, at least those who live in urban areas, have from two to three weeks of vacation. Because everyone goes on vacation at the same time, tourist destinations are jam-packed. Those who crave peace and quiet would do well to avoid traveling around these major holidays.

The increase in leisure time is having a farreaching impact on China's economy and society, creating financial windfalls for restaurants, amusement parks, hotels, and towns with picturesque waterways or pagodas. Unlike Americans, the Chinese are far less likely to take part in outdoor sports such as skiing or scuba diving when they go on vacation.

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Chinese Pastries

Mung bean cakes are small, bite-size pastries made from mung beans; they are especially popular in the south and in Taiwan. Moon cakes are another favorite; they contain various fillings such as red bean paste, lotus seeds, ham, and salted yolks of ducks' eggs. During the Mid-Autumn Festival (August 15th on the lunar calendar, usually sometime in September in the western calendar), the Chinese eat moon cakes in celebration of the full moon. Elaborately packaged moon cakes are frequently exchanged as gifts. Many restaurants derive a substantial part of their annual profits from the Mid-Autumn Festival. Mung bean cakes and moon cakes are frequently served with tea. Desserts are not normally part of a meal in China; they are served only as part of a formal banquet.

Modesty and Politeness

When the Chinese invite friends over for dinner, the host almost always begins a meal with the apology, "There's nothing to eat" – despite the fact that he or she has probably gone all out and prepared a feast. Guests then express unease over the abundance of food on the table and the host's extravagance. This exchange is a social ritual for most Chinese, as Chinese culture highly values modesty. Once the meal begins, the host heaps food on the

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plates in front of the guests, while the guests exercise restraint. If a guest does not care for a particular dish, it is best to leave it discretely on the plate. This is also a good way to politely discourage overzealous hosts from continuously offering more.

The high value placed on modesty also explains why Chinese will deflect a compliment rather than accepting it graciously. For example, when Chinese people receive a compliment, instead of *xiexie*, or "thank you," they say *nali nali*, literally, "Where? Where?" meaning, "There's nothing anywhere worthy of praise." A suitably embarrassed expression accompanies the saying to further show one's modesty. When they accept an offer of help or receive a gift, again, rather than "thank you," the Chinese say *bu hao yi si*, meaning, "This is embarrassing" or "I feel embarrassed [for having imposed on you]."

Like all languages, Chinese has a number of frequently-used formulaic expressions and responses. When an important guest or a customer arrives, Chinese people say *huan ying guang lin*, literally, "Welcome your glorious presence or patronage." When a friend departs on a trip, it is customary to say *yi lu shun feng*, or "May the wind be with you."

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Hangzhou

Hangzhou lies about 119 miles south of China's largest city, Shanghai. When the Shanghai Hangzhou Inter-City Railway was opened in 2010, travel time was cut down to 38 minutes. Tourism is an important part of Hangzhou's economy. The city is famous for its picturesque West Lake, which is surrounded by lush hills and has long been eulo-gized by Chinese poets. Many of the sights around the lake have literary associations. These sights include the Leifeng Pagoda, which collapsed in the 1920s and has since been reconstructed; the causeway; and the stone bridge, especially beautiful when snow-covered in winter. Besides West Lake, Hangzhou is also known for several important Buddhist temples. The villages surrounding Hangzhou produce some of the best tea in China.

Combating the Summer Heat

Summer, which extends from mid-June to the end of September, can be unbearably hot and humid in some parts of China. Before the advent of modern air-conditioning, the Chinese resorted to other methods to stay cool. One inexpensive way was using a fan. Scholars and intellectuals preferred folding, paper fans. Light in weight and easy to carry around, these folding fans were often works of art as well as highly functional objects. In fact, fan

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paintings were prized possessions among Chinese men of letters. Women's fans were oval-shaped and made of paper, silk, or feathers. They were often painted as well. Banana trees and legendary beauties were favorite subjects. Today air conditioners are becoming more and more common, yet many Chinese still find fans indispensable.

Moreover, not everyone can afford an air conditioner. Chinese who live in crowded, poorly ventilated old quarters sit under shady trees, playing cards or chatting with their neighbors, trying to catch the cool evening breezes as the sun sets. In addition, all Chinese enjoy popular summer drinks such as ice cold mung bean soup. Those lucky enough to live near the coast take to the beaches in droves. Swimming pools and water parks with various rides are also popular destinations, especially for families with children.

Forms of Address

Unlike Americans, most Chinese are not on a first-name basis with many other people. Personal names alone are rarely used. (In the U.S. they are called "first names," but remember that in China, the family name is spoken first.) It's considered impolite to address one's superior by his or her personal name. The usual practice is to use the family name plus his or her official position or professional title, for example, Principal Tian, Manager Liu, etc. Similarly,

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the personal pronoun *ni* ("you") is best avoided when talking to one's superior; the more formal *nin* is preferred. Depending on their respective ages, co-workers commonly address each other by adding either *lao* (meaning "old") or *xiao* (meaning "young") to the family name. Personal names are reserved for intimate friends and family members. However, even younger siblings are discouraged from using their older brothers' and sisters' personal names. Instead they say *gege* ("elder brother") or *jiejie* ("elder sister"). In other words, hierarchy and the nature of the relationship play an important role in determining how one refers to or addresses someone else. Also, as in the U.S., it's a good idea to avoid using the third person singular pronoun *ta* ("he" or "she") if the person in question is present.

Travel Outside China

After 1949, when the Communist Party came into power, China became closed to the rest of the world. For nearly forty years it was almost impossible for ordinary citizens to leave the country. Furthermore, except for state guests, few foreign visitors were allowed into China. Starting in the 1990s, Chinese began to travel abroad as tourists, reflecting the new official "open-door" policy and the increasing prosperity of ordinary Chinese. Popular destinations now include South Korea and Southeast Asian countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand.

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With their recent economic downturn, these countries eagerly welcome Chinese tourists. Japan, New Zealand, Australia, and the European Union are now also granting visas to Chinese tourists.

Until recently, Chinese wishing to go abroad had to participate in package tours. It is still very difficult to travel overseas as an individual, although less so than in the past. Likewise, obtaining a passport is also becoming more "hassle-free."

The "Three Links"

After the Civil War between the Communists and the Nationalists, communications between the Chinese mainland and Taiwan were broken off. As tension mounted across the Taiwan Strait, the two sides exchanged daily barrages of cannon fire. These have ceased. In order to pressure Taiwan into closer integration with mainland China, the Chinese government gave high priority to the renewal of three ties: (1) the resumption of commerce; (2) the exchange of mail, both business and personal; and (3) the establishment of direct connections by air and sea, for both goods and people. Fearing the inexorable pull of these so-called "three links," but also wanting to avoid conflict, the Taiwanese government reacted with its own "Three No" policy: "no" to reunification, "no" to complete independence, "no" to confrontation. Despite the mainland's call

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for direct navigational links, traffic across the narrow Taiwan Strait still had to be routed through a destination – often Hong Kong or Macau until 2008. Then, acknowledging the increasing economic ties between the two sides of the Taiwan Strait, a newly elected Taiwanese government resumed the direct three links with mainland China.

Personal Questions

Westerners who go to China are often asked about their age, salary, or marital status. Much of China is still predominantly rural in form and mentality, and notions of privacy differ from those in the West. Raised in a culture that venerates old age, the Chinese consider asking how old someone is a perfectly innocuous question. And for decades, everyone in China had more or less the same income. Therefore, the amount of money an acquaintance made was usually not a big secret. Even today, asking about salary is not a breach of etiquette, and can even be polite, indicating an interest in you and your financial well-being. Finally, if a Chinese shows interest in a Westerner's marital status, it is because family is important to the Chinese. Like one's salary, it is also a good topic for conversation. Westerners should not take offense at any of these questions. Rather, anyone who is not comfortable answering them directly can simply deflect them with a general or vague reply.

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On the other hand, Chinese people are apt to find Americans' openness to discussing inner turmoil rather puzzling. There is less willingness among the Chinese to talk about issues of depression and other mental health problems.

However, as China becomes more urbanized and commercialized, and the gap in income levels becomes wider, western notions of privacy are beginning to seep into Chinese society. It remains to be seen whether advertising will make the Chinese as youth-obsessed as Americans, but newspaper advice columns are already exhorting readers to refrain from asking women about their ages. *yinsi* (privacy) is being gradually assimilated into every-day vocabulary.

China's One-Child Policy

China had an official one-child policy between 1979 and 2015. The policy may have seemed Draconian to Westerners, but it was deemed necessary by the Chinese government. A fifth of the people in the world live in China. However, only 15 to 20% of the country's land is suitable for agriculture. To ensure sustainable growth, the Chinese government began to enforce population control in earnest in the late 1970s. Exceptions were made in cases of remarriages where one spouse did not have a biological child. Couples whose first child was physically or mentally

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handicapped also were allowed to have a second child. Minorities were exempted from the one-child policy as well.

For the most part, family planning took hold in the cities. For example, Shanghai and Beijing achieved zero, or even negative, population growth. Most Chinese people, however, live in rural areas. Implementing the one-child policy in China's vast hinterland was far more challenging. The increasing mobility of the population also made it difficult for the government to catch violators. Those who were caught were subject to penalties that ranged from fines to the child's being ineligible for free education. The one-child policy did achieve its goal to lower population growth. However, the negative consequences of the policy, a rapidly-aging population and the gender imbalance because of society's preference for boys caused a revision of the policy, and starting in 2015, Chinese families were officially allowed to have two children.

The Phone System

Twenty years ago, even in big cities, it was a rare Chinese family that had a telephone. Most people relied on public pay phones. Today practically every adult in China's urban centers owns a cell phone. In fact, China is the largest market for cell phones in the world. Pay phones can be found on almost every

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street corner. Most of them accept cards only; coin-operated phones are rare. Paradoxically, because China's phone system was until recently so inadequate, even non-existent in rural areas, the country has been able to leapfrog the old analog technology and employ the latest digital technology that western telecommunications companies have to offer. Today Motorola, Ericsson, Nokia, and Bell-Alcatel all have joint ventures in China.

Banks

The Big Four of China's state-owned banks are Bank of China, Agricultural Bank of China, Industrial and Commercial Bank of China (ICBC), and Construction Bank of China. In addition, many provinces and municipalities have established their own banks; and major international banks have opened branches in China as well. Until recently, foreign banks were required to limit their business solely to foreign currency transactions. However, with China's formal acceptance into the World Trade Organization, foreign banks will increasingly be allowed to conduct business in the local currency, *renminbi*, thus creating competition for the more inefficient state-owned banks.

Nevertheless, Chinese banks have made great strides on the technological front. Computers have replaced abacuses, and ATMs are cropping up every-

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where in big cities. A few years ago, Chinese ATMs accepted only local cards. Today, foreign tourists can access their accounts from almost any ATM in China.

zhongguo

The Chinese refer to their country as *zhongguo*, which literally means the Middle or Central Country. In ancient times *zhongguo* referred to the various Chinese states in the central plains in northern China. The word was invented to distinguish the original, ethnic Chinese states from the territories outside Chinese civilization.

Before the twentieth century, the country was named after the reigning dynasty. Therefore, from 1644 to 1911, when China was under Manchu or Qing rule, the country was known as the Great Qing Empire. After the Qing dynasty was over-thrown in 1911, Chinese nationalists called the new republic *zhonghua minguo* (Republic of China) – *zhong guo* for short. When the Communists came to power in 1949, the country was renamed *zhonghua renmin gongheguo* (People's Republic of China). To this day, however, the short version remains *zhongguo*.

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Measurements

Like most other countries, China now uses the metric system. Traditional measurements have largely become a thing of the past. One exception is weights. For example, people still ask for a *jīn* (half a kilogram, or about a pound) of spinach in a grocery store, or two *liang* (two hundred grams, or about seven ounces) of wonton in a restaurant. In rural areas peasants cling to tradition and measure distance in *lǐ* (half a kilometer, or about a third of a mile). However, only the metric system is officially recognized.

Temperatures are measured on the Celsius scale. Shoe sizes follow the continental European system. Clothing sizes vary. Most follow the European system. Those bearing American brand names, whether or not they are authentic, are often labeled Small, Medium, Large, and Extra Large. These do not necessarily correspond to American sizes, however; an article of clothing marked "Extra Large" in China may be closer to a Medium in the U.S.

Chinese Students Abroad

In its heyday during the Tang dynasty (618–907), China was a magnet for students from neighboring countries, particularly Japan and Korea. Many took the perilous journey by land or sea to the Tang capital, Chang'an, to study Buddhism, government, and the Chinese language. At the same time, a handful of

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brave Buddhist priests from China went on an arduous trek to India in search of Buddhist scriptures. However, the Chinese did not begin to study abroad in any significant numbers until the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

After a series of disastrous confrontations with the West and with Japan, the Chinese realized how far they had fallen behind and began for the first time to send students abroad en masse. Because of its geographic proximity and its early start in modernization, Japan became the most popular destination for Chinese students, reversing the historic traffic between the two countries. However, as relations between China and Japan deteriorated in the 1920s and '30s, Chinese headed instead to European and American universities. Then came the Communist Party's rise to power and the Korean War. As a result, during the 1950s and early '60s, the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe replaced the West as the training ground for Chinese scientists and engineers.

In the ensuing two decades, China isolated itself from the rest of the world. But, in the 1980s, China's brightest and most ambitious were again able to leave the country. This time America was the overwhelming destination of choice. Chinese students now make up one of the largest groups of international students at America's universities, particularly in science and engineering programs. At some of America's best universities, after English, Chinese is the language most

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commonly heard in the research labs. Many of the key figures in twentieth-century Chinese history studied abroad. Their experiences in Japan, Europe, the former Soviet Union, and America helped to shape every aspect of Chinese society. Chinese students with a foreign education are one of China's most important assets in its quest for modernization.

Medical Care

Like many other things in China, the health care system is also in flux. Previously, health care was the responsibility of individual companies and/or communes, and nearly everyone had universal medical care. Large companies often had their own hospitals for their workers and in rural areas money was set aside by local communes to provide health care. With the economic reforms and the push of the 1980s toward capitalism, the communes were dissolved and hospitals were severed from their companies. Local governments became responsible for the well-being of their citizens, which meant there was a lack of resources and funds in poorer areas. In the cities, most residents can now buy into a government run insurance program; however, the reimbursement rates are often very low and most care must be paid for upfront by the patient, the costs of which are often more than the patient makes in a year. These high out-of-pocket expenses often lead many people to stay at home and avoid hospitals and doctors.

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The Chinese government has announced a plan to spend over \$100 billion between 2010–2020 to overhaul the country's health care system, with an eventual goal of all citizens having more affordable access to basic medical services. China was once famous for its "barefoot doctors," who served in rural areas. The itinerant doctors were often peasants themselves and often had a rudimentary, but highly practical knowledge of medicine. Part of the government's plan will support programs to offer more training for these remaining doctors as well as incentives, such as tuition reimbursements, to bring more university-trained doctors to rural areas.

Traditional Chinese Medicine

Most people in China swear by traditional Chinese medicine. In the West, the Chinese art of healing is also attracting believers. However, in the first two decades of the twentieth century, Chinese medicine was under attack by intellectuals educated in America and Europe. Along with imperial rule and foot-binding, Chinese medicine was dismissed as part of an outdated, moribund tradition, or even worse, as spurious science. After the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, traditional Chinese medicine regained respectability. Specialized colleges were established to train practitioners of Chinese medicine. Today, most Chinese doctors of traditional medicine are schooled in western medicine as well, and they

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routinely use modern diagnostic tools such as X-rays and MRIs, along with more traditional means.

What primarily sets traditional Chinese medicine apart from its western counterpart is its holistic nature. Rather than treating symptoms, Chinese medicine aims at redressing the imbalance of positive and negative energies. This view of the workings of the human body stems from Chinese cosmology, which sees the universe in dualistic, counteracting terms. In addition to herbs and minerals, acupuncture, massage, and diet are frequently used. "Moxibustion" is another common therapy. This involves the application of moxa, a substance obtained from the mugwort herb, either with acupuncture needles or by being burnt on the patient's skin. All these tools make up the therapeutic repertoire of the traditional Chinese physician.

Email and Internet Cafés

Internet cafés have become permanent fixtures of the urban landscape. Public libraries and large bookstores are also good places to get online. Meanwhile, computer ownership is increasing by leaps and bounds. Each year tens of millions of Chinese add computers to the increasingly long list of electronic equipment they own. Cable companies in major cities already offer broadband services.

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There is a regional and socioeconomic imbalance in Internet access, reflecting the larger overall disparity in development between the more progressive coastal provinces in the east and the more traditional inland provinces in the west. Because of its capital-intensive nature, the new technology also attracts the young and the affluent of Chinese society. In a country where the government controls the media, the Internet provides an alternative venue for the young and the opinionated to sound off. Internet chat rooms have become an important barometer of the mood of an increasingly influential sector of Chinese society. The government, however, is vigilant in suppressing what it considers subversive views, and must walk a tightrope between nurturing the nascent technology and maintaining political stability.

Shanghai

The largest city in China, Shanghai is a thriving metropolis. Situated at the mouth of the Yangtze River in the middle of China's east coast, Shanghai's location gives the city an unbeatable competitive advantage. On one hand, it reaches along China's longest river into the vast hinterland to the west. On the other hand, it is nearly equidistant from all the major cities in northeast Asia. Beijing, Tokyo, Osaka, Seoul, Hong Kong, and Taipei, are all about two hours away by air.

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Until the mid-nineteenth century, Shanghai was a sleepy county seat. Once opened to the West, Shanghai was transformed into a world-class metropolis within decades. By the 1920s it had become China's economic, financial, and cultural center. At the same time it had also acquired a reputation for being one of the most iniquitous places on earth. After 1949 the Chinese government closed down brothels and opium dens; it turned Shanghai into an industrial city, thus stripping it of its dominance in trade, finance, and culture. With the new policy of reform and re-opening up to the West, Shanghai began to experience a renaissance in the 1990s. Today Shanghai is sizzling once again, attracting the brightest and the most adventurous from China and from other parts of the world.

The Postal System

The Chinese postal system offers more services than its American counterpart. For instance, most newspapers are delivered by mail. Also, in the days when private phones were few and far between, telephones in the post office provided one of the few options for making domestic and international long-distance calls. Even today the bigger branch offices contain phone booths. However, fewer people are lining up to use them, as phone cards and private phones become more and more common. A relatively new service that is gaining in popularity is postal

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savings, which offers a convenient alternative to traditional banks. Consumers can now open a savings account at any major post office.

Chinese Word Order

wo zuo di tie qu wo de peng you nar chi wan fan.

A salient feature of Chinese word order is the observance of the chronological principle. Note the example in the title, which means: "I'm going to take the subway to go to my friend's place to have dinner." In English, you could also say: "I'm going to my friend's place by subway to have dinner," or even "I'm going by subway to have dinner at my friend's place." Not so in Chinese. In Chinese, the word order is determined by the sequence of actions: You must get on the subway before you can go to your friend's place. You have to go to the place before you can have dinner there. Similarly, to say that you're going to pick up a friend at the airport, you must literally say, "I'm going to drive my car to go to the airport to pick up my friend." Saying, "I'm going to pick up my friend at the airport" is not possible in Chinese. Another example is the English sentence, "My son is studying at Boston University." Because you have to be at the university before you can study there, Chinese says literally, "My son at Boston University is studying." Here again the chronological principle is at work.

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Another factor affecting word order in Chinese is "topicalization." When someone or something has already been mentioned, or is the focus or topic of a discussion, then that thing or person must be stated first. For instance, if a Chinese person were asked, "Where did all the moon cakes go?" he or she might answer, "The moon cakes, I finished them all," rather than saying, "I finished all the moon cakes."

Sports and Board Games

For many years table tennis was perhaps the most popular sport in China. The reason is simple: it doesn't require expensive equipment or much space. Amateur teams were established all over the country, and China dominated the sport in international competitions for decades.

Bowling was introduced to China in the late 1980s. It quickly replaced table tennis in popularity. However, so many bowling alleys were built that today many stand empty.

The most popular spectator sport in China is soccer. All over the country, soccer clubs have loyal followings. Fans often travel to different parts of the country to follow the matches of local clubs against their competitors.

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Traditional sports such as shadow boxing, or *taijiquan*, are popular with women and the elderly. Every morning tens of thousands of retirees practice it in parks and on street corners to taped music. In addition to *taijiquan*, other Chinese martial arts are also popular. But because they are so intense, martial arts require years of training under experienced masters. There are many different styles and schools of martial arts, which are often rivals. Perhaps the most famous school of martial arts is the Shaolin Temple in the Henan province. It was an important center of Chinese chan Buddhism, better known in the U.S. by the Japanese pronunciation, zen Buddhism. Shaolin is also famous for having produced generations of martial monks. Today Shaolin's reputation is built primarily on its martial arts school. Its history as the place where Bodhidharma, the founder of chan Buddhism, achieved enlightenment is much less well known.

Besides *taijiquan* and martial arts, the Chinese also enjoy more cerebral sports such as Chinese chess and the board game *weiqi*, better known in the West by its Japanese name, go. Chinese chess is said to descend from the same ancestor as inter-national chess. All over China, in villages and cities, young and old play Chinese chess.

The esoteric *weiqi* has a more exalted status. Traditionally, it was one of the four requisite accomplishments for the well-educated man of leisure – the

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other three being music, calligraphy, and painting. *weiqi* still has an elitist image today. Its name means, "game of encirclement." Played with 180 white stones and 181 black stones on a grid consisting of 19 horizontal and 19 vertical lines, the game appears deceptively simple. Its complexity rises from the immense number of possible board positions. Every year corporations in Japan, China, and Korea sponsor tournaments attracting the best professional players from these three countries.

Getting Around

Finding one's way around large Chinese cities is a relatively straightforward affair. Many cities, especially provincial capitals, were laid out in a grid pattern. Street names are often written in both Chinese characters and *pinyin* (a transcription into Roman letters). Buses are plentiful, but they can be uncomfortably crowded; and for foreigners who don't know the local language, it can be difficult to know where to get off.

Several cities, such as Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, boast subways, and still others have plans to build them.

For city-dwellers who are in a hurry or do not wish to fight for standing room in a crowded bus, taxis, or *chuzu qiche*, have become a welcome alternative. "To take a taxi" in Mandarin is *zuo chuzu qiche*, or

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simply *zuo chuzu*. In recent years, another term has come into popular usage: *da di*, which comes from Cantonese. *di* is a short form of the Cantonese word for "taxi." Although taxis are more expensive than buses, they are still affordable for the average citizen.

Several models of taxis predominate, depending on the city. Because of regional protectionism, locally made cars are often favored over models made in other parts of the country. For this reason, nearly all the taxis in Shanghai are Volkswagens made by a Shanghai-based joint venture with the German car-maker. In Tianjin the city was overrun with small taxis called *xiali* made locally with Japanese parts. The municipal government of Shanghai banned *xiali* from the city several years ago, claiming that they were big polluters and incongruous with the image of the city as a world-class metropolis. In any taxi, it's a good idea to ask for a receipt; this will help to ensure that you are charged a fair rate.

Rickshaws, once ubiquitous in China, disappeared decades ago and can be seen only in films or tourist spots in a few cities.

Parks

Parks in the English sense of the word did not exist in imperial China. Emperors had their hunting preserves, scholar-officials their private gardens. Both

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had long traditions in China, and both were off limits to intruders (or commoners). For ordinary urban dwellers in a predominantly rural society, temple grounds and open-air markets provided the main public spaces. Western-style parks were first introduced to urban Chinese in the late nineteenth century in semi-colonial cities such as Shanghai and Tianjin. The first park in Shanghai, laid down by the British, was known as the Public Park. Its front gate reputedly featured a placard forbidding dogs and Chinese from entry. The authenticity of this legend is disputed, but it has become part of the nationalistic Chinese lore. After the Republican revolution in the early twentieth century, former imperial playgrounds were opened to the public. Many of the famous parks in Beijing, such as the Summer Palace Park and Beihai Park, had imperial beginnings.

Currency

In the old days of chronic shortages, western hard currencies were highly coveted by the Chinese. Those lucky enough to have foreign currency remittances from overseas could shop in special stores. As a result, black markets dealing in foreign currency exchange thrived. Today, China is one of the biggest trading nations in the world with a huge foreign exchange reserve. The government has therefore somewhat relaxed its control on currency exchange.

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Foreign tourists, of course, have no trouble exchanging money in China. Big tourist hotels, airports, major bank branches, upscale department stores – all provide currency exchange services. Chinese wishing to travel abroad can also obtain foreign currency up to an amount set by the government at local banks. However, the Chinese currency, *renminbi*, (literally, "people's money,") is still not fully convertible, which to a certain extent insulates the Chinese economy from the rest of the world. The government has plans to make the *renminbi* fully convertible, but there is no formal official timetable.

Feng Shui

Feng shui, the traditional art of auspicious siting, has become a fad in the West in recent years. Even some Fortune 500 companies have hired feng shui masters to improve the circulation of positive energy. Ironically, in China the practice largely disappeared after the Communists came into power, and feng shui was dismissed as feudal superstition. Since then it has made a comeback, especially in southeastern China. Private business owners frequently consult with feng shui experts in order to site their factories and homes in the most auspicious locations and thereby improve their balance sheets.

Feng shui is an amalgam of ancient Chinese beliefs. The aim of feng shui is to bring various

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water bodies and land configurations into complete harmony so as to direct the flow of *qi*, or vital energy. Benefits of good feng shui encompass health and longevity, prosperity, fecundity, and general happiness, and they extend to one's descendents. According to the principles of feng shui, an ill-chosen site for a grave, for instance, will adversely affect the well-being of one's children.

Qingdao

Qingdao, also known as Tsingtao, sits on a peninsula in Northern China. The city is known for its abundant local seafood and for its previous incarnation as a German colony. In the minds of most Chinese, and frequent patrons of Chinese restaurants in the West, the name of the city is synonymous with its eponymous beer. The local brewery is the largest domestic producer of beer in China and part of the city's German legacy. In addition to the light thirst-quencher, Qingdao's beaches, fresh air, clean streets, and German architecture make the city one of the most popular tourist destinations in China.

Beijing

Except for a brief period of time when the Nationalist Party was in power, Beijing, formerly known in the West as Peking, has been the capital

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of China since the Yuan Dynasty (1206–1368). In 1928 the Nationalist government moved the capital to Nanjing and renamed Beijing "Beiping." When the Chinese Communist Party drove the Nationalists to Taiwan in 1949, Beijing resumed both its original name and its status as the capital of China. Beijing, literally "Northern Capital," is the political and cultural center of a highly centralized country. While the massive wall surrounding the city was destroyed in the 1950s, the vast former imperial palace complex, known as the Forbidden City, can still be visited. It now houses the Palace Museum. Other tourist attractions include the Great Wall, which lies outside the city, the Summer Palace, and the Temple of Heaven.

Boat Travel

Chinese travelers are abandoning boat travel en masse in favor of other means of transportation. China's network of highways is expanding, and air travel is increasingly affordable. Several long-standing services, for instance those from Shanghai to Ningbo, a seaport to the south, were recently discontinued. Cruise ships, however, are another matter.

Boat travel may be declining, but Chinese waterways are getting busier every year. The government is dredging rivers and widening canals in hopes of increasing freight shipping. In fact, one of the benefits of the controversial Three Gorges dam project is the

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improvement of the navigability of the upper Yangtze River. With the creation of a huge reservoir, there is a more constant water level and wider shipping lanes.

Nanjing

Nanjing, in southeastern China, is one of the more attractive cities in the country. It was the capital of China during the Six Dynasty period, from 222-589. During the Ming and Qing Dynasties, from the fourteenth to the nineteenth centuries, the city was an important economic and cultural center. The old pleasure quarter along the Qinhuai Creek was famous throughout China, as was the Confucian Temple. Both have been restored for the benefit of tourists. In addition, Nanjing boasts the longest city wall in the world, as well as numerous other historic sites. Nanjing is also known for its steamy summer weather. Together with Wuhan and Chongqing, Nanjing is one of the so-called "Three Furnaces" on the Yangtze River.

Tianjin

Tianjin, 75 miles from Beijing, is the capital's gateway to the sea. It is also the largest industrial center in northern China. It was one of the five cities opened to foreign trade in the nineteenth century by the Qing government. Western powers were able to carve out enclaves in the city, and this history is

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reflected in its architecture. Because of its proximity to Beijing, however, Tianjin often finds itself playing second fiddle to its powerful neighbor.

English in China

English is a highly marketable skill in present day China. Proficiency in English can lead to a high-paying job with an international company or to a chance to study abroad. Although Chinese students begin learning English as early as elementary or middle school, teachers and textbooks emphasize grammar over communication. Therefore, while many educated Chinese can read English, few can speak it fluently. For this reason many people attend special English language schools or classes in their spare time. In fact, many government institutions and offices pay employees to take English classes during work hours. English language schools abound, as do textbooks and instructional tapes. English teachers are in great demand, and it is not unusual for tourists to be approached by young people wishing to hone their conversational skills.

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