甲：这是什么？

乙：这是地图。

甲：这是什么地图？

乙：这是中国地图。

甲：那么，那是什么地图呢？

乙：那也是中国地图。

甲：为什么这两张中国地图不一样呢？

乙：因为一张是中华民国地图；一张是中国人民共和国地图。

---

第 (1) 一课

两 (2) 张 (3) 地图

甲 (4)：这是什么 (5)？

乙：这是地图 (6)。

甲：这是什么 (7) 地图？

乙：这是中国 (8) 地图。

甲：那么 (9)，那是 (10) 什么地图呢？

乙：那也 (11) 是中国地图。

甲：为什么 (12) 这两张中国地图不一样呢 (13)？

乙：因为一张是中华民国地图；一张是中国人民共和国地图。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>第</th>
<th>di</th>
<th>ordinal prefix</th>
<th>-st, -nd, -rd, -th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>课</td>
<td>kè</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>两</td>
<td>liǎng</td>
<td>no.</td>
<td>two (used with AN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>张</td>
<td>zhāng</td>
<td>AN.</td>
<td>AN. for flat things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>地图</td>
<td>dìtú</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>甲</td>
<td>jiǎ</td>
<td>pron.</td>
<td>person A; also the first of the ten Heavenly Stems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>这</td>
<td>zhè</td>
<td>det.</td>
<td>this; these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>是</td>
<td>shì</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>is; am; are; fall into the category of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>什么</td>
<td>shén.me</td>
<td>qw.</td>
<td>what</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Di yī kè
Lǐăng zhàng ditú

A: Zhè .shi shèm.me?
B: Zhè .shi ditú.
A: Zhè .shi shèm.me ditú?
B: Zhè .shi Zhōngguó ditú.
A: Nè.me, nà .shi shèn.me ditú .ne?
B: Nà yē .shi Zhōngguó ditú.
A: Wèi. shèm.me zhèi liàngzhāng Zhōngguó ditú bǔyìyàng .ne?
B: Yīnwèi yìzhāng .shi Zhōnghuá Mínguó ditú; yìzhāng .shi Zhōnghuá Rénmín
            Gònghégúó ditú.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>乙</th>
<th>yī</th>
<th>pron.</th>
<th>person B; also the second of the ten Heavenly Stems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>中国</td>
<td>Zhōng.guo</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>那么</td>
<td>nà.me/nè.me</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>well then; then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>那</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>det.</td>
<td>that; those</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>呢</td>
<td>.ne</td>
<td></td>
<td>particle for follow-up questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>也</td>
<td>yē</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>also; too</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>为什么</td>
<td>wèishém.me</td>
<td>qw.</td>
<td>why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不</td>
<td>bù</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>no; not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>一样</td>
<td>yìyàng</td>
<td>adj.</td>
<td>same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>因为</td>
<td>yīn.wei</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>because, since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>中华</td>
<td>Zhōnghuá</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>民国</td>
<td>mínguó</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人民</td>
<td>rénmín</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>the people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>共和国</td>
<td>gònghégúó</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>的</td>
<td>.de</td>
<td></td>
<td>particle for modification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(一) 两张地图

甲：中华民国的地图为什么比中华人民共和国的地图大一点儿呢？

乙：因为中华民国地图是1949年以前的中国，那时的地图还包括现在的蒙古国。

甲：噢，我懂了。中华民国的地图是历史上[21]的中国，中华人民共和国的地图是现在的中国。

乙：对了，对了。可是中华民国也不完全是历史上的中国，他们1949年搬到台湾去了。

甲：噢，台湾就是[26]中华民国；中华民国就是台湾。
A: Zhōnghuá Mínguó .de dítú wèi.shém.me bǐ Zhōnghuá Rénmín Gòngghéguó .de dítú
dà.yì.dianr .ne?
B: Yǐnwèi Zhōnghuá Mínguó .de dítú .shi yǐjiū.sijiū nián yǐqián .de Zhōngguó, nà
shi .de dítú hái bāokuò xiànzài .de Měnggūguó.
A: Ò, wō dòng.le. Zhōnghuá Mínguó .de dítú .shi lìshǐ .shang .de Zhōngguó,
Zhōnghuá Rénmín Gòngghéguó .de dítú .shi xiànzài .de Zhōngguó.
B: Dui.le, dui.le. Kē.shi Zhōnghuá Mínguó yě bùwǎnquán .shi lìshǐ .shang.de
Zhōngguó, tā.men yǐjiū.sijiū nián bǎndào Táiwān .qu.le.
A: Ò, Táiwān jiù.shi Zhōnghuá Mínguó; Zhōnghuá Mínguó jiù.shi Táiwān.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>我</th>
<th>wǒ</th>
<th>pron.</th>
<th>I; me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>懂</td>
<td>dǒng</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>了</td>
<td>.le</td>
<td>particle for new situation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>历史</td>
<td>lì.shǐ</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>上</td>
<td>.shàng</td>
<td>localizer</td>
<td>in; on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>现在</td>
<td>xiànzài</td>
<td>n. / time word</td>
<td>now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>对了</td>
<td>dui.le</td>
<td></td>
<td>that’s right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>可是</td>
<td>kē.shì</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>however; but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>完全</td>
<td>wánquán</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>completely, entirely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他们</td>
<td>tā.mén</td>
<td>pron.</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>搬</td>
<td>bān</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>到…去</td>
<td>dào…qù</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>go to…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>台湾</td>
<td>Tái.wān</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>就是</td>
<td>jiù.shì</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>be exactly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
乙：中国和台湾的政府都说只有一个中国，而台湾是中国的一部分。

甲：可是⋯，中国和台湾是两个国家，对不对？

乙：这个⋯很难说，很难说⋯。

B: Zhōngguó hé Táiwān de zhèngfǔ dōu shuō zhī.yì.ge Zhōngguó, ér Táiwān .shi Zhōngguó.de yī.bù.fen.

A: Kě.shì..., Zhōngguó hé Táiwān .shi liǎng.ge guó.jiā, dui.bu.dui?

B: Zhèi.ge... zhèi.ge... hěnnánshuō, hěnnánshuō....

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>和</th>
<th>hé</th>
<th>conj.</th>
<th>and</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>政府</td>
<td>zhèng.fǔ</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>都</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>in all cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>说</td>
<td>shuō</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>speak, say, talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>只有</td>
<td>zhī.yǒu</td>
<td></td>
<td>there’s only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>个</td>
<td>gè</td>
<td>AN.</td>
<td>general AN. used for nouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>而</td>
<td>ér</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>and; yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>部分</td>
<td>bù.fèn</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>国家</td>
<td>guó.jiā</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>对不对</td>
<td>dui.bu.dui</td>
<td></td>
<td>Is it correct?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>很难说</td>
<td>hěnnánshuō</td>
<td></td>
<td>It’s hard to say.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
◆ Grammar Notes

1. 第 di- is a prefix that turns cardinal numbers (一 yī, 二 èr, 三 sān...) into ordinal numbers (第一 diyī, 第二 dièr, 第三 disān...).

2. 两 liǎng and 二 èr both mean “two.” 二 èr is used (a) when there is no auxiliary noun (called an AN, see note 3), as in simple counting or reading off a number like a telephone number; (b) at the end of higher numbers that end in two (whether or not an AN is involved): 十二 shíèr “twelve,” 四十二个人 si.shíèr.ge rén “forty-two people,” etc., and (c) whenever the ordinal prefix 第 di- is used (with or without an AN): 第二 dièr “second,” 第二十三个人 dièr.shísan.ge rén “the twenty-third person,” etc. 两 liǎng is used every time an AN is used, except as noted in (b) and (c) above: 两个人 liǎng.ge rén “two people,” 两张地图 liǎng zhāng ditū “two maps,” etc. 两 liǎng and 二 èr can both be used before 百 bǎi “hundred”; 千 qiān “thousand,” and 万 wàn “ten thousand”: 二百 èr bǎi or 两百 liǎng bǎi “two hundred”; 二千 èr qiān “two thousand”; 两万 liǎng wàn “twenty thousand.”

3. Some nouns in English, such as water and sugar, are called “collective nouns.” In order to talk about certain amounts of water or sugar, you have to say a pail of water, a lump of sugar, or the like. In theory, all Chinese nouns are collective in this sense. In order to talk about an individual thing, you have to use a “measure word”(量词 liàngcǐ) such as 个 ge in 三个人 sān.ge rén “three people” or 张 zhāng in 两张地图 liǎng zhāng ditū “two maps.” These measure words are called “Auxiliary Nouns,” or “ANs” for short.

Some nouns, by custom, take special ANs. For example, flat things, such as 地图 ditū “map,” 纸 zhǐ “paper,” 桌子 zhuō.zi “table” (because the top is flat) and 凳子 dēng.zi “stool,” all take the AN 张 zhāng. You should use the customary ANs when you can. With nouns that have no customary AN, or if you can’t remember the customary AN, use the default AN 个 ge. 两个地图 liǎng.ge ditū is acceptable.

Some nouns serve as their own ANs. 课 kè in the phrase 第一课 diè yī kè is an example. 部分 bù.fen “part,” which appears later in this lesson, is another. In such cases you cannot “add” an AN even if you want to. 第一个课 dièyī.ge kè is wrong.

4. 甲 jiǎ is the first of the ten 天干 tiāngān “heavenly stems.” The others are 乙 yī, 丙 bǐng, 丁 dīng, 戊 wù, 己 jǐ, 庚 gēng, 辛 xīn, 壬 rén, and 癸 guǐ. You should learn at least the first four, which are used like A, B, C, D... in English.

5. 什么 shén.me is composed of two characters that singly are pronounced shèn and má, but in this combination there are tone and vowel changes. The n sound drops, producing shén.me. (In the official 汉语拼音 hàn.yǔ pīnyīn system, the n is kept even though it is not pronounced, and the word is spelled 什么 shén.me.)
Shém.me is used as a question word, meaning that it can, by itself, make a whole sentence into a question. Other question words are 谁 shéi “who?” 哪儿 nàr “where?” and 怎么 zěn.me “how?”

Note that in Chinese the word order is the same for both questions and answers. 这什么 Zhè.shi shém.me and 这是地图 zhè.shi dìtú have exactly the same structure. This is not true of English, where we normally reverse the word order of statements (“This is a map”) in order to make a question (“What is this?”). We can, of course, say in English “This is a what?” but then the question takes on a special sense.

6. Chinese sentences of the form “Noun 1 是 shì Noun 2” can be used for two different concepts: (1) Noun 1 and Noun 2 are the same thing, and (2) Noun 1 falls into the category of Noun 2. The first use can be translated with the English “to be.” but the second often cannot. A soldier in China might say to you, “我是解放军 wǒ.shì jiěfàngjūn [People’s Liberation Army].” This does not mean “I am the People’s Liberation Army,” but “I am among (fall into the category of) the PLA.”

7. The question word 什么 shém.me? can be used as a noun, as it was two lines above, or as the modifier of a noun, as it is here: 什么地图 Shém.me dìtú? “What map?.”

8. In the phrase 中国地图 Zhōng.guo dìtú, it might appear that 中国 Zhōng.guo “China” is an adjective modifying 地图 dìtú “map,” but this is not the case. 中国 Zhōng.guo is a noun. It can modify another noun, like 地图 dìtú, using the particle 的 .de in a phrase like 中国的地图 Zhōng.guo .de dìtú (see note 14). But here the 的 .de drops out, leaving 中国地图 Zhōng.guo dìtú. This kind of dropping of the .de happens frequently.

9. 那么 .ne.me, pronounced in neutral tones at the beginning of a question, and paired with 呢 .ne at its end, operates something like “Well, then…” in English. It tells the listener that the question it envelops is related to the immediately preceding topic. 乙 yǐ has just referred to a map of China, and 甲 jiǎ, staying on the topic of maps, says, “Well then, what map is that?” 那么.ne.me is not a question word as defined in note 5 because, although it accompanies a question, it does not make the sentence a question. The sentence here is a question because of the question word 什么 shém.me.

10. 那 nà “that, those” belongs to a group of words called determinatives. Other determinatives are 这 zhè “this, these” (as used in the previous four lines), 哪 nà “which?” and 每 měi “each.” 那 nà, 这 zhè, and 哪 nà have alternate pronunciations of 那 nèi, 这 zhèi, and 哪 něi (originally derived from 那 nà+一 yī, 这 zhè+一 yī, 哪 nà+一 yī). The following rules govern determinatives:
(a) They combine with ANs, with or without following nouns, to form noun phrases: 这个 zhèì.gē “this one”; 每个人 měì.gē rén “each person”; 那张地图 nèì zhāng dìtú “that map.”

(b) A number can be added after the determinative in such phrases: 这两张地图 zhèì liàng zhāng dìtú “these two maps”; 那三个 nèǐ sān.gě “those three.”

(c) 这 zhè and 那 nà can be followed directly by a verb, which is often 是 shì: 这是什么 Zhè.shì shéì.mèi “What are these?”; 那是地图 nà.shì dìtú “That is a map.”

In pronunciation, most native speakers say 这 zhè, 那 nè, and 哪 něǐ for uses (a) and (b), and 这 zhè and 那 nà for (c).

Note that 哪 něǐ (něǐ) is both a determinative and a question word.

11. 也 yě “also” is an adverb. An adverb in Chinese comes right before the verb (unless another adverb intervenes). It cannot come before the subject, or at the end of a sentence, as adverbs can in English. In English we can say “I am a person, too”; in Chinese it would sound ridiculous to say 我是人也 wǒ .shí rén yě.

12. 为什么 wèishéì.mèi “why?” is called a movable modifier because it can come either before or after the subject. 甲 jiá could just as well have said 这两张地图 zhèì liàng zhāng dìtú wèishéì.mèi bǐyīíàng .nè? Movable modifiers (such as 今天 jīn.tiān “today”) sometimes seem like adverbs and can be translated using adverbs in English, but they are importantly different from true adverbs as defined in note 11.

13. The 呢 .nè here is the one that goes with 那么 .nè.mèi as described in note 9, but with the 那么 .nè.mèi omitted.

14. The particle 的 .de is used to modify nouns in the pattern:
   [modifier] 的 .de Noun. The modifier can be:
   (1) a noun or pronoun: 老师的桌子 láoshī .de zhū.zi “the teacher’s desk,” 你的地图 nǐ .de dìtú “your map”;
   (2) and adjective (as defined in note 16): 大的问题 dà .de wèntì “big problem” (usually shortened to 大问题 dà wèntì);
   (3) a verb: 不懂的人 bù.dǒng de rén “people who don’t understand”;
   (4) a predicate: 不喜欢看地图的学生 bù.xǐhuān kàn dìtú .de xuéshēng “students who don’t like to look at maps”;
   (5) a whole clause (subject plus predicate): 老师不喜欢的人 láoshī bù xǐhuān .de rén “the people the teacher doesn’t like”;
   (6) another 的 .de phrase: 我的老师的地图 wǒ .de láoshī .de dìtú “the map of the teacher of me—my teacher’s map.”
If you have studied French, note that *de* in French has exactly the reverse function of "的." in Chinese. *La plume de ma tante* "my aunt’s pen," using a Chinese "的." would be *ma tante de plume.*

15. **比** *bǐ,* a verb meaning “compare,” is used to compare nouns in the pattern:

   Noun1 **比** Noun2 + Adjective

   **Examples:**

   这张桌子比那张高。
   *Zhè zhāng zhuō.zì bǐ nà zhāng gāo.*
   This table is higher than that one.

   今年的老师比去年的更奇怪。
   *Jīnián de lǎoshī bǐ qùnián de gèng qiguài.*
   This year the teacher is even more strange than last.

   In the second example 更 *gèng* carries the sense of “even (more).”

   For the opposite meaning, that something is not as [Adjective] as something else, use: Noun 1 没有 *méi.yóu* Noun 2 (那么 *nèi.me*) Adj. For example:

   这张桌子没有那张（那么）高。
   *Zhè zhāng zhuō.zì méi.yóu nèi zhāng (nèi.me) gāo.*
   This table is not as tall as that one.

16. 大 *dà* “big” looks like an English adjective, but grammatically it is a type of verb, because it can follow a subject directly to make a complete sentence. The sentences 地图大 *dìtú dà* “the map is big(ger)” and 桌子高 *zhuō.zì gāo* “the table is tall(er)” use 大 *dà* and 高 *gāo* as verbs. Some grammars call such words “stative verbs,” because of their grammatical properties, while others call them adjectives because of their semantic properties. In this book we call them adjectives, but you should remember that they include “verbness” within them.

   You must note, as well, that whenever adjectives follow subjects directly, they imply comparison. 地图大 *dìtú dà,* strictly speaking, does not mean “the map is big,” but “the map is bigger (than something else).” The sentence 地图大 *dìtú dà* might be the answer to a question like 桌子大还是地图大 *zhuō.zì dà .hai.shí dìtú dà?* “Which is bigger, the table or the map?” The normal way to say the “the map is big,” without implying comparison, is to add an unstressed 很 *hén* before the adjective: 地图很大 *dìtú .hén .dà* “the map is big.” If you stress the 很 *hén,* then you have said “the map is very big.” (This rule does not apply if the adjective is negated. 地图不大 *dìtú bú.dà* means “the map is not big,” without implying comparison.)
17. The 比 bǐ-pattern introduced in note 15 tells the listener that one thing exceeds another, but doesn’t say by how much. Adding 一点儿 yìdiǎnr (.yì.dìanr) or 一点儿 yídēr (.yì.diēr) after the adjective says that the difference is small; adding 得多. de.duō or 多了 duō .le says it is large:

这张桌子比那张高一点儿。

Zhè zhǎng zhuō.zì bǐ nà zhǎng
gāo yìdiār.

今年的老师比去年的奇怪得多。

Jīnnián .de láoshi bǐ qùnián .de
qíguài .de duō.

One yìdiǎn, 一点儿 yídēr, 得多. de.duō, and 多了 duō .le are frequently used without the 比 bǐ-pattern, when comparison is implied: 第三课难一点儿 dì sān kè
nán .yi.dìār “the third lesson is a bit harder”; 这张地图大得多 zhè zhǎng dìtú
da .de duō “this map is much larger.”

18. 1949 年 nián is formally a noun, but is also a time word. Other time words are 现在 xiànzài “now,” 今天 jīntiān “today,” and so on. Although time words often correspond to English adverbs in meaning, they are not adverbs in Chinese. They are “movable modifiers” (see note 12).

19. 以前 yǐqián “before” and its opposite 以后 yīhòu “after” can attach to time words (as here) or to verbs: 看地图以前 kàn dìtú yǐqián “before looking at the map”; 买书以后 mǎi shū yǐhòu “after buying the books.”

20. 了 .le, a particle with several functions, here signals that the speaker has taken note of a new situation. The sense is rather like the word “now” in the English sentence “Oh, now I get it.” This use of .le is called the “new situation 了 .le,” or sometimes the “sentence 了 .le,” because this 了 .le normally comes at the end of a sentence.

21. Note that while English says “in history,” in Chinese we say 历史上 lìshǐ.shàng, literally “on history.”

22. Note that here two adverbs, 也 yě “also” and 不完全 bùwánquán “not entirely,” both precede the verb 是 shì; 也 yě usually comes first in such cases. Note, too, that the order of 不 bù and 完全 wánquán could be reversed, but that the meaning would then change: 我不完全懂 wǒ bù wánquán dǒng “I don’t entirely understand”; 我完全不懂 wǒ wánquán bùdǒng “I don’t understand at all.”
23. 们 .men is a “pluralizing suffix” that usually attaches to pronouns: 我们 wǒ.man “we”; 你们 nǐ.man “you (pl.)”; 他们 tā.man “they.” It can also be used with regular nouns, but only a select few: 孩子们 hái.zi.man “children,” 老师们 lǎoshī.man “the teachers,” and certain others.

24. 到台湾去 dào Táiwān qù “go to Taiwan” illustrates the pattern:

Subject 到 dào place word 来 lái (or 去 qù).

Place words are a special group of words that include geographical proper names, like Taiwan. (For the definition of place words, see L.2, note 2). The use of 到 dào in this pattern requires that a place word follow. 来 lái “come” or 去 qù “go” at the end of the pattern indicates that the direction of action is toward (来 lái) or away from (去 qù) the speaker.

As used here, the whole phrase 到台湾去 dào Táiwān qù is called a complement. A complement is any verb (remember that “adjectives” are also verbs) or verbal phrase that comes right after a verb and tells something about its result:

Subject + Verb + Complement (tells result of verb)

Here, 到台湾去 dào Táiwān qù tells the result of the verb 搬 bān “move.”

There are a number of common single-syllable complements in Chinese, including:

见 jiàn “preceive”: 听见 tīng.jiàn “hear,” 看见 kàn.jiàn “see,” etc.

住 zhù “hold fast”: 拿住 ná zhù “hold tight,” 记住 jì zhù “commit to memory,” etc.

掉 diào “off, away”: 擦掉 cā.diào “wipe off,” 忘掉 wàng.diào “forget,” etc.

完 wán “finish”: 写完 xiě wán “finish writing,” 整理完 zhěnglǐ wán “finish tidying up,” etc.

到 dào “arrive”: 看到 kàn.dào “see,” 找到 zhǎo.dào “find,” etc.

开 kāi “open, away”: 打开 dǎ kāi “open up,” 散开 sàn.kai “disperse,” etc.

着 zháo “take effect”: 找着 zhǎo zháo “find,” 睡着 shuì zháo “fall asleep,” etc.

English seldom uses this kind of construction, but phrases such as “tickled pink” (tickled with the result of turning pink) or “scared stiff” are logically similar.
Complements are very important in Chinese, and there are many different kinds of them.

The last example, 睡着 shuì zhào “fall asleep,” must be distinguished from 睡觉 shuì jiào, a verb-object compound (see L.5, note 10) meaning “sleep.” 睡觉 shuì jiào refers to the whole process of going to bed, waiting to fall asleep, sleeping, lolling in the bed after waking, and other bedtime activities (including the sexual). 睡着 shuì zhào is much more precise: it refers only to the instant in which one “falls” asleep.

25. Here 了 le indicates that the narrated event happened in the past. This is another kind of “sentence 了 le.” It must refer to a specific happening, not to a general condition. You cannot use it to say “I used to be a Yankee fan” or “the weather was lousy yesterday,” even though these sentences refer to the past.

26. 就是 jiù shì “is none other than, is the very same as” is a more precise and emphatic way to say the first meaning of 是 shì as described in note 6 above.

27. 和 hé (often pronounced hàn in Taiwan) means “and” but is used only between nouns: 中国和台湾 Zhōngguó hé Táiwān “China and Taiwan”; 你和我 nǐ hé wǒ “you and I.” Note that “and” in English can also connect verbs (“They ran and jumped and sang and screeched...”), but 和 hé cannot be used in this way. 跟 gēn “with, and” is a less formal alternative of 和 hé.

28. 都 dōu is an adverb meaning “in all cases.” It is by no means equivalent to the English word “all.” Both 都 dōu and “all” have many uses that the other cannot accommodate.

29. 而 ér “and” can be used to connect (a) whole clauses or (b) two predicates following a single subject.

30. 国家 guójiā can mean “country” as well as “state” in the sense of “governing state” and “state bureaucracy.”

31. 对不对 dui. budui? “true or not?—right?” is a “choice-type question,” which is one of the commonest ways of asking questions in Chinese. In these questions the speaker asks the listener to choose between the positive and negative alternatives of a verb: 你喜欢不喜欢中文 nǐ xǐhuān . bu xǐhuān Zhōngwén? “You like Chinese [or] not like Chinese?—Do you like Chinese?”; 你是不是美国人 nǐ shì . bu . shì méi . guórén? “Are you American?”; etc.

People sometimes ask, “How do you say ‘yes’ and ‘no’ in Chinese?” The question is hard to answer, because the commonest ways of saying “yes” and “no” are simply to choose the positive or negative alternatives in choice-type questions. The “yes” answer to the question “Do you like Chinese?” is 喜欢 xǐhuān; the
“yes” answer to “Do you understand Chinese?” is 懂 dòng; and “yes” to “Are you Chinese?” is 是 shì. But if you say to people, “There are many, many words for 'yes' in Chinese,” people think that Chinese must be an extremely complex and mysterious language, which is not true.

32. 这个 zhè gé “this” and 那个 nà gé “that” can be used, and are often repeated, as “time filler” words, rather like “well…” and “mm…” in English. They are used when the speaker wants to say something, or feels obliged to, but has not yet figured out what it should be.

33. 难 nán “difficult” is an adjective (see note 16), and hence can operate as a verb in sentences like 第一课很难 dìyī kè hěn nán “lesson one is hard.” But 难 nán also has a special use in which it can combine with a following verb to make an adjective 难说 nánshuō “hard to say”; 难懂 nándǒng “hard to understand.” The opposite of 难 nán in this use is 好 hǎo “easy to”: 好说 hǎoshuō “easy to talk about”; 好懂 hǎodǒng “easy to understand.” For a small number of verbs, including 看 kàn “look at,” 听 tīng “listen to,” and 吃 chí “eat,” 难 nán means “bad-” and 好 hǎo means “good-”: 好看 hǎokàn “good-looking”; 好吃 hǎochī “bad-tasting”; 好听 hǎoting “pleasant-sounding.”

◆ 练习 (Exercises)

一. Using pinyin or characters trace and fill in the map with the names of cities or provinces you know.
二. Write the characters for the following words:
1. xiánzài 2. lǐshí 3. zhèngfǔ
4. wēishénme 5. nánđōng 6. liàngzhāng ditú

三. Translate the following into Chinese characters:
1. one part of China 2. two different countries
3. present-day Taiwan 4. exactly the same
5. China in history 6. a government that moved to Taiwan

四. Rearrange the following phrases to make coherent sentences:
1. 一个, 中国, 不懂, 台湾的, 只有, 中国, 政府, 和, 为什么, 我, 都说。
2. 国家, 不一样, 现在的, 中国, 完全, 历史上的, 中国, 两个, 和, 是, 吗?

五. Answer the following questions with the given expressions:
1. A: 为什么这两张中国地图不一样呢？
   B: （因为⋯⋯）
2. A: 中华民国只是历史上的一个国家吗？
   B: （⋯不完全⋯，因为⋯⋯）
3. A: 你说台湾是中国的一部分，那中华民国呢？
   B: （⋯就是⋯⋯）
4. A: 为什么两个政府都说只有一个中国呢？
   B: （⋯可⋯⋯）

六. Fill in the blanks with a word chosen from the given list, and then rewrite each sentence in pinyin:
   就 了 到 都 而 和 比 只 有
1. 历史上的中华民国政府__________是现在的台湾政府。
2. 一个国家__________一个政府是一样的吗？
3. 那五（five）个国家__________比中国大一点儿。
4. 我不懂为什么他们都说__________一个中国。
5. 这张地图是1949年以前的中国，__________那张是现在的中国。
6. 为什么以前的中国__________现在的中国大一点儿呢？
7. 他们为什么搬__________台湾去了呢？
8. 以前我不懂，现在懂一点儿__________。

七. Write a short passage about each of the following:
a) 中国人民共和国  b) 中华民国  c) 台湾政府  d) 中国地图
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>汉字表 (Character Table)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>课 (n.) lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>第一课 lesson one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>地 (n.) land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>地图 map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>华 (n.) China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>华 (n.) China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>中华 China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>比 (v.) compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我比他高。 I am taller than him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>前 (prep.) before, ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>以前; 去中国以前</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>懂 (v.) understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>懂：很难懂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>搬 (v.) move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>搬到台湾；</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
甲：這是什麼？
乙：這是地圖。
甲：這是什麼地圖？
乙：這是中國地圖。
甲：那麼，那是什麼地圖呢？
乙：那也中國地圖。
甲：為什麼這兩張中國地圖不一樣呢？
乙：因為一張是中國民國地圖；一張是中國人民共和國地圖。
甲：中國民國的地圖為什麼比中華人民共和國的地圖大一點呢？
乙：因為中華民國地圖是 1949 年以前的中國，那時的地圖還包括現在的蒙古國。
甲：噢，我懂了。中華民國的地圖是歷史上中國，中國人民共和國的地圖是現在的中國。
乙：對了，對了。可是中華民國也不完全歷史上的中國，他們 1949 年搬到台灣去了。
甲：噢，台灣就是中華民國；中華民國就是台灣。
乙：中國和台灣的政府都說只有一個中國，而台灣是中國的一部分。
甲：可是，中國和台灣是兩個國家，對不對？
乙：這個這個很難說，很難說……。