with exercises and website support

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University of Oxford
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The graphic parsing method for Chinese language

As an analytical approach plays a major role in the learning of Chinese language, you are required to have some knowledge of Chinese grammar and grammatical terminology. One of the simplest ways of doing this is to use two axes to make a cross, with the two sides dividing the components of a sentence up for parsing. This will help you to understand the relationship between the components.

The following two examples demonstrate how to parse.

1. "These old methods are completely absurd."

   Subject                Predicate
   methods (noun)        ← are (verb) absurd (adjective)
   these (specifier) old (adjective)  ↑
   completely (adverb)  ↑

2. "We teach our students at Oxford using an old fashioned method."

   Subject                Predicate
   We (pronoun)           ← teach (verb) students (noun)
   at (prep) Oxford (prop n.)  ↑  ↑  ↑
   our (adj)              |
   using (verb) method (noun)  ↓
   an (article) old-fashioned (adj)

It is a good idea to take out a few sentences for analysis from each lesson by using this method; it will be of great benefit to your reading skills when you are at a more advanced stage of learning.
Stative verbs (1 & 2)

A stative verb expresses quality or conditions, as 好 hǎo to be good and 忙 máng to be busy. In Chinese a stative verb is used where in English one would use the verb ‘to be’ with an adjective. For instance, 他很 忙 tā hěn máng he is very busy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他 (pronoun)</td>
<td>忙 (stative verb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↑</td>
<td>很 (adverbial intensifier)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word 忙 máng to be busy is a stative verb in the above sentence. A monosyllabic stative verb is often preceded by the adverbial intensifier 很 hěn very. As you may have noticed, the adverbial intensifier 很 hěn very is placed before the stative verb 好 hǎo to be good.

As with any Chinese verb, the negation 不 bù not should be placed before the verb, as in 不 忙 bù máng not to be busy. 不 bù not is the only negation used for stative verbs. The negation 没 méi not for is not used for stative verbs.

Slight-pause mark (3)

The slight-pause mark "、" is called 顿号 dūnhào in Chinese (lit. mark for a pause). It is similar to a comma in English. It is used for separating a list of nouns, such as

你哥哥、你弟弟好 吗？

nǐ gēge、nǐ dìdi hǎoma？

How are (both) your older and younger brothers?

The slight-pause mark in this question is used to separate 哥哥 gēge older brother and 弟弟 dìdi younger brother.
The verb 是 shì to be (4)

The copula 是 shì to be does not have the same usage as the verb to be in English. (See the notes on stative verbs.) 是 shì to be is used for linking two noun phrases. It indicates that the nouns linked by 是 shì to be are of the same nature or quality. For instance

小 王 是 中 国 人

Xiăo Wáng shì Zhōngguó rén

Xiao Wang is Chinese.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>小王 (p oper noun)</td>
<td>← 是 (copula) 中国人 (qualified noun: formed by qualifier 中国 and 人 noun)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use of 这 and 那 (5)

The specifiers 这 zhè this or 那 nà that can be used as the subject of a sentence, if the subject is visible to listeners. ‘This’ is commonly used when introducing people to each other. For instance, 这是我爸爸…zhè shì wǒ bàba… This is my father…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>这 (specifier)</td>
<td>← 是 (copula/verb) 爸爸 (noun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>↑ 我 (short for 我的)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possessive indicator 的 de (5)

This construction indicates that the noun after the particle 的 de belongs to the noun that comes before 的 de, as in 小王的书 Xiăo Wáng de shū Xiao Wang’s book. As you may have noticed, this use of 的 de is similar to the use of the possessive apostrophe in English.
However, the possessive de can be omitted in the following situations.

1. When a pronoun is followed by a relationship noun such as 爸爸 bàba father, 妈妈 māma mother, 哥哥 gēge older brother, 姐姐 jiějie older sister, 弟弟 dīdi younger brother, 妹妹 mèimeì younger sister or 朋友 péngyou friend, 老师 lǎoshī teacher..... 的 de is not needed. For instance, 他妹妹 tā mèimeì his younger sister.

2. When a pronoun is followed by a place noun to which the pronoun is closely related, such as 家 jiā home, 国家 guójiā country, 学校 xuéxiào school or 班 bān class... 的 de is not needed. For example 我家 wǒ jiā my home, 他学 tā xuéxiào his school.

If you use more than one noun to classify the main noun, 的 de is often placed before the main noun (unlike the possessive apostrophe in English) instead of being placed after each noun, as in

我 姐姐 朋友 的 老师 是 我 哥哥 同学 的 爱人

Wǒ jiějie péngyou de lǎoshī shì wǒ gēge tóngxué de àiren

My sister's friend's teacher is my brother's class-mate's wife.

The descriptive indicator 的 de (5,6)

The genitive particle 的 de is used to describe nouns. The description of the noun is placed before 的 de. In this construction the description can take the following forms.

The description can be a disyllabic phrase, formed by an adverb and an adjective, as in

很 好 的 书

hěn hǎo de shū

a very good book.
However, a monosyllabic adjective such as 好 hǎo good or 忙 máng busy is often placed before a noun without 的 de to form an adjective-noun phrase, as in 好书 hǎoshū (a) good book, 好老师 hǎolǎoshī (a) good teacher, 忙人 máng rén (a) busy person.

The description can also be a phrase or a sentence. It is like an inverted relative clause sentence in English. For instance,

小 王 买 的 书 很 好

Xiǎo Wáng mǎi de shū hěn hǎo

*The book that Xiao Wang has bought is very good.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>书 (noun)</td>
<td>← 好 (stative verb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>买 (verb)</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>的 (genitive particle)</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>小王 (proper noun)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main sentence is 书很好 shū hěn hǎo, which means *the book is very good*, and the description for the book is: *that Xiao Wang bought* 小王买 Xiǎo Wáng mǎi, which is placed before the particle 的 de.

However, 的 de is *not used* in the following situations.

1. When a noun qualifier is used to describe another noun forming a combined noun, 的 de is *not used*. A noun that is described should be placed after its description. For instance 中国地图 zhōngguó dìtú (a) map of China. 中国 zhōngguó China qualifies the 地图 dìtú map, so *China* should be placed before *map*. In 汉语书 hàn yǔ shū (a) book in Chinese, 汉语 hàn yǔ in Chinese (language) qualifies the book, so 汉语 in Chinese (language) should be placed before 书 shū the
2. As mentioned above, 的 de is not used when a monosyllabic adjective is followed by a monosyllabic noun to form another noun such as 忙人 mángrén a busy person and 好书 hăoshū a good book.

Sometimes the nouns after 的 de are left out to avoid repetition, but the omitted noun(s) should be obvious to the listener. For instance,

他的 书 很 多, 中 文 的, 英 文 的, 都 有

tā de shū hěn duō Zhōngwén de, Yīngwén de, dōu yǒu

He has many books; Chinese ones, English ones, he has them all.

It is clear to a listener that the omitted noun in the sentence is 书 shū books.

Tips:

1. When you read a Chinese sentence you should always look for any nouns after 的 de particles before translating into English.
2. The particle 的 de is used to describe nouns and 的 de should be followed by a noun.

Formation of plural pronouns

们 men is a placed after a pronoun to form a plural. For instance, if 他 tā he is followed by 们 men, it becomes 他们 tāmen they. If 你 nǐ you is followed by 们 men it becomes 你们 nǐmen you (pl) and if 我 wǒ I is followed by 们 men, it becomes 我们 wǒmen we.
The use of 姓 xìng and 叫 jiào (9)

姓 xìng surname can be used as a noun, but it is most commonly used as a verb in Chinese sentences, as in

他姓 王

tā xìng wáng

*His surname is Wang* (lit. *he surname Wang*)

你姓 什 么?

nǐ xìng shénme?

*What is your surname?* (lit. *you surname what*)

A polite form for the above question is

您 贵 姓?

nín guì xìng?

*What is your surname?* (lit. *your honourable surname is…*)

When asking names, 叫 jiào to be called can refer either to given names or to full names. For instance,

我 姓 王， 叫 文 书

wǒ xìng Wáng, jiào Wénshū

*My surname is Wang and I am called Wenshu*

我 姓 王， 叫 王 文 书

wǒ xìng Wáng, jiào Wáng Wénshū

*My surname is Wang and I am called Wang Wenshu.*

Question and answers
Question words

吗 ma (2)

It is very easy to form Chinese questions. One of the question formulas is to place the interrogative (question particle) 吗 ma at the end of a statement. For instance, if 吗 ma is placed at the end of 你 好 nǐ hăo hello (lit. you are well) it turns the statement into a question:

你 好 吗?

nǐ hăo ma? (lit. How are you? (lit. Are you well?).

If 吗 ma is placed at end of 你是老师 you are (a) teacher, the statement becomes a question of

你是 老 师 吗?

nǐ shì lăoshī ma? (Are you (a) teacher?)

The interrogative 呢 ne (2)

The interrogative (question particle) 呢 ne is placed at the end of a sentence or phrase. It is used in the following situations.

1. To bounce a question back to the person you are having a conversation with, as in:

A: 你 好 吗?

nǐ hăo ma? (how are you?)

B: 我 很 好. 你 呢?

wŏ hěn hăo. nǐ ne
I am very well, and you?

2. To ask the question where? as in

我 的 书 呢 ？

wǒ de shū ne

Where is my book?

呢 ne used for emphasis (35)

呢 ne can also be used to reinforce questions that are formed with question-words such as who, what, which, when, why and where (See below) and to show that the speaker really would like to know the answers. For instance,

他在 哪儿 呢

tā zài năr ne

Where IS he?

你看 的是 什么 书 呢 ？

nǐ kàn de shì shénme shū ne

What book ARE you reading?

什么, 哪儿 and 谁 (6, 7)

The question word 什么 shénme what does not have a fixed position in a question. It changes according to the position of the subject or the object of a sentence. In the following question 什么 shénme what refers to an object:

你吃 什么？

nǐ chī shénme
What are you eating? (lit. you eat what).

What kinds of people eat Chinese food?

The question words refer to the subjects of the following questions.

Where is the library?

Who are you looking for? (lit. you are looking for whom).

Where are you going? (lit. you are going where?)

What can also refer to the subject of a question, as in

What are you eating? (lit. you eat what).

What kinds of people eat Chinese food?

Where are you going? (lit. you are going where?)

Who are you looking for? (lit. you are looking for whom).

The question words refer to the subjects of the following questions.

Where is the library?

Who are you looking for? (lit. you are looking for whom).
Who eats Chinese food?

If you listen to a question very carefully and remember its word order, it is easy to form an answer in Chinese, because the word order of an answer is the same as that of the question. If you use an appropriate noun or pronoun and replace the question word with an appropriate word, you will be your answer in Chinese. Take a question like

你去哪儿？

nǐ qù năr

Where are you going? (lit. you go where).

If your answer is the library, you just have to replace the pronoun 你 nǐ you with 我 wǒ I and replace the question word 哪儿 năr where with the word 图书馆 túshūguǎn library. The answer is then

我 去 图书馆

wǒ qù túshūguǎn

I am going to the library.

When forming a Chinese question, you should try to form the sentence pattern for the answer and replace the required information with a question word. For instance, 去图书馆…去图书馆…qù túshūguǎn (someone) is going to the library. Replace "someone" with the question word 谁 shuí who and the question will be

谁 去 图书馆？

shuí qù túshūguǎn

Who is going to the library?

怎么 and 为什么

Question words used for numbers (10,15)
多少 *duōshao* *how many* and 几 *jǐ* *how many* are used to ask about quantity. *多少* *duōshao* *how many* is used to expect a number in the answer which is over ten, while the question word 几 *jǐ* *how many* is used to expect a number which is under ten.

你们系 有几个 老师, 多少 学生?

*nǐmen xì yǒu jǐ ge lǎoshī duōshao xuéshēng?* 📫

*Wow many teachers and students are there in your department?*

The speaker expects that there are fewer than ten teachers and more than ten students in the department. You might have noticed that in questions 几 *jǐ* is followed by a *measure word*, but 多少 *duōshao* is not. However, measure words are needed for answers with numbers:

我们 系有 七个 老师, 八十 个 学生?

*wǒmen xì yǒu qī ge lǎoshī bā shí ge xuéshēng* 📫

*In our department there a re seven teachers and eighty students.*

**Choice-type questions of verb 不 verb (13)**

Choice-type questions ask people to decide between taking and not taking an action. No specific question words are needed. The format of the question is *verb 不 verb*, but it has the following two variations.

1. Subject *verb 不 verb object*?

你 是 不 是 学生

*nǐ shì bu shì xuéshēng* 📫

*Are you a student?* (lit. you are not are student)

2. Subject *verb object 不 verb*?

你 是 学生 不 是
Are you a student? (lit. you are student not are)

If a bi-syllabic verb (A and B) is used, there are three ways to form the questions.

1. Subject AB 不 AB object?
   你 认识 不 认识 他
   Nǐ rènshi bu rènshi ta
   Do you know him? (lit. you recognise not recognise him)

2. Subject AB object 不 AB?
   你 认识 他 不 认识
   nǐ rènshi ta bu rènshi
   Do you know him? (lit. you recognise him not recognise)

3. Subject A 不 AB object?
   你 认 不 认识 他
   nǐ rèn bu rènshi ta
   Do you know him?

Choice-type question with the negation 没(有)

(This section should be learned with the section of the aspect for the completion of actions in Week 7)

没(有) negates completed actions. The sentence patterns for choice-type questions with 没(有) are similar to those with 不.
Subject verb 没 verb object

你 吃 没 吃 饭

Nǐ chī méi chī fàn

Have you eaten? (lit you ate not ate meal)

However, if the pattern of verb 没 verb is broken up, the affirmative aspect particle 了 for completed actions is placed after the verb and the verb is not repeated. Instead 没有 is added to the end of the question.

Subject 了 object 没有

你 吃 了 饭 没有

Nǐ chī le fàn méiyou

Have you eaten? (lit you ate meal not ate )

Choice-type questions with 还是 (19)

还是 háishi or is used to request that a choice is made between two objects or two actions:

你学 中文 还是日文

nǐ xué Zhōngwén háishi rìwén

Are you learning Chinese or Japanese? (lit. you learn Chinese or Japanese)

The short answers for "yes" and "no" (2)

There are no "fixed" words for "yes" or "no" in Chinese answers. One uses the verb or verb with verb particle used in the question.

你好 吗?
nǐ hǎo ma? 🎵

How are you?

The short affirmative answer is the stative verb of 好 hǎo yes (lit. well) and its negative form is 不好 bù hǎo no (lit. not well). If the question is

你是 老师 吗?

nǐ shì lăoshī ma? 🎵

Are you a teacher?

The affirmative answer is the verb 是 shì yes, and the negative form is 不是 búshì no.

The short answer to 你吃了饭吗? nǐ chī le fàn ma? have you eaten? is the verb 吃 chī and the verb particle 了 le: 吃了 chī le.

The position of time words in Chinese sentences (17)

Time words describe time "when", such as 现在 xiànzài now, 今天 jīntiān today and 三点 sān diăn three o’clock. A time word should be placed before adverbs, verbs and stative verbs in sentences.

我 今天 很 忙

wǒ jīntiān hěn máng 🎵

I am very busy today.

The time word 今天 jīntiān today is placed before the adverbial intensifier 很 hěn very and is followed by the stative verb 忙 máng busy.

他今天 三 点 去 我 家
tā jīntiān sān diǎn qù wǒ jiā

He is going to my house at three o’clock today.

The time words 今天三点 jīntiān sān diǎn three o’clock today are placed before the verb 去 qù to go. You might have noticed that the word order for time words is a reversed version of English word order. This is because Chinese word order in descriptions starts from the background and extends to the foreground. When expressing time, one starts with the year, then moves to the month, then the date, then the time, and so on. For instance, today is 24 June 2006. The word order in Chinese is 2004 年 nián 6 月 yuè 24 日 rì. Last May in Chinese will be 去年五月 qùnián wǔyuè (lit. last year’s May).

Binominal verbs and verb-object patterns (8)

A Chinese character has only one syllable, and every character has its own meaning or function in a sentence, but many words in spoken Chinese are multi-syllabic. There are many binominal verbs, some of which take an adverb-verb form, such as 欢迎 huānyíng welcome (lit. joyfully greet). Some take a verb-verb form, as in 学习 xuéxí study (lit. learn practise), while others take a verb-object form of a verb and a noun, such as 吃饭 chī fàn lit. eat meal to eat; 教书 jiāo shū lit. teach books) to teach and 吸烟 xī yān lit. inhale smoke) to smoke. Have you eaten in Chinese is 你吃饭了吗? nǐ chī fàn le ma (lit. you eat meal LE MA), while I teach at Oxford will be

我 在 牛津 教 书

wǒ zài Niújīn jiāo shū

(lit. I am at Oxford teach books).

Many textbooks don’t indicate the structure of Chinese words in their vocabulary lists. Verb-object words are often categorised as verbs. This may cause confusion when forming sentences at a more advanced stage in your learning, so it would be a good idea to mark verb-object pattern words when you are learning new vocabulary. The following table consists of
the most commonly used verb-object words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V-O words</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 说话 shuōhuà | say speech | 别说话！ bié shuō huà  
\(\text{Don’t speak!}\) |
| 吃饭 chīfàn | eat meal/rice | 不吃饭。 bù chī fàn  
\(\text{Not eating.}\) |
| 睡觉 shuǐjiào | sleep | 没睡觉。 méi shuǐ jiào  
\(\text{Didn’t sleep.}\) |
| 看书 kànshū | read books | 他在看书。 tā zài kànshū  
\(\text{He is reading.}\) | |
| 写字 xiězì | write words | 我不会写字。 wǒ bùhuì xiě zì  
\(\text{I can’t write.}\) |
| 画画 huàhuà | paint/draw | 你会画画吗？ nǐ huì huà huà ma  
\(\text{Can you draw?}\) |
| 唱歌 chànggē | sing songs | 他会唱歌吗？ tā huì chàng gē  
\(\text{Can he sing?}\) |
| 吸烟 xīyān | inhale smoke | 我不吸烟。 wǒ bù xī yān  
\(\text{I don’t smoke?}\) |
| 教书 jiāoshū | teach books | 他在中国教书。 tā zài zhōngguó jiāo shū  
\(\text{He teaches in China.}\) |
| 念书 niànshū | read books | 你在哪儿念书？ nǐ zài năr niàn shū  
\(\text{Where do you study?}\) |
| 洗澡 xīzāo | wash/bathe | 我不洗澡。 wǒ bùxī zāo  
\(\text{I don’t wash.}\) |

**Greeting words (8)**

These are the most commonly used greeting words

你好 nǐhăo  
\(\text{Hello}\)
Some English greeting words are not used in Chinese. For instance, 晚安 wănān good night is only used by people influenced by Western culture. 再见 zàijiàn goodbye is the expression that Chinese people use when parting in the evening. The most commonly used greeting in Chinese is 你好 nĭhăo hello (lit. you well). The expression 早 zăo morning is also used. Close to meal times the greeting words between friends and colleagues of the same social rank might be

吃了 吗？

chīle ma

Have you eaten?

Chinese people often use a person’s title to show respect to those who are socially superior. For instance, if you met your teacher Mr. Wang in the street you would greet him like this:

王 老师 好

Wáng lăoshī hăo

Hello, Mr. Wang (lit. Wang Teacher well).

In the morning you should say:

王 老师 早

Wáng lăoshī zăo
Morning, Mr. Wang. (lit. Wang Teacher morning).

Repetition of greeting words (8)

Chinese people often repeat greeting phrases to show sincerity and enthusiasm. When you meet a Chinese person he or she may say 你好,你好 nǐhǎo nǐhǎo hello, 欢迎,欢迎 huānyíng huānyíng welcome, 谢谢,谢谢 xièxie xièxie thank you very much and 再见,再见 zànjiàn zàijiàn goodbye.

Prefixes 老 and 小 (31)

Both 老 láo old and 小 xiăo little are used as prefixes for surnames to show a degree of closeness when addressing colleagues or friends.

The Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) sentence patterns (9)

Most commonly-used Chinese sentences are like English ones, and use a subject-verb-object pattern:

我 是 中 国 留 学 生

wǒ shì Zhōngguó liú xuéshēng

I am an overseas student from China

我 叫 丁 云

wǒ jiào Dīng Yún

I am called Ding Yun.

Numbers in Chinese

Counting numbers (10,11)

If you have learned the numbers one to ten (一 yī 二 èr 三 sān 四 sì 五 wǔ 六 liù 七 qī 八...
bā 九  jiǔ  十  shí) and the words for a hundred 百  bǎi, a thousand 千  qiān and ten-thousand 万  wàn, you will be able to count in Chinese.

It is very easy to work out the Chinese number system. For instance, eleven is 十一  shí yī lit. *ten and one*, so twelve is 十二  shí èr  ten and *two*, twenty is 二十  èr shí  two tens and twenty two is 二十二  èr shí èr  two tens and *two*. A hundred and twenty two is 一百二十二  yī bǎi èr  shí èr  one hundred, two tens and *two*.

The word for zero 零  líng is also used for missing units in counting. For instance, 105 will be 一百零五  yī bǎi líng wǔ  *one hundred zero* and *five*. The word 零  líng  *zero* here indicates the missing unit of tens. If there are two or more missing units in a number, only one zero is used. For instance, 10,202 in Chinese is 一万二百零二  yī wàn èr bǎi líng èr  *one ten thousand*, two hundred, zero and *two*.

If you are going to be a Chinese banker, you may have to learn more complicated figures. For instance, one million is 一百万  yī bǎi wàn (lit. *one hundred of ten thousands*); a hundred million is 亿  Yì.

The following is a table of Chinese number units to help you to work out any figures you want in Chinese.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>亿 Yì</th>
<th>千 qiān</th>
<th>百 bǎi</th>
<th>十 shí</th>
<th>万 wàn</th>
<th>千 qiān</th>
<th>百 bǎi</th>
<th>十 shí</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the Chinese words on the first line are said aloud here. For instance, if you insert the figure of 453,679,102 into the boxes below you should say:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>亿 Yì</td>
<td>千 qiān</td>
<td>百 bǎi</td>
<td>十 shí</td>
<td>万 wàn</td>
<td>千 qiān</td>
<td>百 bǎi</td>
<td>十 shí</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
四億五千三百六十萬九千一百零二  sì yī wǔ qiān sān bǎi liù shí qī wàn jiǔ qiān yī bǎi líng èr.

However, a word in orange from the second line is said when there are no more figures after it. For instance, the figure 150,000,000 is *a hundred and fifty million* in English and is 一亿五千万 *yī yì wǔ qiān wàn* in Chinese:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>亿</td>
<td>千</td>
<td>百</td>
<td>十</td>
<td>万</td>
<td>千</td>
<td>百</td>
<td>十</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yì</td>
<td>qiān</td>
<td>bǎi</td>
<td>shí</td>
<td>wàn</td>
<td>qiān</td>
<td>bǎi</td>
<td>shí</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figure only uses the first two columns on the left, including one word in orange.

**Reading out aloud a number**

Telephone numbers and year numbers are spoken individually in Chinese. The year 1965 is 一九六五年 *yī jiǔ liù wǔ nián* (lit. 1965 year).

Two irregular features about numbers are worth mentioning here.

1. The tone for 一 *yī one* changes according the tone of the succeeding word. It should be pronounced in the fourth tone unless the word after 一 *yī is in the fourth tone, in which case 一 *yī should be pronounced in the second tone. 一 *yī one* is only pronounced in the first tone when there is no word after it. The yī pronunciation for one can become indistinct if used with other numbers or (especially) if repeated, so one is also pronounced yāo when used for numbering:

1 1 3 路 电 车

yāoyāo sān lù diànchē

*Route 113 trolleybus.*
2. When expressing quantity, 两 liăng two is used instead of 二 èr two. For instance, 两个老师 liăng ge làoshī two teachers. However, in a larger number that involves two, then 二 èr is used, but not 两 liăng. Some examples are: 十二个老师 shí èr ge làoshī twelve teachers.

**Written form for numbers**

Complicated Chinese characters are used for bank notes, cheques and receipts to avoid forgery, as shown on the second line below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>零</th>
<th>壹</th>
<th>貳</th>
<th>叁</th>
<th>肆</th>
<th>伍</th>
<th>陆</th>
<th>柒</th>
<th>捌</th>
<th>玖</th>
<th>拾</th>
<th>佰</th>
<th>仟</th>
<th>万</th>
<th>亿</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Verb 一 下 (11)**

When 一 下 yíxià is preceded by a verb, it has the following two functions.

1. It is used as a time measure to imply that an action lasts for a short time:

我用一下, 好吗?

wǒ yòng yíxià hǎo ma

*Could I use it for a little while?*

2. **Verb 一 下…yíxià** is used to soften the tone of voice, as leaving a verb at the end of a sentence sounds too definite, or even rather crude.

There are two other formulas that have the same function.

1. Reduplication of verbs, as in: 我给你 介绍介绍… wǒ gěi nǐ jièshào jièshào… *let me introduce you…*

2. The **verb 一 yi verb** pattern, as in 请你说一说 qǐng nǐ shuō yì shuō * (you) please speak.*


Co-verbs and co-verb phrases

The term "co-verb" refers to a verb when, used with its own object, its function is to modify the main verb of a sentence. An example is 在 zài, which can be used as a co-verb meaning to be located in, on or at a place. Please note in this context that sequence and background are important in Chinese when it comes to describing actions. The first action in a sequence should come first in an utterance. The way to learn co-verb phrases properly is to understand the description of sequence in Chinese word order. For instance,

小 丁 在 家 看 书

Xiao Ding is reading a book at home.

The first action in the sequence could be described as the background to the main action, but it still has to come first in the sentence, with the co-verb 在 zài to be located in followed by the noun 家 jiā home forming a co-verb phrase. In the example given here Xiao Ding would have had to be at home before he started reading the book.

English prepositions are similar to Chinese co-verbs, but they appear after the main verbal clause. This means that it can be difficult for English speakers to master Chinese co-verb phrases.

Here are some more examples to help you to consolidate the concept of co-verb phrases.

1. 我 坐 飞机 去 中 国

wǒ zuò fēijī qù Zhōngguó

I’ll go to China by plane.

The action of 坐 zuò taking (lit. sitting on) the plane happens before going to China, so the co-verb phrase 坐飞机 zuò fēijī by (taking the) plane is placed before the main verbal clause
去中国 qù Zhōngguó  go to China.

2. If you want to say I study Chinese at Oxford you must bear in mind that in a Chinese person’s mind the person has to be 在牛津 zài Niújīn  at Oxford before he can 学汉语 xué Hânyŭ  study Chinese, so the sentence in Chinese is

我 在 牛津 学 汉语

wǒ zài Niújīn xué Hânyŭ

3. How do you say He goes to school by car? You must bear in mind that he has to take (or sit in) the car before he can reach school, so 坐汽车 zuò qìchē  by (taking the) car should be placed before 去学校 qù xuéxiào  go to school. The Chinese sentence should be 他坐汽车去学校 tā zuò qìchē qù xuéxiào.

The words in the following list are the most commonly used co-verbs for beginners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Co-verbs</th>
<th>Verb meaning</th>
<th>Prep. in English sentence</th>
<th>Followed by words of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>从 cóng</td>
<td>to start</td>
<td>from /th ough</td>
<td>place/time (when)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>朝 cáo</td>
<td>to face</td>
<td>towards</td>
<td>direction place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>到 dào</td>
<td>to arrive</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>place/time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>对 duì</td>
<td>to be face to face</td>
<td>to/towards/about</td>
<td>people/knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>给 gěi</td>
<td>to give</td>
<td>to/for</td>
<td>people/organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>跟 gēn</td>
<td>to follow</td>
<td>with/to</td>
<td>people/organisation (...一起)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>离 lí</td>
<td>to distance</td>
<td>rom</td>
<td>place/time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>替 tì</td>
<td>to replace</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>people/organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>往 wàng</td>
<td>to go</td>
<td>towards</td>
<td>direction/place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>为 wèi</td>
<td>to be on behalf of</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>people/organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>用 yòng</td>
<td>to use</td>
<td>with/in</td>
<td>noun (used as a tool)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>在 zài</td>
<td>to (be) locate(d)</td>
<td>at/in/on</td>
<td>place/time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measure words (15)

Words used for quantifying objects are called measure words. In English, some nouns are used in expressions of quantity to measure uncountable nouns, such as cup of in a cup of tea, bottle of in a bottle of wine and piece of in a piece of paper. However, measure words are used to quantify every object in Chinese. In

三 个 ren

Three people.

The word GE is a measure word used to quantify people. Here are some more examples.

1. If a number is attached to a noun, a measure word is inserted between the number and the noun, as in

我 有 三 个 老师

wǒ yǒu sān ge lăoshī

I have three teachers.

2. If a specifier such as 这 zhè this, 那 nà that or 每 měi every is attached to a noun, a measure word is inserted between the specifier and the noun, as in

这 个 老师 是 汉 语 老师

zhè ge lăoshī shì Hânyŭ Lăoshī

This teacher is a Chinese language teacher.

3. If a question word such as 几 jiŷ how many or 哪 nă which is used, a measure word is
inserted between the question word and the noun, as in 你有几个老师 nǐ yǒu jǐ ge lăoshī?

*How many teachers do you have?*

The most commonly used measure word is the very general 个 ge but other Chinese measure words often categorise what follows according to shape and type. For instance, the measure word 条 tiáo is used for quantifying objects that are long, thin, narrow and twisted, such as ropes, snakes, streets and rivers, but is also used for quantifying news, lives, and lower-body worn items such as trousers!

There are two special Chinese nouns that do not need measure words. One is 年 nián *year* and the other is 天 tiān *day* (including 日 rì)

There are so many measure words that they are even a nightmare for the Chinese. Worse still, measure words used in the north of China may be different from those used in the south. The following list gives the "essential" Chinese measure words for beginners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MW</th>
<th>Used for</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>本 běn</td>
<td>book-like objects</td>
<td>Magazines 四本杂志; novels 三本小说</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>层 cèng</td>
<td>floors (similar to 楼)</td>
<td>storey 三层楼</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>次 cì</td>
<td>actions</td>
<td>to pay a visit 去了一次中国; to do something 这件事作了两次</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>顶 dīng</td>
<td>something to put over on s head</td>
<td>hats 一顶帽子; umbrellas 一顶雨伞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>顿 dùn</td>
<td>actions which last for a short period</td>
<td>to eat a meal 吃了一顿饭; to beat somebody up 把他打了一顿</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>封 fēng</td>
<td>something sealed in an envelope</td>
<td>letters 两封信; telegrams 一封电报</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>幅 fú</td>
<td>picture-like objects</td>
<td>paintings 三幅画; banners 八幅标语</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>个 ge</td>
<td>units of something (common measure word for abstract and physical objects)</td>
<td>people 五个人; ideas 一个主意...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>间 jiān</td>
<td>any kind of room</td>
<td>bed-room 一间卧室; kitchen 两间厨房;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 太 expresses excessiveness (16)

This construction is used to express an extreme state in a situation or action. The affirmative form of the 太 tài construction is 太 [stative verb] 了, which means extremely [stative verb] as in 太 好了 tài hǎo le extremely good. Without the particle 了 in the affirmative form, the tone is rather crude. The negative form 不 太 bú tài [stative verb] without 了 le means that something is not extremely... [stative verb], as in 不 太 好 bú tài hǎo not very good.

### Pronoun/noun + 这儿 or 那儿 (16)

A pronoun/noun + 这儿 or 那儿 is similar to the English expression (somebody’s) place, as in

我 们 去 小 王 那儿

wǒmen qù Xiǎo Wáng nàr

*We will go to Xiao Wang’s place.*

你 来 我 这儿

nǐ lái wǒ zhèr

*You come to me here.*
nǐ lái wǒ zhèr

*You come to my place.* (The speaker is in *his place* as he is talking.)

**Telling the time (20)**

You might remember that when giving the date in Chinese you start from the year, then go to the month and then the day. This background-to-foreground logic also applies to time-telling, where you start from 点 diǎn *o'clock*, then go to 分 fēn *minute*, then to 秒 miǎo *second*.

The other two words that are commonly used for telling the time are 半 bàn *half* and 刻 kè *quarter*, as in 十一点半 shí yī diǎn bàn *half past eleven* (lit. eleven o'clock half); 十一点一刻 shí yī diǎn yí kè *quarter past eleven* (lit. eleven o'clock a quarter). The word 刻 kè *quarter* is only used for time, not for other objects. In colloquial Chinese, for 12 hour clock time reading you use the words 上午 shàngwǔ *a.m.* (lit. up noon) and 下午 xiàwǔ *p.m.* (lit. down noon):

**Quarter past eleven in the morning** (lit. up noon, 11 o'clock, a quarter)

Another irregular feature which should be mentioned here is that two o'clock in Chinese can be either 二点 èr diǎn or 两点 liǎng diǎn, although elsewhere it is normally 两 liǎng *two* that is used for describing quantities.

When asking or telling the time, 是 shì *to be* is not needed:

现 在 几点？
What time is it? (lit. now what time)

What time is it now?

It’s 5 o’clock. (lit. now 5 o’clock)

The modal particle 了 le, which indicates a change of situation, can be placed at the end of a sentence when expressing present time, as in

几点了?

几点了?

What time is it now?

五点 了

五点 了

It’s 5 o’clock now.

Modal verbs (19)

There are about a dozen modal verbs in Chinese. Modal verbs such as 喜欢 xīhuān like, 想 xiǎng wish and 应该 yīnggāi ought to are used to express feelings, intentions and obligations. Modal verbs are placed before the main verbs in sentences. For instance,

我想吃中国饭

I fancy eating some Chinese food

The word 想 xiǎng fancy, wish in is a modal verb which indicates the speaker’s inclination and intention.

When a modal verb is used in a sentence, the aspect particle 了 le for completed actions is not
used. A time word (time when) is placed in the sentence to indicate that an action has taken place:

我 以前 想 去 中 国

wǒ yīqián xiǎng qù Zhōngguó

*I wanted go to China in the past.*

The modal verbs in the following list are the most commonly used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Pinyin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>要</td>
<td>yào</td>
<td>want; ask for; wish; desire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>想</td>
<td>xiǎng</td>
<td>want to; would like to; feel like (something)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>应该</td>
<td>yīnggāi</td>
<td>should; ought to; must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>能</td>
<td>néng</td>
<td>can; be able to; be capable of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>喜欢</td>
<td>xǐhuān</td>
<td>like; love; prefer; enjoy; be fond of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>可以</td>
<td>kěyĭ</td>
<td>can; may</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>会</td>
<td>huì</td>
<td>be good at; be skilful in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>愿意</td>
<td>yuàn yì</td>
<td>be willing to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>肯</td>
<td>kěn</td>
<td>be willing to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asking ages

As with telling the time, the verb 是 shì *to be* is not used when talking about years of age:
你弟弟几岁？

nǐ dì di jǐ suì

How old is your younger brother? (lit. your younger brother how old)

我五岁的时候每天都吃中国饭

wǒ wǔ suì de shíhou měitiān dōu chī Zhōngguó fàn

When I was five years old, I ate Chinese food every day.

Aspects

Progressive aspects (23)

Use of the 正在 … 呢 sentence pattern

The subject (S) 正在 verb (V) object (O) sentence pattern is used to describe a progressive action in the past, at the present, or in the future. The verbs that are used in this construction are transitive verbs. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T me clause</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

昨天我去他家的时候他正在做晚饭

zuótiān wǒ qù tā jiā de shíhou tā zhèngzài zuò wǎnfàn

When I went to his house yesterday, he was cooking the supper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time clause</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

昨天他来看我的时候我在学习汉字
When he came to see me yesterday, I was learning Chinese characters.

He is right in the middle of watching the TV.

I am having a lesson now.

When he arrives in China tomorrow, I will be having a meeting.

“He was cooking the supper”, “I was learning Chinese characters”, “He is watching the TV”, “I am having a lesson” and “I will be having a meeting” are all progressive actions.

Some of the elements for the progressive constructions have special emphasis if they are used selectively. For instance, 正 zhèng can precede a verb with 呢 ne at the end of the sentence, without using the element 在 zài to create an emphatic tone of “right in the middle of”. (See the highlighted sentence below.)
All the following sentences mean *he is watching the TV* with different tones of emphasis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>正在</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>呢</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>正在</td>
<td>看</td>
<td>电视</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>正在</td>
<td>看</td>
<td>电视</td>
<td>呢</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>在</td>
<td>看</td>
<td>电视</td>
<td>呢</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>看</td>
<td>电视</td>
<td>呢</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>正</td>
<td>看</td>
<td>电视</td>
<td>呢</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the particle 着 (36)

Many grammar books describe the use of verb (V)+ 着 zhe as the continuous aspect, but I have divided the usages into the following five categories.

1. V+着 zhe can be used to describe how an object has been left in a place in a certain position. For instance,

书在桌子上放着

*shū zài zhuōzi shàng fàngzhe.*

*The book is on the table.*

This implies that the book has been *放 fàng put* on the table by someone.

门开着

*mén kāizhe*

*The door is open.*

This implies that the door has been *开 kāi open* by someone.

在墙上挂着一张画

*zàiqiángshàng guàzhe yì zhāng huà*
There is a picture hanging on the wall.

This sentence implies that a picture has been 挂 guà hung on the wall by someone.

2. However, if an action is carried out by the subject of a sentence, the V + 着 zhe pattern implies that an action is in progress. For instance, if you see a friend of yours standing there, you might say:

别 站 着。快 坐 下

bié zhànzhe. kuài zuòxia

Don’t stand there. Quickly sit down!

You might describe a group of students sitting in a classroom in the following way:

学 生 们 都 在 教 室 里 坐 着

xuéshēngmen dōu zài jiàoshì lǐ zuò zhe

The students are sitting in the classroom.

The meaning of this sentence is similar to the form of its progressive aspect

学 生 们 都 正 在 教 室 里 坐 着 呢

xuéshēngmen dōu zhèng zài jiàoshì lǐ zuò zhe ne

As you might have noticed that there is no object after the verb 坐 zuò sit, but instead the verb is followed by the particle 着 zhe. Another difference between the above sentence and the sentence pattern of the progressive aspect is that the word 在 zài here is a co-verb which means to be in (classroom) and it is not part of the elements that are used in the progressive aspect.

3. V + 着 zhe can also be used to describe how an action is carried out with another action. For instance,

小 学 生 唱 着 歌 去 学 校
xiăoxuéshēng chàngzhe kē qù xuéxiào

*The primary school children go to school singing.*

The phrase 唱着歌 chàngzhe kē *singing* describes the way that the primary school children go to school.

他 吸着 烟 看 书
tā xīzhe yān kàn shū

*He reads while he is smoking.*

The phrase while he is smoking describes the way that he reads.

The stative verb 忙 máng can be followed by particle 着 zhe to describe other actions as demonstrated below.

他 忙 着 准 备 考 试 呢
tā mángzhe zhǔnbèi kăoshì ne

*He is busy preparing the exams.*

他 忙 着 谈 恋 爱 呢
tā mángzhe tán liàn ài ne

*He is busy being in love.*

There are other verbs that can be used like 忙 máng such as 吵闹着

孩子们 吵 (闹) 着 要 我 带 他们 去 公 园 玩
háizimen chăo(nào)zhe yào wǒ dài tāmen qù gōngyuánwán

*The children are nagging me to take them to the parks.*
4. The expression of V+ 着 zhe has a commanding tone. It is used to demand that a listener to carry out an action continuously. The only verbs that can be used in these expressions are some of the monosyllabic ones. For instance,

等 着
děngzhe
Wait! (Don’t go away.)

站 着
zhànzhe
Stand up! (Don’t sit down.)

记 着
jì zhe
Remember! (Don’t forget.)

坐 着
zuòzhe
Sit! (Don’t stand up or move about.)

看 着
kānzhe
Watch it! (Don’t lose your concentration)

5. A stative verb can precede 着呢 zhēně to describe excessiveness. The expression is placed at the end of a sentence. For instance,

中 国 的 夏 天 热 着 呢
zhōngguó de xiàtiān rèzhēně
The summer in China is extremely hot.

他 的 钱 多 着 呢
tā de qián duōzhēně
He has got plenty of money.

我 每 天 都 忙 着 呢
wǒ měi tiān dōu máng zhe ne
I am busy everyday

The aspect for the completion of actions (27)

Although the aspect particle 了 le is one of the most complicated Chinese grammar points, I
will only be explaining the practical aspect of the particle in this section.

Unlike the English past tense, the aspect particle 了 le only affects certain verbs in certain sentence constructions. The following list consists of the common rules for the use of the particle which are supported by examples. Learning where to apply the aspect particle 了 le in a sentence is important, but the most difficult thing is to know when it is not used. Learners must remember the following eight points when expressing a completed action in Chinese.

1. The aspect particle 了 le is placed **after the main action verb** of a sentence to indicate that the action has been completed. The aspect particle 了 le is **not used** when a verb is **in the negative form**. When expressing an action that did not occur in the past, a verb is preceded by the negation 没 méi **did not**. The following sentences demonstrate how some of the action verbs such as 学 xué to learn, 吃 chī to eat or 去 qù to go are used in the sentences with the aspect particle 了 le and the negation 没 méi.

The sentence below shows that the verb 吃 chī **to eat** is used in the affirmative form.

我 刚 吃了 一 块 面 包

wǒ gāng chīle yí kuài miànbāo

*I’ve just eaten a piece of bread.*

The following sentence shows the verb 吃 chī **to eat** in the negative form.

我 没 吃 面 包

wǒ méichī miànbāo

*I didn’t eat bread.*

The next sentence shows the verb 去 qù **to go** in the affirmative form.

他 去了 两 次 中 国

tā qùle liǎngcì zhōngguó
He went to China twice.

The following sentence shows 去 qù to go in the negative form.

他 没 去 中 国
tā méiqù zhōngguó

He didn’t go to China.

The following sentence shows the verb 学 xué to learn in the affirmative form.

小 王 学 了 三 年 法 文
xiǎowáng xuéle sānnián fǎwén

Xiao Wang studied French for three years.

The following sentence shows the verb 学 xué to learn in the negative form.

小 王 没 学 法 文
xiǎowáng méixué fǎwén

Xiao Wang didn’t study French.

If a sentence consists of a time measure such as three months or an action measure such as twice, the measures should be placed after the main verb of the sentence, as demonstrated below. More examples can be seen in Lesson 31 of Practical Chinese Reader Book II.

我 学 汉 语 学 了 三 个 月
wǒ xué hànyǔ xuéle sān ge yuè

我 学 了 三 个 月 的 汉 语
wǒ xuéle sān ge yuè de hànyǔ

我 汉 语 学 了 三 个 月
wǒ hànyǔ xué le sān ge yuè

*I studied Chinese for three months.*

2. One might have noticed that the above affirmative sentences have complex objects. However, when describing a particular action, if the object of the sentence is a simple one i.e. a noun, which is not attached to a number and measure word, and not attached to a descriptive clause (的 clause), the aspect particle 了 le can be placed at the end of the sentence. For instance,

```
今天上午你去哪儿了  or 今天上午你去了哪儿
jīn tiān shàngwǔ nǐ qù năr le   or jīn tiān shàngwǔ nǐ qù le năr
```

*Where did you go this morning?*

我 去 买 书 了

wǒ qù māi shū le

*I went out to buy (a) book.*

Both objects of the sentences, 哪儿 năr *where* and 书 shū *book* are simple words without clauses attached, therefore the aspect particle 了 le can be placed at the end of the sentences.

As one can see that the answer in the above conversation uses the same sentence pattern as it is in the question.

3. The rules of the aspect particle 了 le only apply to the main verb of a sentence. If an action verb is used in a descriptive (的) clause as it demonstrated below, it will not be affected by the rules. The aspect 了 le is not used with stative verbs either. For example,

```
我们昨天学的汉语很容易
wǒmen zuótiān xué de hànyǔ hěn róngyì
```

*The Chinese language that we learned yesterday was very easy.*
The aspect particle 了 le is not used in the above sentence for the following two reasons.

- The action verb 学 xué learned is only used to describe the subject of the sentence, 汉语 hànyǔ Chinese language, and is not the main verb of the sentence.
- The main verb of the sentence is the stative verb, 容易 róngyì was easy, therefore the aspect particle 了 le is not applied.

4. The aspect particle 了 le is not used when describing a completed action that one has done regularly. In other words, if a sentence consists of the words that indicate regularity, such as 每天 méitiān everyday, 常常 chángcháng often or 总是 zǒngshì always, the aspect particle 了 le is not used, but a time adverb such as 昨天 zuótiān yesterday or 去年 qùnián last year is placed in a sentence to indicate that the action has been completed. The negation for a habitual action in the past is 不 bù do not, but not 没 méi. For example,

去年 我们 总是 吃 中 国 饭
qùnián wǒmen zǒngshì chī zhōngguó fàn

We always ate Chinese meals last year.

去年 我们 每天 都 不 吃 中 国 饭
qùnián wǒmen méitiān dōu bùchī zhōngguó fàn

We didn’t eat a Chinese meal during a single day.

5. When the verbs that imply habitual actions such as 是 shì, to be, 在 zài to be in and 有 yǒu to have are used as the main verbs of sentences, the aspect particle 了 le is not used. In this case the negation for these verbs is 不 bù not except for 有 yǒu. See below,
Ten years ago, Xiao Wang was a Chinese language teacher.

Xiao Wang wasn’t a Chinese language teacher ten years ago.

I was in the library yesterday.

I wasn’t in the library yesterday.

I had a lot of money last year.

I didn’t have a lot of money last year.

6. If a modal verb is used in a sentence, the aspect particle 了 le should not be applied, but a time adverb such as 昨天 zuótiān yesterday or 去年 qùnián last year is placed in the sentence to indicate the completion of the action. The negation for a modal verb in the past is 不 bù do not, but not 没 méi. Modal verbs are those verbs which express intentions, such as 想 xiǎng wish to and 要 yào want to; the verbs that are used to express feelings such as 喜欢 xǐhuān like and 爱 ài love; or the verbs that express obligations such as 应该 yīnggāi ought to,
能 néng can and 可以 kěyǐ may. For instance,

昨天晚上 我很想吃中国菜
zuótiān wǎnshang wǒ hěn xiǎng chī zhōngguó cài

*I really wanted to eat some Chinese food last night.*

昨天晚上我不想去吃中国菜
zuótiān wǎnshang wǒ búxiǎng chī zhōngguó cài

*I didn’t want to eat Chinese food last night.*

7. The aspect particle 了 le is not used in the complement of degree construction. In other words when one expresses a sentence using verb+得+adverb, the aspect particle 了 le is not used. As you may have remembered, the complement of degree construction is used to describe habitual actions, such as “he runs very fast” and “she eats slowly”. It is mentioned in points 4 and 5 of this section that the aspect particle 了 le is not used when describing a regular action in the past. Although the complement of degree construction can also be used to describe the result or the outcome of a particular (one off) action, the aspect particle 了 le is not used. The following sentence describes a past habitual action without using the particle 了 le. The following sentence describes the regular action of studying in the past without using the particle 了 le.

去年他学中文学得很好
qùnián tā xué zhōngwén xué de hěnhǎo

*He studied Chinese very well last year.*

The following sentence describes the outcome of a particular action, cooking in the past, without using the aspect particle 了 le.

昨天晚上他做饭作得很好
zuótiān wǎnshang tā zuò fàn zuò de hěnhǎo
He cooked a lot last night.

8. If a sentence describes a sequence of completed actions, the aspect particle 了 le is placed after the last verb in the sequence, but in a negative sentence, the negation 没 méi is placed before the first verb. For instance,

昨天 我 去 大学 书 店 买 了 三 本 书

zuótiān wō 去 大学 书 店 买 了 三 本 书

I went to the university bookshop and bought three books yesterday.

昨天 我 没 去 大学 书 店 买 书

zuótiān wō 没 去 大学 书 店 买 书

I didn’t go to the university bookshop to buy books yesterday.

If one of the actions in a sequence is completed and the other is not, they should be treated separately as indicated below.

我 去 了 大学 书 店，可是 没 买 书

wō 去 了 大学 书 店，可是 没 买 书

Yesterday I went to the university bookshop, but I didn’t buy books.

过 expressing experiences of actions in the past (32)

The verb suffix 过 guò can be used in the following two situations.

1. The particle 过 guò is placed after a verb to express an experience of action in the past, such as

他 学 过 中 文 我 去 过 中 国
tā xué guò zhōngwén  wǒ qù guò zhōngguó

He has studied Chinese.  I’ve been to China.

When expressing an experience of action that didn’t occur, the negation 没 méi will be used and the verb will be followed by 过 guò. For example

他 没 学 过 中 文  我 没 去 过 中 国

tā méi xué guò zhōngwén  wǒ méi qù guò zhōngguó

He has never learned Chinese.  I haven’t been to China.

2. The particle 过 guò can also be used to express the completion of a regular activity within a specific time, such as having a meal, sleeping, having lessons or doing homework. This type of affirmative sentence is often ended with the modal particle 了 le to indicate the change of the situation. The following sentences imply some of the regular activities that one does daily. Many native Chinese would use the aspect particle 了 le instead of 过 guò in the following affirmative sentences.

(今天) 我 吃 过 午饭 了  I’ve had lunch (for today).
(jīntiān) wǒ chī guo wǔfàn le

(今天) 我 没 吃 过 午饭  I haven’t had lunch today.
(jīntiān) wǒ méi chī guo wǔfàn

(今天) 我 睡 过 觉 了  I’ve slept today.
(jīntiān) wǒ shuì guo jiào le

(今天) 我 没 睡 过 觉  I haven’t slept today.
(jīntiān) wǒ méi shuì guo jiào

(今天) 我 上 过 课 了  I’ve had today’s classes.
(jīntiān) wǒ shàng guo kè le

(今天) 我 没 上 过 课  I haven’t had today’s classes.
(jīntiān) wǒ méi shàng guo kè
I’ve done today’s homework. I haven’t done today’s homework.

Particle 吧, used for making suggestions

Position words with 在, 是 and 有(22)

1. The following table consists of all the position words. Position words are often bi-syllabic in spoken language. They are often formed by a joining position word with 边 biān side, 面 miàn face or 间 jiān between. Either of the suffixes 边 biān side or 面 miàn face can be used as a suffix in a position word. The suffix 间 jiān between can only be preceded by 中 zhōng centre.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position words</th>
<th>Suffixes</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>前 qián</td>
<td>边/面 biān/miàn</td>
<td>in front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>后 hòu</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>左 zuǒ</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>left side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>右 yòu</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>right side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>上 shàng</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>upper side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>下 xià</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>underside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>里 lǐ</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>外 wàn</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>东 dōng</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>east side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>南 nán</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>south side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>西 xī</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>west side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>北 běi</td>
<td>边/面</td>
<td>north side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>中 zhōng</td>
<td>间 jiān</td>
<td>middle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. The word order for expressing the position of an object in Chinese is different from what it is in English. As explained in the 的 de section, the primary information is placed after 的 de and the descriptions of the information are placed before 的 de. If one wants to say, “on the left of the dormitory”, in Chinese it would be 宿舍的左边 sùshè de zuòbiān dormitory’s left. The primary information is left which is placed after 的 de. To illustrate this speech pattern an English – Chinese comparison table is given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Chinese word order</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top of the bookshelf</td>
<td>Bookshelf’s upperside</td>
<td>书架(的)上边 shūjià shàngbiān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underneath the table</td>
<td>Table’s underside</td>
<td>桌子(的)下边 zhuōzi xiàbiān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside the house</td>
<td>House’s inside</td>
<td>房子(的)里边 fángzi lǐbiān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the east side of the library</td>
<td>Library’s east</td>
<td>图书馆(的)东边 tǔshūguǎn dōngbiān</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. There are three common ways to express the position of an object in a sentence by using the verbs 在 zài to be in/on/at, 是 shì to be and 有 yǒu there is/are. In the following patterns, “A” and “B” represent objects or items and the PW stands for position words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English sentence</th>
<th>Chinese sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### The use of 请 (8)

请 qǐng has many meanings in Chinese. It means *to ask* (sb. to do sth.), *to invite*, and *please*, and is sometimes used with other Chinese words to form expressions. The best way to learn 请 qǐng is to see how it is used in various practical contexts.

1. When a friend comes to your house, you might use the following expressions to welcome him.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A is PW of B</th>
<th>A is B’s PW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| *The canteen is in front of the dormitory.* | 食堂 在 宿 舍 的 前 边
| *In front of the dormitory is the canteen.* | 宿 舍 的 前 边 是 食堂
| *There is a canteen in front of the dormitory.* | 宿 舍 的 前 边 有 一 个 食堂

#### Do come in. 请 进 qǐng jìn

#### Do have a seat. 请 坐 qǐng zuò

#### Would you like some tea? 请 喝 茶 qǐng hē chá

In China you might also say:

请 吸烟
Would you like a cigarette? (lit. please breath in smoke)

You might have noticed that the word 请 qǐng is followed by verbs in the above examples.

2. When you want to ask someone a favour, you can the word 请 qǐng. For example if you want your Chinese friend to help you with your homework you might say:

请 你 教 我 汉 语

Please teach me Chinese. (lit. please you teach me Chinese)

If your Chinese friend is incapable of answering your questions, you might say:

请 你 问 你 老 师

Please ask your teacher. (lit. please you ask your teacher)

When 请 qǐng is used to ask a favour, it is followed by full sentences, as can be seen in the above examples.

3. 请 qǐng means to invite. For example:

我 请 你 喝 酒

Let me buy you a drink. (lit. I invite you to drink wine.)

When you use 请 qǐng for to invite, it usually means that you will take care of any payment. For example, if you say to a Chinese friend 我请你吃饭 wǒ qǐng nǐ chī fàn, you are expected to pay the bill.

4. The use of 请 qǐng in Chinese is not the same as that for the English word “please”. 请 qǐng is not used when asking for permission, as can be seen below.
我 能 喝 杯 茶 吗?

*wǒ néng hē bēi chá ma*

*May I have a cup of tea please? (lit. I can drink a cup of tea MA?)*

他 能 用 一下 你 的 车 吗?

tā néng yòng yíxià nǐ de chē ma

*Could he please use your car for a while? (lit. he can use for a while your car MA)*

As you may have noticed, the word 请 qǐng is not used in the Chinese questions above, although the word “please” is used in the English translation.

5. 请 qǐng is also used to form the following expressions.

请 问 请 教 请 客 请 假

qǐng wèn  qǐng jiào  qǐng kè  qǐng jià

*May I ask… May I ask your advice? Entertain friends Ask for leave*

Let’s see how the first expression above is used in sentences.

请问 qǐng wèn *excuse me; may I ask...* is one of the most common expressions used for starting a question politely. For example:

请问 谁 是 你的 汉 语 老 师?

qǐng wèn shéi shì nǐ de hàn yǔ lǎo shī

*Excuse me, who is your Chinese teacher?*

谁是你的汉语老师 shéi shì nǐ de hàn yǔ lǎo shī *who is your Chinese teacher* is a question. The function of the expression 请问 qǐng wèn is to attract the listener’s attention before the question is asked.
Verbs that take two objects (15)

There are only a few verbs in Chinese that can take both indirect and direct objects without any other particles being used. Let’s look at the following examples, which make use of the verbs 还 huán to return (sth to sb), 教 jiāo to teach and 给 gěi to give.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>Indir O</th>
<th>Dir O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>还</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>词典</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>huán</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>cídiǎn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I’m returning the dictionary to you.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>Indir O</th>
<th>Dir O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>教</td>
<td>我</td>
<td>汉语</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>jiāo</td>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>hànyǔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*He teaches me Chinese.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>Indir O</th>
<th>Dir O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>给</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>书</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>huán</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>shū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I’m giving the books to you.*

Serial verbs (after verbs of motion 来 and 去)

The verbs 来 lái to come and 去 qù to go are used to describe motion coming towards or moving way from a speaker. More explanations and examples will be given in the “directional complement” section, but we would like to demonstrate here how 来 lái and 去 qù are followed by the noun or the main verbal clause of a sentence. For example:
He is coming to my house for tea. (lit. he is coming to my home to drink tea)
The motion in the above sentence moves towards the speaker. 来 lài to come is followed by 我 jiā my home.

He is coming for tea. (lit. he is coming to drink tea)
The motion in the above sentence moves towards the speaker. 来 lài to come is followed by the verbal clause 喝 chá drink tea.

I'm going to the bookshop to buy books.
The motion in the above sentence moves away from the speaker. 去 qù to go is followed by the noun 书店 shū diàn bookshop.

I'm going out to buy books. (lit. I'm going to buy books)
The motion in the above sentence moves away from the speaker. 去 qù to go is followed by the verbal clause 买书 mǎi shū buy books.

Apart from indicating motion direction, 来 lài has the following functions.
1. It can mean that *let sb. do sth* …

我 来 给 你 作

wǒ lái gěi nǐ zuò

Let me do it for you.

I’d like a bottle of beer.

2. 来 lái is used for ordering food and drinks in restaurants. The expression implies the ‘Bring me’ …that you might say to a waiter:

来 一瓶 啤酒

lái yì pí jiǔ

I’d like a bottle of beer.

Use of 有

有 yǒu means *to have*. This is the only verb whose negative form is 没有 méiyǒu *not have*.

不 bù *not* is not used with 有 yǒu.

The Chinese word 有 yǒu *to have* is not used when translating an English past participle. In other words, 有 yǒu *to have* is not used when saying ‘I have done my work’.

Review of interrogatives following 好吗

The interrogative expression 好吗 hǎoma *is it OK? / how about?* is used in making suggestions. 好吗 hǎoma is placed at the end of a statement to form a question. For instance:

我们 去 看 电 影 好 吗?
wǒmen qù kàn diànyīng hǎoma

Shall we go and see a film? / How about seeing a film?

我们去看电影 wǒmen qù kàn diànyīng we are going to see a film is a statement. hǎoma is it OK? / how about? is added at end to form a question with the force of a suggestion. The use of hǎoma is similar to the use of the sentence particle ba. However, the sentence particle ba has a more assertive tone (equivalent to the first person plural imperative ‘let’s’ in English), while hǎoma leaves more of the choice to the listener.

If we replace 好吗 hǎoma with the sentence particle ba in the above statement, the imperative connotation is stronger.

我们去看电影吧。

wǒmen qù kàn diànyīng ba

(Come on.) Let’s go and see a film.

The answers for both types of question are either 好 hǎo OK or 不行 bù xíng no (not OK). The negative answer 不行 bù xíng no (not OK) is often followed by a reason. For instance, to give a negative answer to the above suggestion, we could say:

不行，我跟我男朋友一起去看京剧。

bù xíng, wǒ gēn wǒ nán péngyou yìqǐ qù jīngjù

Sorry, I can’t; my boyfriend and I are going to a Peking Opera.

NB Apologies such as sorry are not as common in Chinese as in English.

Modal particle 了

This section gives a brief introduction to the use of the end-of-sentence particle 了 le. This modal particle 了 le may be used in the following situations.
1. To indicate change
2. To indicate imminent action
3. To indicate excessiveness (Please see notes on 太了)

1. The modal particle 了 le can be used to indicate change, such as in the weather, in seasons or in time.

两点半了。冬天了。
liǎngdiǎnbàn le dōngtiān le

It’s 2:30 now. It’s winter now.

The modal particle 了 le can also indicate a change of situation, or that a situation no longer exists.

丁老师去年教我们汉字现在教我们语法了。
dīng lăoshī qùnián jiāo wŏmen hànzi, xiànzài jiāo wŏmen yŭfă le

Mr Ding taught us Chinese characters last year. He teaches us grammar now.

我不是老师了。
wŏ búshì lăoshī le

I am no longer a teacher.

The modal particle 了 le in the above examples implies “now”. The following end-of-sentence 了 also has the function of bringing the action of “learning” into the present.

我学汉语学了三个月了。
wŏ xué hàn yŭ xuéle sān ge yuè le

I have been studying Chinese for three months.

Here, the modal particle 了 le at the end of the sentence indicates that the action of learning is still going on. Without the end-of-sentence 了 le it means that the action of learning has been
completed.

2. The modal particle 了 le is used as a sentence component to indicate that an action is about to take place. The other components used in this type of sentence pattern are 要 yào, 就 jiù and 快 kuài. Possible formulas for this speech pattern are as follows.

- 要...了
- 快...了, 快要...了, 就快...了.
- 就要...了, 就快...了.

The imminent action is placed between 要 yào, 就 jiù, 快 kuài and 了 le. Other possible elements that can be placed in this speech pattern are time words (such as winter, summer, June and 10 o’clock), verb-object phrases, and verbs. For instance,

快十二月了。 (month) 快要冬天了。 (season)
kuàishí èr yuè le kuàiyào dōngtiān le

It’s nearly December. It’s almost winter.

小丁要来了。 (verb) 就要开车了。 (verb-object)
xiǎo dīng yào lái le jiù yào kāi chē le

Xiao Ding is about to arrive. The bus is about to leave.

[1] The term of "stative verbs" is used in Colloquial Chinese by T’ung and Pollard. It is described as "predicative-only adjectives" on page 68, in Chinese A Comprehensive Grammar by Yip Po-Ching and Don Rimmington and it is described as "adjectival verbs" on page 56, in Modern Mandarin Chinese Grammar by Claudia Ross and Jing-heng Sheng Ma

[2] Co-verb phrases are called prepositional phrases in Modern Mandarin Chinese Grammar; prepositions in Practical Chinese Reader

[3] Measure words are called classifiers in Modern Mandarin Chinese Grammar
Adverbs 就 and 才 with time words and numbers

The adverbs 就 jiù and 才 cái serve many functions in sentences, and this section will introduce two particular usages. 就 jiù and 才 cái should be placed before verbs in sentences. The use of 就 jiù or 才 cái expresses the notion that the timing of an event is earlier or later than expected. Let us look at how these adverbs are used in the following sentences.

小 丁 今天 八 点 睡 觉 了。

Xiaodíng jīntiān bā diăn shuǐjiàole

Xiao Ding went to bed at eight o’clock.

The above sentence relates the fact that the action of going to sleep happened at eight o’clock, but by using the adverb 就 jiù, the sentence becomes:

小 丁 今天 八 点 就 睡 觉 了。

Xiaodíng jīntiān bā diăn jiù shuǐjiàole

Xiao Ding went to bed (as early as) eight o’clock.

As you can see, the adverb 就 jiù is placed before the verb 睡 shuǐ to sleep in the above sentence. 就 jiù is used to comment on the preceding time expression 八点 bā diăn eight o’clock, and indicates that it was earlier than the speaker expected. In other words, the speaker is expecting Xiao Ding to go to sleep after eight o’clock.

小 丁 今天 八 点 才 睡 觉。

Xiaodíng jīntiān bā diăn cái shuǐjiào

Xiao Ding only went to bed at eight o’clock. (Lit Xiao Ding went to bed as late as eight o’clock.)

The adverb 才 cái implies “only then”. In other words, the speaker is expecting Xiao Ding to
go to sleep before eight o’clock. Notice that in addition to the adverb 就 jiù being replaced by 才 cái, the end of sentence particle 了 le has also disappeared in the above sentence.

就 jiù or 才 cái can also be used to express a view on a number that is smaller or bigger than expected. Let us see the effect that the adverbs 就 jiù and 才 cái have on the following sentences.

他用 两 个 小 时 作 了 一 顿 中 国 菜。

tā yòng liǎng ge xiǎoshí zhuò le yídùn zhōngguó cài.

*He took two hours to cook a Chinese meal.* (Lit *He used two hours….*)

The adverbs 就 jiù and 才 cái are not used in the above sentence. The sentence only states the fact that it has taken him two hours to cook a Chinese meal. However, if 就 jiù is added to the above sentence, it becomes:

他用 两 个 小 时 就 作 了 一 顿 中 国 菜。

tā yòng liǎng ge xiǎoshí jiù zhuò le yídùn zhōngguó cài.

*It only took him two hours to cook a Chinese meal.* (Lit *It took him as little as two hours to cook a Chinese meal.*

就 jiù is used to comment on the preceding period of time 两 个 小 时 liǎng ge xiǎoshí two hours. The speaker thinks that two hours is a short length of time. However, if 才 cái is used instead, as demonstrated below, the sentence has a different implication, although the meaning is similar.

他用 两 个 小 时 才 作 了 一 顿 中 国 菜。

tā yòng liǎng ge xiǎoshí cái zhuò le yídùn zhōngguó cài.

*He only finished cooking a Chinese meal after two hours.* (Lit *It took him as long as two hours to cook a Chinese meal.*

By using the adverb 才 cái in the above sentence, the speaker shows that he thinks that the preceding two hour period of time is of short length. The sentence implies that it took him as
long as two hours to cook the meal.

When using the adverbs 就 jiù and 才 cái, one must remember the following points.

1. 就 jiù and 才 cái must be placed before verbs
2. 就 jiù or 才 cái can be used to comment on preceding time words and number words which are earlier and smaller or later and larger than expected.
3. The end of sentence particle 了 le is not used when 才 cái is used.

Complement of degree 得

The complement degree construction is commonly used in the following situations.

1. To describe habitual actions. In other words, it is used to describe how someone normally does something.
2. To describe the result of a particular action.
3. To describe the extent of a stative verb.

得 de is always preceded by a verb. It is important to remember that when you use a verb which is in the verb-object form, you must make sure that the verb (but not the object) is placed before 得 de. Because of this, a verb is often repeated in the first part of a complement of degree construction. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>v-o / topic</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>adv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>游泳</td>
<td>游</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>很快。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>yóuyǒng</td>
<td>yóu</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>hěn kuài</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I swim very quickly.

As you may know, 游泳 yóuyǒng is a verb in the V-O form, in other words, 泳 yǒng is a noun, so it should not be placed before 得 de. In spoken Chinese, people often omit the object of a V-O phrase when using the complement of degree construction. If the V-O (topic) is clear to listeners, the topic can be omitted.
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>v-o / topic</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>adv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>游</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>hěn kuài</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>yóu yǒng</td>
<td>yóu</td>
<td>bú kuài</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I swim very quickly.

不 bú, the negation for the complement of degree is placed before adverbs. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>v-o / topic</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>不</th>
<th>adv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>游</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>不</td>
<td>快。</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>yóu yǒng</td>
<td>yóu</td>
<td>bú</td>
<td>kuài</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I don't swimming quickly.

Sometimes the verb in the topic is omitted to avoid repetition, and the object of the sentence can be placed before the verb. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>v-o / topic</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>adv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>她</td>
<td>中 国 菜</td>
<td>作</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>真 不 错。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>zhōngguó cài</td>
<td>zuò</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>zhēn bùcuò</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She cooks Chinese meal really well.

The above examples describe habitual actions. When the complement of degree is used to describe the outcome of a particular completed action, a time word is needed, as a verb that is placed before 得 de cannot take the aspect particle 了 le. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tw</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>v-o / topic</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>adv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>昨 天 晚上</td>
<td>她</td>
<td>中 国 菜</td>
<td>作</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>真 不 错。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zuótiān wǎnshang</td>
<td>tā</td>
<td>zhōngguó cài</td>
<td>zuò</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>zhēn bùcuò</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She cooked a Chinese meal really well last night.

However, the aspect 了 le does not affect verbs that are used to describe the outcome of actions. In other words, verbs that are placed after 得 de can still take aspect 了 le. For example,
Xiao Wang was so sad that she cried for two days.

As you may have noticed, aspect 了 le is used for the verb to cry in the clause that describes the stative verb 难过 nánguò to be sad. The above example illustrates the fact that the 得 de construction can also be used to describe the extent of the stative verb. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>sv</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>小 王</td>
<td>难 过</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>哭 了 两 天。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>nánɡuò</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>kū le liǎnɡtiān</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chinese is so difficult that we don’t want to learn it any more!

In the above sentence, the phrase 我们都不想学了 wǒmén dōu bù xiǎnɡ xué le we don’t want to learn it any more describes the extent of the difficulty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>sv</th>
<th>得</th>
<th>degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>中 文</td>
<td>难</td>
<td>得</td>
<td>我们 都 不 想 学 了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhōnɡ wén</td>
<td>nán</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>wǒmén dōu bù xiǎnɡ xué le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We are so busy that we don’t even sleep a single day.

The phrase we don’t even sleep a single day describes the extent of the matter.
The use of the adverbial 地

The adverbial particle 地 de is used to describe the way or manner in which an action is carried out. The descriptions can be adverbs or phrases with an adverbial function. Adverbs used to describe actions should be placed before 地 de as demonstrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>adv</th>
<th>地</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>认真</td>
<td>地</td>
<td>在纸上</td>
<td>写了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>rènzhēn</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>zài zhǐ shàng</td>
<td>xiě le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He very carefully wrote three Chinese characters on a piece of paper.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>adv</th>
<th>地</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>一笔一笔</td>
<td>地</td>
<td>在纸上</td>
<td>写了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>bǐ yī bǐ</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>zài zhǐ shàng</td>
<td>xiě le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stroke by stroke, he wrote three Chinese characters on a piece of paper.

As you may have noticed, the aspect 了 le is used in the above sentences. The adverb phrase 一笔一笔地 yībǐ yībǐ de stroke by stroke is placed before the co-verb phrase 在纸上 zài zhǐ shàng to be on paper.

The negation for the adverbial 地 sentences is 不 bù, which is placed before the adverbial phrases. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>不</th>
<th>adv</th>
<th>地</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>不</td>
<td>认真</td>
<td>地</td>
<td>在纸上</td>
<td>写</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>bù</td>
<td>rènzhēn</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>zài zhǐ shàng</td>
<td>xiě</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He is carelessly writing Chinese characters on a piece of paper.
The negation 没 méi is used for denying that an action has taken place in the suggested manner. For example, if someone says "he wrote Chinese characters very carefully", you can deny it by saying

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>没 adv</th>
<th>地</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>méi rènzhēn de</td>
<td>在纸上写</td>
<td>汉字。</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He didn't write the Chinese characters carefully on the paper.

The above Chinese sentence implies that he did write the Chinese characters, but he didn't do it in a careful manner.

A monosyllabic adverb is reduplicated when using the adverbial 地 de and the duplicated adverb is often pronounced in the first tone. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>adv</th>
<th>地</th>
<th>v</th>
<th>o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>ta màn màn de</td>
<td>在纸上写了</td>
<td>三个汉字。</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He slowly wrote three Chinese characters on a piece of paper.

The object 汉字 hànzì Chinese character in the above examples is attached to a number word and a measure word. When an object has nothing else attached to it, the adverbial 地 de can be omitted. For instance,

他总是认真工作。

tā zōngshì rènzhēn gōngzuò

He always works conscientiously.

小王总是努力学习中文。

Xiǎo Wáng zōngshì nǔ lì xuéxí Zhōngwén

Xiao Wang always studies Chinese diligently.

The above sentences describe habitual actions. You might ask if the complement of degree
construction can be used to describe the above situation. Of course you can, but it would be something like this.

小王学习中文学得很好。

Xiǎo Wáng xuéxí Zhōngwén xuéxí de hěn hăo.

Xiao Wang studies Chinese well.

You have to remember that the adverbial construction describes the manner in which an action is carried out, and the complement of degree construction focuses on the outcome of an action. As you can see from the above examples, 努力 nǔ lì diligent is used to describe the manner and 好 hăo well/excellently is a description on the outcome of Xiao Wang’s studying.

**Resultative Verb Complements**

A resultative verb complement is formed by an action verb and a resultative word. A resultative word can be a verb or a stative verb describing the outcome of an action. The examples of resultative words are 完 wán to finish as in 写完 xiěwán to finish writing and清楚 qīngchu to be clear as in 写清楚 xiěqīngchu to write it clearly. The formula of the resultative verb complements reflects the sequence of action. For instance 写完 xiěwán finish writing in Chinese becomes writing finish, as finish is the outcome of the action of writing.

Some Chinese verbs are in the form of resultative verb complements such as

看见 kànjiàn to see

听见 tīngjiàn to hear

找到 zhǎodào to find

When translating a sentence into Chinese it is important to ask yourself if the verb of the sentence is an action verb of or it is a verb with an outcome.

The following list consists of the most commonly used resultative complements.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Resultative complements</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>看 look; 听 listen</td>
<td>见 to sense</td>
<td>你听 见 她 唱 歌了吗?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nǐ tīng jiàn tā chàng gē le ma?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Did you hear her singing?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>看 look; 听 listen</td>
<td>懂 to understand</td>
<td>我 没 懂 课 文。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wǒ méi kàn dǒng kèwén?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I didn’t understand the text (by reading through it).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>放 put</td>
<td>在 to be in/on/at</td>
<td>书 放 在 桌 子 上 了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shū fàng zài zhuōzi shàng le?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>The book has been put on the table.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>送 give (sth. as a present); 拿 take; 还 return; 借 lend</td>
<td>给 to give (to a person)</td>
<td>词典 还 给 小 王 了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>cídiăn huán gěi Xiăo Wáng le?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The dictionary has been returned to Xiao Wang.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>我 的 书 借 给 丁 云 了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wŏ de shū jiè gěi Dīng Yún le?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>My book has been lent to Ding Yun.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>送 give (as a present); 学 study; 寄 send/post</td>
<td>到 to reach (to a place)</td>
<td>我 们 学 到 了 第 三 课。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wŏmen xué dào le dì sān kè?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>We have reached Lesson Three.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>你的信 小 王 送 到 你 宿舍 去 了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nǐde xìn Xiăo Wáng song dào nǐ sùshù qù le?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Your letter has been delivered to your dormitory by Xiao Wang.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>买 buy; 吃 eat; 喝 drink; 借 borrow</td>
<td>到 to obtain</td>
<td>我 没 买 到 地 图。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wǒ méi mǎi dào dì tú.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>学 study</td>
<td>会 to master</td>
<td>我们都学会中文了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wǒmen dōu xué huì Zhōngwén le</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>We have all mastered Chinese.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>送 give (as a present); 拿 take</td>
<td>走 to be away</td>
<td>礼物送走了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lǐ wù song zǒu le</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>The presents have been delivered.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 to take; 记 to remember</td>
<td>住 to be fixed</td>
<td>记住学过的生词。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>jì zhù xué guò de shēngcí</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Remember the words that (you) have learned. (It implies that you should fix the words into your memory. One could also say</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>我记了，可是没记住。</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>wǒ jì le kěshì méi jì zhù</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>I tried, but I failed to remember)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>作 do; 写 write; 学 study</td>
<td>好 to be satisfactory</td>
<td>我作好饭了。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wǒ zuò hǎo fàn le</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>I have finished cooking the meal.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

wŏ méi măi dào dì tú
I didn’t get hold of the map.

我 没 吃 到 小 王 作 的 点 心。

wŏ méi chī dào Xiăo Wáng zuò de diănxin
I didn’t get to eat the Dianxin made by Xiao Wang.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>作 do; 写 write; 说 say</th>
<th>错 to be wrong</th>
<th>你说  错了。</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>基础汉语语法</td>
<td>nǐ shuō cuò le</td>
<td>You’ve said it wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我  没   作   错。</td>
<td>wǒ méi zuò cuò</td>
<td>I didn’t do it wrong.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>作 do; 写 write; 说 say</th>
<th>对 to be right</th>
<th>你没  说  清   楚。</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>写 write; 说 say</td>
<td>清楚 to be clear</td>
<td>nǐ méi shuō qīngchu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>你没 说  清   楚。</td>
<td></td>
<td>You didn’t say it clearly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我写  清   楚   了。</td>
<td></td>
<td>I’ve written it clearly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When two objects (both direct and indirect) are involved in a sentence, the direct object is often placed at the beginning of the sentence. For example

书 我 借 给 小 王 了。

shū wǒ jiè  gěi  Xiǎo Wáng le

*I’ve lent the book to Xiao Wang.*

你的 衬衫 我 拿 到 你的 卧室 去了。

nǐ de chènshān wǒ ná dào nǐ de  wòshì qù le

*I’ve taken your shirt to your bedroom.*

Both the direct objects of the sentences above, 书 shū book and 你的衬衫 nǐ de chènshān your shirt are placed at the beginning of the sentence. The resultative word 给 gěi to is
followed by a person: 小王 Xiǎo Wáng and the resultative word 到 dào to is followed by a place: 你的卧室 nǐ de wòshì your bedroom.

The use of 从 and 离

从 cóng from is used as a co-verb in sentences such as

小 王 从 他家 来了这儿。

Xiǎo Wáng cóng tā jiā lái le zhèr

Xiao Wang came here from his home.

离 lí from cannot be used in the same way, but is used to measure the distance between two objects. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 家</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>学 院</td>
<td>很 远。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>hěn yuǎn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My home is a long way from the college.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>V + distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 家</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>学 院</td>
<td>有 三 英 里。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>yǒu sān yīnglǐ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is three miles from my home to the college.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>V + duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 家</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>学 院</td>
<td>走 路 一 个 小 时。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>zǒu lù yī ge xiǎoshí</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It takes an hour to walk to the college from my home.
The 离 lí construction can also be used to measure duration. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离 B</th>
<th>V + duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>现在</td>
<td>下课</td>
<td>还有 一刻钟。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiànzài</td>
<td>xiàkè</td>
<td>Háiyǒu yīkè zhōng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is 15 minutes from now to the end of the class.

The co-verbs 从 cóng from and 到 dào to can also be used to measure distance and duration in the following sentence patterns.

| 从 A 到 B SV |
|------------|-----|-----------------|
| 从 我家 到 学院  很远。 |
| cóng wǒ jiā dào xuéyuàn hěn yuǎn |

My home is a long way from the college.

| 从 A 到 B V+ distance |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 从 我家 到 学院  有三英里。 |
| cóng wǒ jiā dào xuéyuàn yǒu sān yīnglǐ |

It is three miles from my home to the college.

| 从 A 到 B V + duration |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 从 我家 到 学院  走路一个小时。 |
| cóng wǒ jiā dào xuéyuàn zǒu lù yī ge xiǎoshí |

It takes an hour to walk to the college from my home.

| 从 A 到 B V + duration |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 从 现在 到 下课  还有 一刻钟。 |
| cóng Xiànzài dào xiàkè háiyǒu yīkè zhōng |

It is 15 minis between now and the end of the class.
**Negation** and **question words** are placed next to the main verbs or **stative** verbs expressing distance or duration as demonstrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我家</td>
<td>离</td>
<td>学院</td>
<td>远吗？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>yuǎn ma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Is it far from my home to the college?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我家</td>
<td>离</td>
<td>学院</td>
<td>不远。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>bù yuǎn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*It is not far from my home to the college.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>离</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我家</td>
<td>离</td>
<td>学院</td>
<td>多远？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ jiā</td>
<td>lí</td>
<td>xuéyuàn</td>
<td>duō yuǎn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*How far is it from my home to the college?*

**Directional Verb Complements**

A direction verb complement can be formed by an action verb such as 走 zuǒ* to walk* and a word that expresses direction of action such as 进 jìn in or 出 chū out. For instance:

走进教室。

zǒu jìn jiàoshì

*To walk into the classroom.*
The following list consists of the **single directional words**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Directional complements</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>挂 guà <em><strong>to hang</strong></em></td>
<td>上 shang <em><strong>up, on</strong></em></td>
<td>挂上地图 guà shàng dì tú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>戴 dài <em><strong>to wear</strong></em></td>
<td></td>
<td>To hang up the map. dài shàng màozì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>放 fàng <em><strong>to put</strong></em></td>
<td>下 xià <em><strong>down</strong></em></td>
<td>放下书 fàng xià shū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>走 zǒu <em><strong>to walk</strong></em></td>
<td>进 jìn <em><strong>in</strong></em></td>
<td>车开进了学院 chē kāi jìn le xuéyuàn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 ná <em><strong>to take</strong></em></td>
<td>开 kāi <em><strong>to drive</strong></em></td>
<td>The car has been driven into the college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>走 zǒu <em><strong>to walk</strong></em></td>
<td>进 jìn <em><strong>in</strong></em></td>
<td>走出教室 zǒu chū jiàoshì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 ná <em><strong>to take</strong></em></td>
<td>开 kāi <em><strong>to drive</strong></em></td>
<td>To walk out of the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 ná <em><strong>to take</strong></em></td>
<td>开 kāi <em><strong>to drive</strong></em></td>
<td>拿回家 ná huí jiā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>寄 jì <em><strong>to post</strong></em></td>
<td></td>
<td>To take (bring) it back home. jì huí Zhōngguó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>寄 jì <em><strong>to post</strong></em></td>
<td></td>
<td>To post it back to China.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A directional verb complement can also be formed without an action verb by a directional word with 来 来 to come or 去 去 to go. Both 来 来 and 去 去 indicate the position of the speaker. 来 来 to come indicates that the direction is moving towards the speaker and 去 去 to go indicates that the direction is moving away from the speaker. For instance, if your teachers are having a meeting in the classroom and you are outside, you might advise your fellow students:

别 进 去

bié jìn qù

Don’t go in.

Another type of directional verb complement is called the combined directional verb complement. This is formed by an action verb, a directional word and 来 来 to come or 去 去 to go as in:

走 进 来

zǒu jìn lái

Walking in.

来 来 to come in the above phrase indicates that the direction of 进 jìn entering is moving towards the speaker, in other words the speaker is in the room. A direct object is often inserted into a combined directional complement. Let’s introduce a subject and an object to the above phrase.

小 王 走 进 了 教 室 来。

Xiǎo Wáng zǒu jìn le jiàoshì lái

Xiao Wang walked into the classroom. (The speaker is in the classroom.)
来 lái *to come* implies that the action is moving towards the speaker. In other words, the speaker is in the classroom. You may also have noticed that the **aspect particle 了 le** is *placed after the directional word 进 jìn* *in*. The following list consists of combined directional complements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Directional complements</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>跑 pǎo <em>to run</em></td>
<td>上来/去 shàng lái/qù <em>on</em></td>
<td>小王 跑上了山去。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>走 zǒu <em>to walk</em></td>
<td>下来/去 xià lái/qù <em>down</em></td>
<td>他走下了楼来。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 ná <em>to take</em></td>
<td>进来/去 jìn lái/qù <em>in</em></td>
<td>别走进公园去。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>开 kāi <em>to drive</em></td>
<td>进来/去 jìn lái/qù <em>in</em></td>
<td>别走进公园去。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Examples:*

- 小王 跑上了山去。 (Xiao Wang ran up the mountain.  (The speaker is at the bottom of the mountain.))
- 小丁 拿上了一杯茶来。 (Xiao Ding brought up a cup of tea.  (The speaker is upstairs.))
- 他走下了楼来。 (He walked down from upstairs.  (The speaker is downstairs.))
- 别走进公园去。 (Don’t go into the park.  (The speaker is outside park.))
| 走 zǒu **to walk** | 出来/去 chū lái /qù **out** | 她走出了房间。 tā zǒu chū le fāngjiān lái |
|——|——|——|
| 走 zǒu **to walk** | 回来/去 huí lái /qù **back** | 我跑回家。 wǒ pǎo huí jiā qù |
| 跑 pǎo **to run** | 过来/去 guò lái /qù **across, past, over** | 她拿过了一本书。 (她拿过来了书。) tā ná guò le yī běn shū (tā ná guò lái le yī běn shū) |
| 拿 ná **to take** | 起来 qǐ lái **up** (去 qù is not used with 起 qǐ) | 你们都站起来。 nǐmen dōu zhàn qǐlái |
| 开 kāi **to drive** | 站 zhàn **to stand** | You all stand up. |
Potential Verb Complements

A potential verb complement is used to describe the capability of carrying out an action, such as being capable of speaking Chinese or being capable of finishing one’s homework. A potential complement is formed from the following three elements.

1. an action verb
2. 得 de (for affirmative) or 不 bu (for negative)
3. a resultative (apart from 在, 给 and 错) or directional complement.

For examples

看 得 见 走 不 进 教室 去
kàn de jiàn zǒu bu jìn jiàoshì qù

To be able to see  
To be unable to walk into the classroom

The following examples demonstrate how potential verb complements are used in colloquial Chinese. If you can’t hear someone, you might say to him or her:

我 听 不 见 你 说 的 话。
wǒ tīng bu jiàn nǐ shuō de huà

I can’t hear what you are saying.

If the door of the classroom is locked, you might say to your teacher:

教 室 门 关 着, 我 们 走 不 进 去。
jìàoshi mén guān zhe wǒmen zǒu bu jìn qù

The classroom door is closed and we can’t get in.
If you have too much homework for the day, you might say to your teacher:

今天 的 练习 太 多 了， 我 们 作不完。

Jìntiānde liànxi tāi duō le wǒmen zuòbù wán

There are too many exercises and we can’t finish them today.

The following list consists of those commonly used potential verb complements which have not devolved from resultative and directional verb complements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Potential complements</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>吃 chī to eat 这个</td>
<td>得/不了 to be able/unable to</td>
<td>他一个人作不了这件事。tā yī rén zuò liǎo zhè jiàn shì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>说 shuō to speak, 说</td>
<td>要/不了 to be able/unable to</td>
<td>He can’t deal with this matter on his own.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>写 xiě to write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>作 zuò to do, to cook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拿 ná to take</td>
<td>得/不动 to be able/unable to move</td>
<td>东 西 不 多, 我 拿 得 动。dōng xi duō, wǒ ná de dòng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>走 zǒu to walk</td>
<td></td>
<td>There isn’t so much stuff; I can take it (on my own).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>跑 pǎo to run</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>住 zhù to live, to stay 这个</td>
<td>得/不下 to have/don’t have room for</td>
<td>这间房住得下几个人?zhè jiān fáng zhù de xià jǐ rén</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>坐 zuò to sit, to seat</td>
<td></td>
<td>How many people can this room accommodate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>站 zhàn to stand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>放 fàng to put 后 边 的 房 子 照 得 上 吗？hòu biān de fángzi zhào de shàng ma</td>
<td>得/不上 can/cannot be fitted on/in</td>
<td>Can the house in the background be fitted into the photo?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>照 zhào to take (a photo)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparatives 比 with stative verbs and complements of degree

比 bǐ to compare and 没有 méiyou not as...as are used with stative verbs to compare feelings and objects, while the ‘complement of degree’ construction is used when comparing two actions. We will be focusing on the following three sentence patterns in this section.

To compare feelings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Feeling words (V-O)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 wǒ</td>
<td>比 bǐ</td>
<td>你 nǐ</td>
<td>想 xiǎng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我 wǒ</td>
<td>没有 méiyou</td>
<td>你 nǐ</td>
<td>想 xiǎng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I’m more home-sick than you. / I’m not as home-sick as you are.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Feeling words (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 wǒ</td>
<td>比 bǐ</td>
<td>你 nǐ</td>
<td>喜欢 xǐhuān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我 wǒ</td>
<td>没有 méiyou</td>
<td>你 nǐ</td>
<td>喜欢 xǐhuān</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I like studying more than you do. / I don’t like studying as much as you do.

To compare two objects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 的书 wǒ de shū</td>
<td>比 bǐ</td>
<td>你(的书) nǐ(de shū)</td>
<td>多 duō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我 的书 wǒ de shū</td>
<td>没有 méiyou</td>
<td>你(的书) nǐ(de shū)</td>
<td>多 duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have more books than you. / I don’t have as many books as you do.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 昨 天 买 的 书</td>
<td>比/没有</td>
<td>你(昨 天 买 的 书 )</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ zuótiān mǎi de shū</td>
<td>bǐ/méiyou</td>
<td>nǐ (zuótiān mǎi de shû)</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yesterday I bought more books than you. / Yesterday I didn’t buy as many books as you did.

When the description of “object A” is clear, the description of “object B” can be omitted. The above example, comparing quantities of books (that I bought and you bought yesterday) can also be changed into a comparison of two actions by using the complement of degree construction.

To compare two actions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Action B</th>
<th>Result of action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 昨 天 买 书</td>
<td>比/没有</td>
<td>你 买 得</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ zuótiān mǎi shū</td>
<td>bǐ/méiyou</td>
<td>nǐ  mǎi de</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yesterday I bought more books than you did. / Yesterday I didn’t buy as many books as you did.

You might have noticed that the complement of degree construction is divided into two parts in the above example. The topic, which consists of the SVO, appears in “Action A”, and the extent of the action appears in “Action B”. Let’s look at some more examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action A</th>
<th>比/没有</th>
<th>Action B</th>
<th>Result of action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 写 汉 字</td>
<td>比/没有</td>
<td>你 写 得</td>
<td>漂 亮</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ xiě Hánzi</td>
<td>bǐ/méiyou</td>
<td>nǐ xiě de</td>
<td>piàoliàng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I write Chinese characters more elegantly than you do. / I don’t write Chinese characters as elegantly as you do.

The adverb 很 hěn very is not used in comparatives. If the expression “very much” is needed in a sentence, 多 了 duōle much more can be added after the stative verb or any adverbs.
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Stative verb + 多了</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 的 书</td>
<td>比</td>
<td>你 ( 的 书 )</td>
<td>多 多 了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>nǐ ( de shū )</td>
<td>duō duōle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have many more books than you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action A</th>
<th>比</th>
<th>Action B</th>
<th>Adverb + 多了</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 写 汉 字</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>你 写 得</td>
<td>漂 亮 多 了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ xiě Hánzì</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>nǐ xiě de</td>
<td>piàoliàng duōle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I write Chinese characters much more elegantly than you do.

更 gèng even more / less is placed before a verb to compare the feelings of two people. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Feeling words (V-O)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>更 想 家</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>gèng xiǎngjiā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I’m even more home-sick than you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>比</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Feeling words (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>更 喜欢 学习</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>bǐ</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>gèng xiǎn xuéxí</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I like studying even more than you do.

不比 bùbǐ not more than… is another negative comparative construction. The difference between 不比 bùbǐ sentences and 没有 méiyou sentences is that in a 不比 bùbǐ sentence the quality of the object that appears before 不比 bùbǐ is not better than that of the object that appears after 不比 bùbǐ, but could be of the same quality. However, in 没有 méiyou sentences the quality of the object that appears before 没有 méiyou is always worse than that of the object that appears after 没有 méiyou.
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>没有</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的书</td>
<td>méiyou</td>
<td>你的书</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>méiyou</td>
<td>nǐ(de shū)</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I don’t have as many books as you do.* (You have more books.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>不比</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的书</td>
<td>bùbǐ</td>
<td>你的书</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>bùbǐ</td>
<td>nǐ(de shū)</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I don’t have more books than you.* (I may have the same amount as you, but not more.)

**Comparatives with 一样**

The expression 一样 yíyàng *as same as* … is used to make two objects equal. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>一样</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的书</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你的书</td>
<td>yíyàng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ de shǔ</td>
<td>yíyàng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*My book is the same as yours.*

The negative form of this construction is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>不一样</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的书</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你的书</td>
<td>bùyíyàng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ de shǔ</td>
<td>bùyíyàng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*My book is not the same as yours.*

一样 yíyàng can also be used to compare feelings, objects and actions. Let’s use the examples in the above section with the expression 一样 yíyàng *as same as* …
To compare feelings

The negating 不 bù is placed before the co-verb 跟 gēng when expressing feelings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>(不)跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>一样</th>
<th>Feeling words (V-O)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>一样</td>
<td>想 家</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>yǐyāng</td>
<td>xiǎngjiā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I'm as home-sick as you are.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>(不)跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>一样</th>
<th>Feeling words (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你</td>
<td>一样</td>
<td>喜欢 学习</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>yǐyāng</td>
<td>xǐhuān xuéxí</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I like studying as much as you do.

To compare two objects (the negating 不 bù is placed before 一样 yǐyàng.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>(不)一样</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 的 书</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你(的 书)</td>
<td>一样</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de shū</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ(de shū)</td>
<td>yǐyàng</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have the same number of books as you do.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Object A</th>
<th>跟</th>
<th>Object B</th>
<th>(不)一样</th>
<th>Stative verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 昨 天 买 的 书</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你(昨 天 买 的 书)</td>
<td>一样</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ zuótiān mǎi de shū</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ(zuótiān mǎi de shū)</td>
<td>yǐyàng</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yesterday I bought the same number of books as you did.

To compare two actions (the negating 不 bù is placed before 一样 yìyàng.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action A</th>
<th>跟</th>
<th>Action B</th>
<th>(不)一样</th>
<th>Result of action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我 昨 天 买 书</td>
<td>跟</td>
<td>你 买 得</td>
<td>一样</td>
<td>多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ zuótiān mǎi shū</td>
<td>gēng</td>
<td>nǐ mǎi de</td>
<td>yǐyàng</td>
<td>duō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yesterday I bought the same number of books as you did.
### Action A 跟 Action B (不)一样 Result of action

| 我 写 汉 字 | 跟 | 你 写 得 一样 | 漂 亮 |
| wǒ xiě Hánzì | gēng | nǐ xiě de | yíyàng | piàoliàng |

*I write Chinese characters as elegantly as you do.*

### The 把 sentence construction

The 把 bā construction is used to talk about, for example: handling or disposing of a **particular object** (such as sending a particular letter to somewhere); saying a particular sentence clearly; or putting something somewhere.

The verbs used in 把 bā sentences take complicated forms such resultative complements, directional complements and the complement of degree. Because of the complex use of verbs in the 把 bā construction, it is important to learn or revise the grammar points that are in the other sections relating to the 把 bā construction before embarking on this section.

Although 把 bā is not often used as a verb in modern Chinese, it still retains the meaning of *to hold or to grasp*. In this section I will introduce 把 bā as a co-verb in the 把 bā construction. Please note in this context that sequence is important in Chinese when it comes to describing actions. The first action in a sequence should come first in an utterance. The way to learn co-verb sentences properly is to understand the description of sequence in Chinese word order. The following two patterns are commonly used to form 把 bā sentences.

1. **A sentence with a verb and direct and indirect objects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>(没)把</th>
<th>O direct</th>
<th>V+ other element</th>
<th>O indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>小 李</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>xìn</td>
<td>寄 给 了</td>
<td>小 王</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiǎo Lǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>xìn</td>
<td>jì gěi le</td>
<td>Xiǎo Wang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Xiao Li has sent the letter to Xiao Wang.*
These two sentences show how the direct and indirect objects are connected by the verb complements 寄给 jì gěi send to and 寄到 jì dào send to. (The complement 给 gěi to is followed by persons and the complement 到 dào to is followed by places.) The above examples also demonstrate that ‘aspect’ 了 le is placed after the verbs: in the first example it is placed after 寄给 jì gěi send to and in the second example it is placed after 去 qù.

2. A sentence with a verb and an object

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>(没)把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ other element</th>
<th>O indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>小李</td>
<td>把</td>
<td>信</td>
<td>寄到</td>
<td>中国 去了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiǎo Lǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>xìn</td>
<td>jì dào</td>
<td>Zhōngguó qù le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Xiao Li has sent the letter to China.

You didn’t say it clearly.

The negation 没 méi did not is placed before the co-verb 把 bǎ in the above sentence.

Modal verbs, adverbial 地 de and co-verb phrases can also precede 把 bǎ. For example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ other element</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>你</td>
<td>没把</td>
<td>话</td>
<td>说清楚</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>méi bǎ</td>
<td>huà</td>
<td>shuō qīngchǔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Would you like to say it clearly?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ other element</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>你</td>
<td>要把</td>
<td>话</td>
<td>说清楚 吗？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>yào bǎ</td>
<td>huà</td>
<td>shuō qīngchu ma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Say it clearly here.
Say it clearly, sentence by sentence.

The following list consists of five types of the most common elements that can be attached to verbs in 把 sentences.

1. **Complement of degree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ complement of degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>huà</td>
<td>shuō de fēicháng qīngchu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You’ve said it very clearly indeed.

2. **Resultative complements apart from 见**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ resultative complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>huà</td>
<td>shuō chuò le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You’ve said it wrong.

3. **Directional complements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ directional complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>chènshān</td>
<td>ná jìn lái</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bring in the shirt.

4. **…action measures**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ action measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>fángjiān</td>
<td>zhěnglǐ yìxià</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tidy up the room a little.
5. …着 (as a continuous aspect)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>把</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ 着</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>mén</td>
<td>kāi zhe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leave the door open.

Potential verb complements are not used in the 把  bǎ construction; instead the modal verb 能 néng is placed before 把 bǎ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>能</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>V+ other element</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǐ</td>
<td>néng</td>
<td>bǎ</td>
<td>fàn chī wán ma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Can you finish this meal?

Passive with 被, 让, 叫 and 给

In Chinese, the passive constructions with 被 bèi 让 ràng 叫 jiào and 给 gěi are not as frequently used as are passive constructions in English. For instance, when translating the previous sentence into Chinese, one would not use the 被 bèi construction.

1. The co-verbs 被 bèi 让 ràng 叫 jiào and 给 gěi are used to introduce the agent of a passive sentence, as in 我的车被小王借走了 wǒ de chē bèi Xiǎo Wáng jiè zǒu le my car has been borrowed by Xiao Wang. The co-verb 被 bèi introduces the agent, Xiao Wang, who has carried out the action of borrowing. All the co-verbs above have the same function when introducing the agent of a passive sentence, but 被 bèi is the most commonly used. The following tables show the sentence components that are used in the 被 bèi construction.
My car has been borrowed by Xiao Wang.

My car has been driven back home by Xiao Wang.

You might have noticed that the ‘action verb plus other element’ constructions used in the above sentences are complicated ones. Which elements that can be used with verbs in a 被 被 construction? Let’s look at the following list.

2. The elements that are commonly preceded by verbs in the 被 被 construction are:

   --resultative complements

   --directional complements

   --the complement of degree

   --action measures

As you may have noticed, the elements that are used in the 被 被 sentence construction are very similar to the ones used in the 把 把 construction. After learning the examples below please try to reformulate them as 把 把 constructions.

The TV has been mended by Xiao Wang.
3. 被 bei can also be used to form a passive sentence without introducing an agent, but 给 gei 让 jiào and 叫 ràng cannot be used in this way. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>bei/ràng/jiào/gěi</th>
<th>agent</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的车</td>
<td>被/让/叫/给小王</td>
<td>开回家去了</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de chē</td>
<td>bèi/ràng/jiào/gěi</td>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>kāi huí jiā qù le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My car has been driven back home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>bei/ràng/jiào/gěi</th>
<th>agent</th>
<th>verb + complement of degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>房间</td>
<td>被/让/叫/给小王</td>
<td>打扫得干净</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fángjiān</td>
<td>bèi/ràng/jiào/gěi</td>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>dǎsǎo de hěn gānjìng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The room has been cleaned up very nicely by Xiao Wang.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>bei/ràng/jiào/gěi</th>
<th>agent</th>
<th>verb + action measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的车</td>
<td>被/让/叫/给小王</td>
<td>用了一会儿</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de chē</td>
<td>bèi/ràng/jiào/gěi</td>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>yòng le yíhuò</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My car has been used by Xiao Wang for a little while.

The TV has been mended.
The room has been cleaned up very nicely.

4. The above examples also indicate that aspect 了 is used when expressing the idea of an action that has happened. 没 not can be followed by the co-verb 被 běi to change the above examples into the negative form in order to deny that the action has taken place. For example, if someone says that:

The TV has been mended by Xiao Wang.

You can deny that the action has taken place by saying:

The TV hasn’t been mended by Xiao Wang.

If someone says that:

The room has been cleaned up very nicely.
You can deny that the outcome of the action by saying:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th></th>
<th>verb + complement of degree (bu)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>房间</td>
<td>被</td>
<td>打扫得不很干净</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fángjiān</td>
<td>bèi</td>
<td>dǎsǎo de buhěn gānjìng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The room has been cleaned up very nicely.

5. Adverbs that are used to describe actions are placed before the verb in a 被 bèi construction, unlike adverbs that are used in the 把 bā construction, which are followed by the co-verb 把 bā. Let’s see look at some examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>bèi</th>
<th>agent</th>
<th>adverbial phrase + de</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>课文</td>
<td>被</td>
<td>小王</td>
<td>清清楚楚地念</td>
<td>了一遍</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kèwén</td>
<td>bèi</td>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>Qīngqīngchǔchǔ de</td>
<td>niàn le yíbiàn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The text has been read out very clearly by Xiao Wang.

If we use this information to form a 把 bā sentence it would become:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>adverbial phrase + de</th>
<th>bā</th>
<th>object</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>小王</td>
<td>清清楚楚地把</td>
<td>课文</td>
<td>念</td>
<td>了一遍</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiǎo Wáng</td>
<td>qīngqīngchǔchǔ de</td>
<td>bā</td>
<td>kèwén</td>
<td>niàn le yíbiàn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Xiao Wang has read the text out loud very clearly.

**Notional passive (without 被, 让, 叫 and 给)**

6. A notional passive sentence is formed without the co-verbs 被 bèi 让 ràng 叫 jiào and 给 gěi. Let’s use the examples that we have used in the previous section to form some notional passive sentences.
My car has been driven back home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我的车</td>
<td>开回家去了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ de chē</td>
<td>kāi huí jiā qù le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The TV has been mended.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>电视</td>
<td>修好了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diànshì</td>
<td>xiū hǎo le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The room has been cleaned up very nicely.

As the subjects in the above examples cannot carry out actions themselves, then we assume that the actions must have been undertaken by someone else. In fact this sentence pattern is very useful for describing how an object has been dealt with. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>书</td>
<td>放在桌子上</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shū</td>
<td>fàng zài zhuōzi shàng le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The book has been put on the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + other elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>饭</td>
<td>拿上楼去了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàn</td>
<td>ná shàng lóu qù le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The meal has been brought upstairs.

The verb components in the notional passive are very similar to those of the 被 bèi construction. They are action verbs with other elements, as shown below.
resultative complements

directional complements

the complement of degree

action measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + resultative complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>饭</td>
<td>作 好了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>吃</td>
<td>zuò hǎo le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The book has been put on the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + directional complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>饭</td>
<td>拿 上楼 去了</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>吃</td>
<td>ná shàng lóu qù le</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The meal has been brought upstairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + complement of degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>房间</td>
<td>打扫 得很干净</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>房间</td>
<td>dǎsǎo de hěn gānjìng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The room has been cleaned up very nicely.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>verb + action measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>课文</td>
<td>念了两遍</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>课文</td>
<td>niàn le liǎng biàn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The text has been read twice.

没 méi not can be used to deny that the above actions have taken place, but 不 bu is used with the complement of degree.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>méi verb + resultative complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>饭</td>
<td>没 作 好</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàn</td>
<td>méi zuò hǎo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The meal hasn’t been prepared.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>méi verb + directional complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>饭</td>
<td>没 拿 上 楼 去</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fàn</td>
<td>méi ná shàng lóu qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The meal hasn’t been brought upstairs.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>verb + complement of degree (bu)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>房 间</td>
<td>打扫 得 不 很 干 净</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fángjiān</td>
<td>dǎsǎo de bu hěn gānjìng</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The room hasn’t been cleaned up very nicely.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>méi verb + action measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>课文</td>
<td>没 念 两 遍</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kèwén</td>
<td>méi niàn liǎng biàn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The text hasn’t been read twice.* (It implies that the text may only have been read once, or possibly three times.)

**Conjunctions**

I will introduce ten of the most commonly used Chinese conjunctions in this section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Pinyin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>要是... 就...</td>
<td>yàoshi...jiù...</td>
<td>if...then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...要不...</td>
<td>...yàobú...</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>只要...就...</td>
<td>zhǐyào...jiù...</td>
<td>as long as...; provided that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>只有...才...</td>
<td>zhǐyǒu...cái...</td>
<td>only...; only when...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>因为...所以...</td>
<td>yīnwèi...suǒyì...</td>
<td>because ...therefore...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不但...而且...</td>
<td>bùdàn...érqìě...</td>
<td>not only...but also...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>虽然...但是...</td>
<td>suīrán...dànshì...</td>
<td>although......</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sentence patterns 1 - 4 above are conditional constructions.

1. 要是 yàoshì... 就 jiù... if...then... A condition is placed after 要是 yàoshì and is followed by the 就 jiù clause which indicates the consequence of the condition. The adverb 就 jiù must be placed before verbs or stative verbs. For example, a parent might say to a child:

要是你学好汉语，我就给你很多钱。

yàoshì nǐ xué hǎo Hànyǔ, wǒ jiù gěi nǐ hěn duō qián

If you learn Chinese well, I’ll give you a lot of money.

2. 要不 yàobú...otherwise. The clause that precedes 要不 yàobú indicates a required condition and an undesirable result is placed after 要不 yàobú otherwise. For example, a strict parent might say to a child:

你应该学好汉语，要不我不给你钱。

nǐ yīnggāi xué hǎo Hànyǔ, yàobú wǒ bù gěi nǐ qián

You should learn Chinese well, otherwise I won’t give you any money.

3. 只要 zhǐyào...就 jiù... as long as...; provided that... The 只要 zhǐyào clause is used to introduce a condition that can be easily achieved, or is a minimum requirement, and the 就 jiù clause introduces the outcome of the condition. The adverb 就 jiù must be placed before verbs or stative verbs. For example, a lenient parent might say to his or her child:

只要你学汉语，我就给你很多钱。

zhǐyào nǐ xué Hànyǔ, wǒ jiù gěi nǐ hěn duō qián

As long as you learn Chinese, I’ll give you a lot of money.
4. 只有 zhǐyǒu…才 cái…only…The 只有 zhǐyǒu clause is used to introduce a condition that is hard to achieve, and the 才 cái clause introduces the outcome of the condition. The adverb 才 cái must be placed before verbs or stative verbs. For example, if a parent desperately wants his or her child to learn Chinese well he or she might say:

5. 只有 你 把 汉语 学 好, 我 才 给 你 钱。

zhǐyǒu nǐ bǎ Hànyǔ xué hǎo, wǒ cái gěi nǐ qián

Only when you have learned Chinese well will I give you money.

5. 因为 yīnwèi…所以 suǒyǐ… because…therefore… A friend might want to know why a parent has given a lot of money to her child. The parent might say:

因为 他 学 好 了 汉语, 所以 我 给 他 很 多 钱。

yīnwèi tā xué hǎo le Hànyǔ, suǒyǐ wǒ gěi tā hěn duō qián

As he has learned Chinese well, I’ve given him a lot of money.

6. 不但 búdàn…而且 érqǐě… not only…but also…不但 búdàn and 而且 érqǐě can be placed before the subject or the verb of their clauses: this depends on the emphasis required. If the emphasis is on the subject then they should be placed before the subject; if the emphasis is on the action then they should be placed before the verb. After completing his Chinese degree, the student has got his reward from his parent. He might say:

我 不但 学 会 了 汉 语, 而且 拿 到 了 很 多 钱。

wǒ búdàn xué huì le Hànyǔ, érqǐě nádào le hěnduō qián

I’ve not only learned Chinese, but have also got a lot of money.

The following example shows 不但 búdàn and 而且 érqǐě are used for emphasizing the subjects. As the material reward scheme is very successful, the parent's youngest son wants to
learn Chinese as well.

Not only the oldest son studied Chinese, but also the youngest son would like to learn Chinese as well.

7. **Although**...
The **suīrán** although clause should precede the **dànshì** clause. Unlike the English ‘although’ construction, the second clause should always start with **búdàn** or **kěshì** but… For example, if the parent breaks her promise and doesn’t give money to the student, the student might say:

Although I’ve learned Chinese well, I haven’t got the money (that was promised).

8. **As soon as**...This construction is used to express the idea of a second action immediately following the first action. Both **yī** and **jiù** should be followed by verbs. The aspect **le** is not used in the **yī** clause. For example:

As soon as he completed the Chinese course, his father gave him a lot of money.

9. **The more... the more.** The conditional clause following the first **yuè** shows the extent of the feeling, state or action; the second **yuè** clause shows the result. **yuè** should always be placed before a verb, stative verb or adverb. However, **yuè** precedes the result of an action with a complement of degree. For example:
汉 语 越 学 越 容 易。

Hàn yǔ yuè xué yuè róngyì

The more one studies Chinese, the easier it becomes.

我 学 得 越 多 拿 到 的 钱 越 多。

wǒ xué de yuè duō ná dào de qián yuè duō

The more I learn the more money I get.

我 拿 到 的 钱 越 多 越 想 学。

wǒ ná dào de qián yuè duō yuè xiǎng xué

The more money I get, the more I want to learn.

10. 除了 chūle…以外 yǐwài, … Apart from…The 除了 chūle…以外 yǐwài clause can be followed by clauses with the following adverbs: 还 hái in addition, 又 yòu again; in addition, 也 yě also, 都 dōu all. For example:

除了 汉 语 以 外, 我 还 学 了 日语。

chūle Hàn yǔ yǐ wài, wǒ hái xué le Rì yǔ

Apart from Chinese, I’ve learned Japanese.

除了学 生 以 外, 老 师 也 在 这儿 喝酒。

chūle xuéshēng yǐ wài, lǎoshi yě lái zhèr hē jiǔ

Apart from students, teachers also come here to drink.

除了 丁 云 以 外, 大 家 都 来 上 课 了。

chūle Dīng Yún yǐ wài, dàjiā dōu lái shàng kè le

Everyone came to the lesson apart from Ding Yun.
I had another glass of wine, as well as the one that he gave me.

**The 是 shì … 的 de construction**

We have learned that the 是…的 shì… de construction is used to emphasize stative verbs, for example, 这条裙子是新的 zhè tiáo qúnzi shì xīn de this skirt is new. In this session I would like to introduce the other two usages of the 是…的 shì … de construction.

1. 是…的 shì… de is used for emphasis in the past of time when and the way something is done. For example, when you want to tell someone that it was last May that you went to China by train, the 是…的 shì… de construction should be used as demonstrated below.

我 是 去 年 五 月 坐 火 车 去 中 国 的。

wǒ shì qùnián wǔyuè zuò huǒchē qù Zhōngguó de

As you may have noticed, 是 shì and 的 de are used like a “frame” that includes the time, the method, the action and the place. If the object of a sentence has no description or has no any other subordination, like the one above, 的 de can be placed after the verb to emphasize the place. In other words, the sentence above could look like this

我 是 去 年 五 月 坐 火 车 去 的 中 国。

wǒ shì qùnián wǔyuè zuò huǒchē qù de Zhōngguó

2. 是…的 shì… de can also be used to emphasise the agent of a sentence. For instance:

这 件 事 是 我 作 的。

zhè jiàn shì shì wǒ zuò de

*It was me who did this.*
This book is written by Lu Xun.

When translating a passive English sentence into Chinese, it is important to identify the emphasis of the sentence first. If the emphasis is on the agent, then the 是...的 shì... de construction should be applied. On the other hand, if the emphasis is on the outcome of an action, but not on the agent, then the 被 bèi construction or notional passive construction should be applied. For example

It was me who ate the food on the table.

The food that was on the table has been eaten (by me).

The uses of question words with 都 dou and 也 ye

These constructions are used for general categorisation. They can describe how a particular action applies to a general object, as in 我什么东西都吃 wǒ shénme dōngxi dōu chī I eat anything; 我哪儿都去 wǒ nǎr dōu qù I go anywhere. They can also describe people in general doing a particular type of thing, as in 谁都喜欢吃中国菜 shuí dōu xiǎohuān chī Zhōngguó cài everyone likes eating Chinese food.

The question word 什么 shénme what is placed before a noun to imply any or every, and can refer to the subject or object of a sentence. If 什么 shénme any or every is used as the object, it should be placed before the adverb 都 dōu both, all, and can be placed before or
after the **subject** of a sentence. The adverb 都 dōu is placed before the verb, as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>什么 O.</th>
<th>都</th>
<th>V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wǒ shénme dōngxi</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>chī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I eat anything.* Or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>什么 O.</th>
<th>S.</th>
<th>都</th>
<th>V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shénme dōngxi</td>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>chī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The question words **哪儿** nǎr *where* and **谁** shuí *who* can be used in the same way as 什么 shénme *what*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>那儿 (O.)</th>
<th>都</th>
<th>V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wǒ nǎr</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>qù</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I go anywhere.* Or:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>那儿 (O.)</th>
<th>S.</th>
<th>都</th>
<th>V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nǎr</td>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*I go anywhere.*

If the **any** or **every** word is the subject of a sentence, the resulting sentence patterns will be as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>谁(S)</th>
<th>都</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>O.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>谁</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>喜欢吃</td>
<td>Zhōngguó cài</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shuí</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>xǐhuān chī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>什么 S.</td>
<td>都</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>O.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>什么人</td>
<td>都</td>
<td>喜欢</td>
<td>吃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shénme rén</td>
<td>dōu</td>
<td>xihuan chī</td>
<td>Zhōngguó cài</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Everyone likes eating Chinese food.

The adverb 也 yě often precedes the negation 不 bù or 没 méi as demonstrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>哪儿(O.)</th>
<th>也</th>
<th>不/没 V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>哪儿</td>
<td>也</td>
<td>不/没 V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>nàr</td>
<td>yě</td>
<td>bù qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I don’t go anywhere (nowadays).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>什么 O.</th>
<th>也</th>
<th>不/没 V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>什么 地方</td>
<td>也</td>
<td>没 去。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>shénme difang</td>
<td>yě</td>
<td>méi qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I didn’t go anywhere.

The adverb 也 yě is usually used in negative sentences as above, while the adverb 都 dōu can be used in both affirmative and negative sentences, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>哪儿(O.)</th>
<th>也/都</th>
<th>不/没 V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>哪儿</td>
<td>也/都</td>
<td>不 去。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>nàr</td>
<td>yě/dōu</td>
<td>bù qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I don’t go anywhere (nowadays). Or:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>什么 O.</th>
<th>也/都</th>
<th>不/没 V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>什么 地方</td>
<td>也/都</td>
<td>不 去。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>shénme difang</td>
<td>yě/dōu</td>
<td>bù qù</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I don’t go anywhere (nowadays).

**The 连 lián… 也 ye construction**

This is one of the constructions used to emphasize a noun, a noun clause or a v-o pattern. The emphasized element can be the subject or the object of a sentence and is placed after 连 lián
even.

The adverb 都 dōu or 也 yě is placed before the main verb of the sentence. The difference between 都 dōu and 也 yě is that 都 dōu can be used in both the affirmative and negative, while 也 yě is normally used before negatives or before verbs which have a negative sense.

The 连 lián clause refers to the object of the sentence in the following examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>连 lián</th>
<th>O.</th>
<th>都/也 dōu/yě</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>也 yě枉了睡 wàng le shuì</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>lián jiào</td>
<td></td>
<td>yě wàng le shuì</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He has even forgotten to go to sleep. Or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>连 lián</th>
<th>V-O.</th>
<th>都/也 dōu/yě</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>也 yě枉了 wàng le</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tā</td>
<td>lián shuìjiào</td>
<td></td>
<td>yě wàng le</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.</th>
<th>连 lián</th>
<th>O.</th>
<th>都/也 dōu/yě</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>也 yě枉了 wàng le</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wǒ</td>
<td>lián tā de míngzi</td>
<td></td>
<td>yě wàng le</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I’ve even forgotten his name.

The 连 lián clause refers to the subject of the sentence in the following example.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>连 lián</th>
<th>S.</th>
<th>都/也 dōu/yě</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>O.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>连 lián</td>
<td>好学生 hào xuéshēng</td>
<td>也不去 bùqù</td>
<td>上 shàng</td>
<td>课 kè</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even the good students don’t go to class.

Although the sentences above are in the affirmative form, the adverb 也 yě is used to imply that forgetting to sleep, forgetting someone’s name, and not going to class, are all undesirable actions. Of course, the adverb 都 dōu can also be used in the above sentences.
When placed after the particle 得 de, the 连 lián construction can be used to describe the outcome of an action, in a complement of degree construction, as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>SV 得</th>
<th>Outcome of the SV 连… 也…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我们</td>
<td>忙 得</td>
<td>连 饭 也 忘 了 吃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wǒmen</td>
<td>máng de</td>
<td>lián fàn yě wangle chí (）</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*We are so busy that we’ve even forgotten to eat.*

The phrase 连饭也忘了吃 lián fàn yě wangle chí even forget to eat, here placed after the particle 得 de, describes the results of the state described before 得 de.
Exercises

Translate the sentences into Chinese. (4, stative verb)

1. I am very busy.
2. You are very busy too.
3. His brothers are all very busy.
4. His younger brother is not busy.
5. They are not all busy.
6. I am very well. Are you well?
7. I'm very well too.
8. We are all very well.

Translate the following sentences into English and put into graphic analysis form (diagrammatic). (8, shi)

1. 你妈妈是大夫吗?
2. 王老师，你吸烟吗?
3. 丁云是外语学院的学生。
4. 学生不都学汉语。

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (8, shi)

1. This is my mother.
2. Wang Da is my friend.
3. My mother is a doctor. Is your mother a doctor too?
4. My mother isn't a doctor, she is a teacher
5. Does your mother smoke?
6. She doesn't smoke.

Translate the sentences into Chinese (9-12 de)

1.
   - A. Are you busy?
   - B. Not very. I am looking at a map.
A. What map?
B. A map of Chinese.
A. Is it yours?
B. No, it's my older brother's
A. Where is my teacher's map?
B. Is this your teacher's map?

2.

A. Whose car is this?
B. It is Mr Wang's.
A. Who is Mr Wang?
B. Mr Wang is my Chinese teacher.
A. Is Mr Wang Chinese?
B. No, he is not Chinese. He is a foreigner.

3

A. Are you a student?
B. Yes, I am a student of the Foreign Language Institute.
A. What do you study?
B. I study Chinese.
A. Is that so? We welcome English friends.

4

This is my book.
That is his.
That map is Wang Ming's.
Is this book in English?
Big cars are good, small ones are also good.
He lives in a large dormitory, she lives in a small one.
This dictionary is not Ding Yun's, it is the Frenchman's.
• This is the staff dormitory.
• This is the English students’ dormitory.
• Have you got a piece of paper? Yes, I have a small one.
• I don’t have any Chinese books.

**Translate the sentences into Chinese. (15, de)**

1. Very good paper
2. A polite doctor
3. Very large cars
4. Very small maps
5. A book for my brother
6. Pictures for the children
7. A map for the students
8. Tea drinkers
9. Letter writers
10. Readers
11. Those learning Chinese
12. The recommender
13. Book buyers
14. The characters that students know
15. The book that my teacher wrote
16. The letter that she is reading
17. A magazine that my mother bought
18. This is a book that I bought for my brother.
19. I know the Chinese characters that are in this book.
20. I am using the dictionary that has Chinese characters.
21. I have the book that my teacher recommended.
22. They are all looking at the dictionary that I bought.
23. This is a person whom we all know.
24. Please have a look at this character that I have written.
25. We are all non-smokers in this student hostel.
Translate the following sentences into Chinese (9, surnames)

1. What is your name?
2. My name is Gubo, and you?
3. My surname is Ding, I am called Ding Yun. What is your girlfriend's name.
4. She is called Palanka.
5. What is your Chinese teacher's surname?
6. His surname is Wang, he is called Wang Boyun.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (2, ma)

1. Are you busy?
2. Is your older brother well?
3. Are you all very well?
4. Are you my friend?

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (2, ne)

1. I am very well, and you?
2. My mother is very busy and yours?
3. Where is my friend?
4. Where is my mother?

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (2, short answers)

1. Are you busy?
2. Yes.
3. Is this your friend?
4. No.
5. Are you well?
6. Yes.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (8, verb-object)

1. Do you smoke?
2. I don't smoke.
4. Please have some tea?
5. What kind of tea do you have, Chinese or English?
6. Chinese. Is it OK?
7. I go to sleep at 12 everyday.
8. I don't sleep. I don't eat.

What would say in the following situations? Please write the sentences down on a piece of paper (8, greeting)
1. When you see your teachers in the morning.
2. When people give you presents.
3. When friends visit your home.
4. When you meet a friend in the evening.
5. When you see a friend in the afternoon.
6. When you see a friend at lunchtime.
7. When you see your colleagues and teachers before leaving the institute.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (9, svo)
1. I drink Chinese tea.
2. British people drink coffee and English tea.
3. I study Chinese.
4. I know Mr Ding.
5. His surname is Wang.
6. Mr Ding smokes Chinese cigarettes.
7. We all drink French wine. French wine is nice to drink.

Translate the following numbers into Chinese (10, 11 numbers)
46, 58, 87, 93, 11, 22, 65, 74
152, 478, 101, 1243, 1048, 1834695, 50002

Write receipts for:
78 RMB, 58 RMB, 69 RMB, 12 RMB.
Translate the following sentences into Chinese (11, v+一下)

1. Let me introduce you.
2. Could I please use your book for a while?
3. OK but I need it for my lesson this afternoon.
4. Could you please have a look at this?

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (10, 15 duoshao and ji)

1. How many friends do you have?
2. I have thirty friends. And you?
3. I don't have friends.
4. How many teachers do you have?
5. I have ten Chinese teachers.
6. How many good teachers do you have?
7. My teachers are all very good

Translate the sentences into Chinese (13, use of dou; position of indirect objects)

1. Is this your magazine?
2. Do you know Mr Wang of the foreign Languages Institute?
3. Are they all busy?
4. Not all of them.
5. Students of Chinese do not all speak Chinese.
6. Are you returning the Chinese dictionary to me?
7. English students all drink very good tea.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (13, question words).

1. What is this? What is that?
2. What nationality is he?
3. He is Chinese.
4. Who is she?
5. I don't know her. Do you?
6. Where is my book?
7. Your books are in my place.
8. Who is using my dictionary?
9. Could I use your dictionary for a little while?
10. Please give me some tea.
11. What kind of tea do you want, Chinese or English?

**Parse the following sentences which must me translated into English (13, choice type questions)**

1. 她现在去留学生宿舍喝茶。
2. 你哥哥看不看中国画报？
3. 你认识我们的汉语老师吗？
4. 我来介绍一下，这是我的汉语老师，王先生，这是我朋友丁云。

**Translate the following sentences into Chinese (11, 15).**

1. Do come in.
2. Do take a seat.
3. Would you like some beer?
4. Excuse me, may I smoke?
5. Please ask your Chinese friend to visit our dormitory.
6. May I invite you for tea?
7. My teacher has asked me to use her car.
8. Could you please tell me about China?

**Translate the following sentences into Chinese (16, 太 SV 了)**

1. I am extremely busy. He is not too busy.
2. Mr Wang is extremely serious.
3. His Chinese is extremely good.
4. Her shirt is extremely white. My shirt is not so white.
5. Our dormitory is extremely new.
6. Our teacher is extremely nice.
7. Our textbook is extremely old.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (13, choice types)

1. Aren't you a student of Chinese?
2. Yes, I'm.
3. Don't you study Japanese too?
4. No, I don't study Japanese.
5. Don't you know my Chinese friend, Ding Yun?
6. No, I don't know her.
7. Don't you have Chinese books?
8. I don't have Chinese books, but I have a map of China.
9. Aren't you going to the shops?
10. No, I'm going to the bookshops to buy some Chinese books.
11. Aren't you very busy?
12. Yes, I am busy.
13. Don't you drink Chinese tea?
14. No, I don't.
15. Don't you have any Chinese cigarettes?
16. I don't smoke!

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (17, time when)

1. I am going to see a film this evening.
2. We have Chinese grammar lessons at 10 on Monday mornings
3. I'm going to the library after the class. Would you like to go?
4. No, I'm going to have coffee at the canteen this afternoon.
5. When do you have your supper?
6. At 6 in the evening.
7. Should we have a Chinese meal this evening?
Translate the sentences into Chinese (15, co-verbs and measure words)

1. Are they all coming to the student dormitory to see me? Three of them are.
2. The English students often wrote letters to their Chinese friends.
3. The teacher gave an introduction to five students to the Chinese language.
4. I learn Chinese at the Institute for Chinese.
5. She is returning the book to me.
6. Is Ms Wang (teacher) in China? Yes, she is studying there.
7. What are you buying? I am buying books for my mother.
8. The readers in the library were all students from China.

Translate the sentences into Chinese (15, measure words)

1. Pleased give me two magazines.
2. He has six books, magazine and two dictionaries, he has no maps.
3. One of the students lives in the foreign students dormitory.
4. I have three friends, none of them have Chinese dictionaries.
5. How many Chinese do you know? I know two.
6. He is going to the dormitory to see a student.

Translate the sentences into Chinese (15, zher and nar)

1. Who has got the newspaper that I bought for my older brother?
2. I have come from that very polite English student.

Translate the sentences into Chinese (16 Progressive and continuous aspects)

1. She is writing a letter.
2. When you find Mr Zhang (the teacher) he is bound to be drinking tea.
3. When mother entered the classroom, the children were all reading.
4. Are the students of Chinese having a class?
5. No they are all drinking beer.
6. What was she wearing at the Peking Opera?
7. She is drinking coffee as she learns her characters.
8. A lot of people were looking at him.

**Write down the following time in Chinese. (20, telling the time)**

11:15, 12:06, 6:55, 8:30, 5:42, 7:00, 9:45

**Translate the following sentences into Chinese (20 modal verbs)**

1. I want to go to China and she wants to go to Japan.
2. I would like to learn Chinese.
3. She should learn Japanese.
4. What language would you like to learn?
5. I fancy some French food.
6. I would like to visit my friend.

**Translate the following sentences into Chinese (22, position words)**

1. There is a Chinese restaurant next to the library.
2. The dormitory is behind the bookshop.
3. The chair is in front of the desk.
4. My college is left to the Chinese department.
5. The garden is behind of the house.
6. The students are inside the classroom.
7. There is dictionary beside you.

**Translate the following sentences into Chinese (20, age)**

1. I'm 20 this year. How old are you?
2. I'm 21. When is your birthday?
3. 30 January, and you?
4. It's my birthday too.
5. How old is your Chinese teacher?
6. I don't know you should ask him.
Translate the following sentences into Chinese (23, progressive aspects)

1. Where is Ding Yun?
2. She is working in the bookshop at moment.
3. No, she is teaching Gubo Chinese in her dormitory.
4. What are you doing?
5. I am putting on my shirt.
6. I am using the dictionary that you bought me yesterday.
7. What are you looking at?
8. I am looking at the map of China.
9. What are you drinking?
10. I am drinking the Chinese tea that Mr Wang gave me this morning.
11. He is buying a Chinese car for his girlfriend.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The use of the particle 着 36)

1. The students are sitting in the classroom.
2. There are three books on the table. (Use 放 fàng to put)
3. There is a map of China hanging (挂 guà) in the reading room.
4. We are walking to the library.
5. The library door is open (开 kāi).
6. I'm busy cooking the meal for tonight.
7. Don't smoke while you are reading!

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Review of interrogatives following 好吗)

1. Shall we have some tea in the café after the class?
2. Could I please use your car for a little while?
3. Shall we all go (straight) to the cinema from the library?
4. Let’s all go there (straight) from my place.
Translate the following sentences into Chinese (the aspect for the completion of actions)

1. Yesterday I went to the shop and bought three Chinese maps.
2. I went to your place yesterday, but (但是) you were not at home.
3. I was at home yesterday afternoon.
4. The grammar teacher who lives next to the library had three Chinese cars last year.
5. I was learning French at the language college four months ago.
6. I haven’t learned the new characters in lesson fifteen.
7. I ate in restaurants everyday when I was in China last May.
8. I wanted to go to France last month.
9. Did you introduce Gubo to Mr Wang this morning?
10. In the past I often smoked in the classroom when there was no one there.
11. I liked drinking coffee in the morning last year.
12. Yesterday evening I went to the dormitory to see Ding Yun.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (过 expressing experiences of actions in the past)

1. I’ve been very busy and I haven’t eaten today.
2. Ding Yun hasn’t slept yet.
3. I’ve been to the Cafe next to the student dormitory.
4. I’ve been there too.
5. I haven’t had Chinese tea there. Have you?
6. Yes, I have.
7. Have you ever used Gubo’s car?
8. No, I haven’t.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Modal 了)

1. Xiao Ding was here a minute ago. He isn’t here now.
2. I don’t want to stay in this dormitory any more.
3. Gubo has told me that his girlfriend doesn’t love him any more.
4. Stop drinking now! We are about to start the lesson.
5. It’s nearly 5 o’clock. We are about to finish the lesson.
6. These books are really expensive now!
7. Stop writing now. I’m about to go to bed.
8. Yesterday I wrote 50 Chinese characters. I am not going to write any more today.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The adverbs 就 jiù and 才 cái)

1. It took me three hours to find (找到) the dormitory my classmates were staying in.
2. It only took Xiao Ding half an hour to make a table’s worth of Chinese pastries.
3. It took Ding Yun as long as two hours to swim from the institute to Palanka’s home.
4. It took me a long time to work out (understand 看懂) the meaning of this sentence.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The uses of question words with dou and ye)

1. My classmate is a very good student. She can answer（回答） any questions that her teacher asks her.
2. I’ve been looking everywhere, but I can’t find my books.
3. As I don’t have my books, I won’t be able to do any exercises.
4. These are very easy exercises. You don’t need your books. Anyone can do them.
5. Xiao Li drinks any alcohol, but he doesn’t eat anything, so his girlfriend is extremely worried.
6. When I am doing my language work, I don’t talk to anyone.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The lián…yě construction)

1. Look, the houses are really cheap to buy here. Even students can afford（买得起） them.
2. In the last few days we’ve been very busy. We haven’t even had time to go to the cinema.
3. When Ding Yun heard that her mother was ill, she was so worried that she didn’t sleep for two days.
4. I don’t eat any foreign food. I won’t even eat the most expensive one.
5. Your friend is really nice to you. Look, she has even washed all your clothes for you.
6. This is a very easy question. Even the worst students can answer it.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The complement degree construction)

1. Ding Yung speaks English well, but she doesn’t translate things well.
2. As (因为) my parents are coming to see me on Sunday, I tidied up my room very well this morning.
3. My classmates always do their assignments (课外作业) very carefully.
4. When Gubo heard that his girlfriend was coming to see him, he was so happy that he smiled for two days.
5. What is Palanka’s singing like? Terrible!
6. I didn’t sleep well last night. Did you? I slept very well.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The use of the adverbial 地)

1. Please say quickly what you did with Ding Yun yesterday.
2. Yesterday evening Ding Yun very seriously sang two Chinese folk songs for her classmates, but she sounded awful.
3. She very quickly finished her dinner and went out (出去) immediately.
4. Yesterday he didn’t do his language exercises very carefully.
5. Mr Li always works hard. Yesterday, stroke by stroke, he taught me all the Chinese characters in Lesson 15.
6. One by one Xiao Wang showed me all the books that he bought from the Chinese bookshop a week ago.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Resultative Verb Complements)

1. You have written that character wrongly. There is a stroke missing (lack of one stroke) here!
2. This morning Mr Wang didn’t explain the grammar very clearly.
3. Yesterday, I went to the bookshop and got the hold of the book that you recommended.

4. I have tidied up the study for my father.

5. Where is my dictionary? Who has taken it away?

6. I didn’t get to eat the Chinese food that my younger sister had cooked.

7. I read your letter, but I couldn’t understand it.

8. I’ve given your letter to Mr Wang.

9. We will reach Lesson 40 by the end of this term.

10. I’ve taken that cup of tea to Mr Wang’s classroom.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The use of 从 and 离)

1. Is it far from here to the University Park?

2. It is a five minute walk from here to the University Park. If (要是) you walk fast, it only takes two minutes.

3. How long is it from now to the end of the lesson?

4. There are still ten minutes to go before the end of the lesson.

5. If I go there from my house how long will it take?

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Directional Verb Complements)

1. Yesterday morning she ran into the classroom and said that we were having the lesson in the pub.

2. Could you please go upstairs and see if Xiao Wang is there?

3. I won’t come in as I have other matters to attend to.


5. Please sit down. Don’t stand up.

6. Put down that book and put on your shirt!

7. Could you please take this book downstairs to Mr Wang for me?
Translate the following sentences into Chinese. (Comparatives 比 with stative verbs and complements of degree)

1. This shirt is much prettier than that one.
2. He knows much more than you.
3. I like reading more than you do.
4. Xiao Wang doesn’t translate the texts as quickly as Ding Yun does.
5. Ding Yun doesn’t love Gubo as much as Palanka does.
6. Do you think our teachers are much busier than us?
7. Yesterday evening I didn’t drink as much beer as you did.
8. We’ve studied much more than the students at other universities.
9. You’ve studied much more than the students at other universities, but you don’t study as well as they do.
10. My home is much further away from the institute than yours, but I always get here earlier than you.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese. (Comparatives with 一样)

1. These two books are equally difficult.
2. Xiao Wang doesn’t walk as fast as I do, but he swims as fast as I do.
3. I like drinking beer as much as you do.
4. This suit is as big as that one, but is much longer.
5. Ding Yun studies as conscientiously as Gubo.
6. Yesterday you ate as much as I did in Palanka’s birthday party.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The 把 sentence construction)

1. Could you please take the TV upstairs to your room?
2. The friend who lives in the student dormitory has sent me a hat.
3. I have to finish writing today’s Chinese language exercises before going to bed. (Try to use才.)

4. Please put the tea on the desk or bring it over here.

5. You wrote that character wrong.

6. Can you translate the text into English? (Use 成 to become as a complement.)

7. You must remember the words that we have learned today.

8. Could you please drive the car into the car park?

9. Xiao Wang very carefully (小心地) put the ancient dictionary down on the table and went out.

10. Xiao Ding borrowed my bike yesterday.

11. We have finished studying Practical Chinese Reader, but we still can’t speak Chinese well.

12. He only spent one hour to finish all the questions yesterday.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese. (Passive with 被, 让, 叫 and 给)

1. The letter that I wrote yesterday has been taken away by Xiao Wang.

2. The poem has been translated into English by the girl who works in the post office.

3. The bunch of plum blossoms that Ding Yun gave me this morning has been given to Palanka by Gubo.

4. The use of ‘ba’ has been very clearly explained by our grammar teacher, but we still don’t know how to use it.

5. The classroom door has been closed by my classmate, Xiao Ding and we can’t get in.

6. My desk has been neatly tidied up by my roommate.

7. All the dictionaries have been taken home by Gubo, so we can’t study in the library any more!
Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Notional passive without 被, 让, 叫 and 给)

1. Your textbook has been brought here and you can read it out loud for me.
2. Today’s exercises have been done, so I can go to the pub to have a rest.
3. It’s too late! All the wine has been drunk, so you won’t get anything to drink.
4. Meal is prepared. Let’s eat.
5. The room has been tidied up, but the garden hasn’t been done yet!
6. The stamps and envelopes have been bought, but there is no letter has been written!
7. Any thing that I should say has been said, but he still doesn’t listen to me.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (Conjunctions)

1. If you work hard, you will achieve a better result.
2. If you don’t help people, people won’t help you either.
3. You have to write a lot of Chinese characters everyday, otherwise you will forget them.
4. Don’t drink any more, otherwise you won’t be able to attend the class this afternoon.
5. As long as you come to the class everyday, your teacher will like you.
6. As long as tomorrow is a fine day, we will go to the Summer Palace.
7. Only when you finish your language exercises, you can eat your supper.
8. This sentence is too difficult, and only Mr Li can translate it into Chinese.
9. As Beijing is too far away from here, we will have to go there by plane.
10. As I don’t have much money, I don’t go to the cinema often.
11. I’ve not only finished today’s exercises but also I’ve learned all the Chinese characters for this term.
12. Not only I think that he writes badly, but also his girlfriend says that she can’t understand his writing.
13. Although it is snowing, everyone has come to the class.
14. Although the teachers don’t teach well, the students have learned very well.
15. As soon as I said good bye to my girlfriend, she cried.
16. As soon as you have arrived in Beijing, you must write to me. Don’t forget!
17. The more you eat the more you want to eat.
18. The more expensive the things are, the more I want to buy.
19. Apart from me everyone went to the Chinese restaurant last night.
20. Apart from eating Chinese food they also went to the cinema.

Translate the following sentences into Chinese (The 是…的 construction)

1. It was last October that I went to China.
2. It was last winter that I came here to visit a factory.
3. It was my classmate who bought the TV that is in my bedroom.
4. It was Mr Li who cooked meal today.