

Reader's Guide

I. Arrangement of Entries

1. The strict single-sort alphabetical order of this dictionary distinguishes it from the double-sort "alphabetic" dictionaries where the order is determined by the alphabetic sequence of the head character. In such conventional dictionaries the entries **línbié** 'at parting' and **línzhōng** 'near death' precede **língwài** 'moreover' because **lín** precedes **líng**. In the present work, as in dictionaries of Western languages based on the Latin alphabet and in romanized dictionaries of Japanese, the sequence is strictly letter-by-letter. Hence the three words appear in the order

línbié 临别

língwài 另外

línzhōng 临终

2. Entries start with transcription in large **boldface** type followed by the appropriate simplified characters. Single-character entries include in square brackets the traditional complex form of the character if the traditional form is different from the simplified form. (Note that there are restrictions on some of the equivalences.) Parts of speech are presented in **BOLDFACE SMALL CAPS**, environments in *italics*, definitions in roman type, and illustrative phrases and sentences in *semi-bold italics* followed by English renderings in roman type. Characters are provided only for head entries but can easily be recovered for other transcriptions since great pains have been taken to make sure that all additional transcriptions can be found elsewhere in the dictionary together with the corresponding characters.
3. Head entry transcriptions with the same sequence of letters are ordered first strictly by letter sequence regardless of tones, then by initial syllable tone in the sequence 0 1 2 3 4. For entries with the same initial tone, arrangement is by the tone of the second syllable, again in the order 0 1 2 3 4. For example:

shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì shìshì

4. Irrespective of tones, entries with the vowel **u** precede those with **ü**. For example:

lú lǔ lù lǔ lǔ lǔ

nù nǚ

5. Entries without apostrophe precede those with apostrophe. For example:

biàn argue

bǐ'àn the other shore

6. Lower-case entries precede upper-case entries. For example:

hòujīn aftereffect

Hòu Jīn Later Jin dynasty

7. For entries with identical spelling, including tones, arrangement is by order of frequency, indicated by a raised number before the transcription, a device adapted from Western lexicographic practice to distinguish homonyms. In the case of monosyllabic entries, our frequency order is based largely on *Xiandai Hanyu Pinlǔ Cidian*. In the case of entries of more than one syllable, we have also made use of *Zhongwen Shumianyu Pinlǔ Cidian*. For entries not found in either work, we have made subjective judgments of relative frequency. For entries that are homographic

if tones are disregarded, the item of highest frequency is indicated by an asterisk following the transcription. For example:

ba* ¹bā ²bā ³bā . . . ⁴bā ¹bá ²bá ¹bà ²bà . . . ⁴bà

(For the characters corresponding to these transcriptions, see the main body of the dictionary.)

Frequency information, while useful also for students, is provided chiefly as an aid to determine the default items in computer usage. Our unique combination of letters, tone marks, and raised numbers provides a simple and distinctive one-to-one correspondence between transcription and character(s) that is intended to facilitate computerized handling of the entries.

II. Orthography

In matters such as capitalization, use of hyphens, and joining or separation of syllables, although the *Basic Rules for Hanyu Pinyin Orthography* promulgated in 1988 were made the official standard in 1996, it appears that some PRC writers disagree with the rules or find them insufficiently detailed to cover all the problems that arise in this area, and they are therefore advancing their own preferences or ad hoc solutions. (For example, many Chinese use **d**, **di**, **de** respectively for the characters 的, 地, 得 in all cases instead of only in the officially sanctioned “when necessary for technical purposes.”) It is apparent that thoroughgoing standardization at a level approximating that of Western orthographies is presently not possible but must be worked out over what may turn out to be a considerable period of time, as was indeed the case in the West.

In this dictionary we have adopted the policy of following the rules when they appear to have general acceptance, and, in the many instances where there are no clear guidelines, in consultation with some of the leading PRC workers in this field we have advanced solutions that we hope are at least internally consistent. However, it should be stressed that our *ABC Chinese-English Comprehensive Dictionary* does not claim to provide a definitive or authoritative solution to the exceedingly complicated problems of Pinyin orthography. Instead it should be viewed as the largest alphabetically arranged database that can provide a starting point for what should eventually lead to a reference work comprising a more or less exhaustive lexicon that has the imprimatur of official Pinyin orthography.

III. Explanatory Notes and Examples

1. When a syllable beginning with **a**, **e**, or **o** appears non-initially in a polysyllabic word, it is preceded by an apostrophe. Thus:

dǎngǎn 胆敢 = **dǎn** + **gǎn** v. dare to; be reckless to the extent of

dàng'àn 档案 = **dàng** + **àn** N. file; record; dossier; archives

2. Tone modification is not indicated. All syllables are marked with their primary tones. Hence **bǎotǎ** rather than **báotǎ** for 'pagoda', **bùyào** rather than **búyào** for 'don't', and **yīdiǎn(r)** rather than **yìdiǎn(r)** for 'a little'.
3. Since erization is largely restricted to the Beijing dialect, and is further restricted to some usages of the term, we place the **r** in parentheses unless a term occurs only with **r**. Pronunciation changes due to **-r** suffixation are not indicated. For example:

gēpiān(r) 歌片(儿) N. song sheet

kuài(r)tóu 块(儿)头 N. <topo.> size; stature; build

pánrcài 盘儿菜 N. ready-cooked dish

Note that in actual speech, **i** and **n** preceding **r** in such terms are not pronounced. Thus the terms would be pronounced **gēpiār**, **kuàrtóu**, and **párcài**. Note also that parenthetical **r** is ignored in the alphabetic sequencing of the entries.

4. In addition to the general category of **v.**, we have singled out the sub-categories of **v.o.** and **v.r.** to draw attention to the fact that they allow elements to be inserted between the two parts. For example:

diǎncài 点菜 v.o. choose dishes from a menu; order dishes (This permits **diǎnle cài** . . . 'having ordered the dishes . . .')

kànjian 看见 v.r. see (This permits **kànbujiàn** 'can't see')

5. We present under the category of CONS. the special constructions in which some of the entries appear. For example, for the entry **bùxíng** 'won't do/work', we add

CONS. s.u. **de bùxíng** awfully s.v. **Wǒ máng de bùxíng**. I'm awfully busy.

6. The abbreviation ID. for "idiom" introduces a category of expressions much favored in Chinese speech and writing, especially in the form of four-syllable and four-character terms called *chéngyǔ*. Note that many idioms are pithy distillations of stories that would take considerable space to tell. Rather than devote space to explaining the background of the idioms, we give only their actual meaning. An analogy in English would be to give "sign here" as the equivalent for "put your John Hancock here." *Chéngyǔ* are to be distinguished from ad hoc collocations that fluent speakers of modern Chinese are able to understand if heard for the first time in context. Such collocations may function like a part of speech and are given such distinctive labels as v.p. (verb phrase), N. (noun), v.p./s.v. (verb phrase functioning as a stative verb). For example:

ānyú 安于 v.p. feel contented in/with

7. To save space we sometimes give one definition for two parts of speech when readers can be expected to make the necessary adjustments in phrasing. Thus

báhé 拔河 N./V.O. <sport> tug-of-war

represents both the noun and the verb-object construction 'engage in a tug-of-war'.

8. Slightly variant meanings of entries are separated by semicolons. For example:

dàocǎi 倒彩 N. booing; hooting; catcalls

More widely different meanings are distinguished by circled numbers. For example:

²**báichī** 白痴 N. ① idiot ② idiocy; fatuity

9. Angled brackets enclose an abbreviation for level of speech, or "register," or for the environment in which a term is used. For example:

bènmìng 奔命 v.o. <coll.> be in a desperate hurry

dàijūnzhe 带菌者 N. <med.> carrier

10. A definition may be directly followed by an illustrative sentence or phrase. For example:

bìngliè 并列 v. be juxtaposed; stand side by side ~ **dī-yī** tie for first place

11. In general, a slash stands for "and/or" For example:

bǎilún 摆轮 N. balance (of watch/clock); balance wheel

⁶**bà** 耙 N./V. harrow

A slash between characters separates variant characters, the first being the more commonly used. For example:

bānbái 班/斑白 v.p. grizzled; graying

If a string includes more than one variant, we repeat the string with two slant lines in between. For example:

bèihui 悖晦//背悔 s.v. <topo.> muddled

12. Note that changes in part of speech are signaled by the symbol ♦. For example:

⁶**qiān** 仟 NUM. 1,000 (on checks/etc.) ♦N. leader of 1,000 men

13. An entry used as both an ordinary word and a proper noun is handled as follows:

³**bā** 巴 v. hope for . . . N. ① <loan./phy.> bar ② Surname ③ ancient name for eastern Sichuan

sīmǎ 司马 N. ① minister of war in the Zhou dynasty ② Double Surname

14. To save space we use a tilde (~) to replace a head entry. Thus under the head entry

ānyú 安于 v.p. feel content in/with

we have the illustrative phrase ~ **xiànzhuàng** be content with things as they are.

15. Square brackets enclose the traditional character equivalent(s) for the preceding character(s). For details, see Section VI. Simplified Versus Complex Characters below.
16. The appropriate measure word(s) that should be used for a particular noun are presented as follows:
dàdàishǔ 袋鼠 N. kangaroo M: ²zhǐ/ge
 Any N. without indication of a measure word either does not ordinarily have one, or can take the general measure word **ge** or a collective measure word such as **zhǒng** 'sort; kind' and **duī** 'pile'. It should be noted that there is a considerable amount of regional variation in the use of measure words, with some areas and some speakers making more use of **ge** in place of the special measure words. See also Appendix VI.
17. In the body of the dictionary the two kinds of bound forms (see Section IV. Parts of Speech and Other Entry Labels) are handled as follows:
 meaningful bound forms: ⁵āi 埃 B.F. dust **chén'āi**
 meaningless bound forms: ¹⁹hú 蝴 in **húdié**
18. For reasons of typographical simplicity, we omit all diacritics in Sanskrit words.
19. Chinese **fāngyán**, literally 'regional speech', is often rendered as 'dialect'. This is misleading, since many **fāngyán** (Mandarin, Cantonese, Shanghaiese, etc.) are mutually unintelligible. To stress these differences, we label the major non-Mandarin **fāngyán** as topo. = topolects (from Greek roots meaning 'place' and 'speak'), as in the 4th edition of *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*.
20. To facilitate dictionary look-up, the outer margin of each page is provided with a black mark that is identical for the entries of each letter. It may be useful to ink in the appropriate letter on the outer edge of the pages opposite the spine: A-M to the right and N-Z on the left.

IV. Parts of Speech and Other Entry Labels

1. **AB.** (Abbreviation, **Suōxiěcí 缩写词**). Multi-syllable nominal phrase usually shortened to two or three syllables. E.g., **Běi Dà** for **Běijīng Dàxué**.
2. **ADV.** (Adverb, **Fùcí 副词**). Adverbs modify the action of the verb. Verbal modification includes (i) intensification, e.g., **hěn** in **hěn hǎo** 'is very good'; (ii) negation, e.g., **bù** in **bù shuō** 'doesn't speak'; (iii) quantification, e.g., **dōu** in **dōu shuō** 'all say'; (iv) repetition, e.g., **zài** in **zài shuō** 'say it again'; etc. Most stative verbs (s.v.) can also function as adverbs (sometimes with reduplication), e.g., **màn** in **mànmàn chī** 'Take your time (eating)' and **rènzhēn** in **rènzhēn de xiě** 'write carefully'. However, this is only a secondary function of a stative verb. Therefore stative verbs are not additionally labeled as adverbs in this dictionary.
3. **A.M.** (Aspect Marker, **Tǐbiāoji 体标记**). Aspect means the stage of completion of an action. Chinese usually uses verbal suffixes as a means of indicating this information. Examples of Chinese aspect include the (i) durative (action in progress, much like '-ing' in English), e.g., **zhe** in **kànzhe** 'is watching'; (ii) perfective (completed action), e.g., **le** in **kànle wǔ ge diànyǐng**, 'saw five movies'; and (iii) experiential (much like the 'ever' in the question 'Have you ever . . . ?'), e.g., **guo** in **jiànguo tā** 'have met him before'. Note that aspect is not the same thing as tense. Tense refers to when the action takes place relative to when the utterance is actually spoken, and so at most any language can have only three tenses: past, present and future. Aspect, on the other hand, can occur in any tense, so that even completed action can be spoken of in the (a) past, e.g., **Tā zuótiān dào le Běijīng** 'He arrived in Beijing yesterday'; (b) present, e.g., **Tā xiànzài dào le Běijīng** 'He has now arrived in Beijing'; or (c) future, e.g., **Tā míngtiān zhèige shíhou yǐjīng dào le Běijīng** 'He will already have arrived in Beijing by this time tomorrow'. (See also M.P. for usage of **le** as a sentence-final particle.)
4. **A.T.** (Abstruse Term, **Shēn'àocí 深奥词**). A term that occurs so infrequently or has such unclear syntactic behavior that its part of speech cannot be determined with assurance, if at all. E.g., **géqiǎn**.
5. **ATTR.** (Attributive, **Dìngyǔ 定语**). An attributive is any word, phrase or sentence that is found directly in front of a noun or noun phrase and functions to modify that noun. Just about any word, phrase or sentence in Chinese can easily function as an attributive. Because of this, the label ATTR. is limited in this dictionary only to those entries that

- have no possible function other than that of attributive. Examples include **gōnggòng** in **gōnggòng qīchē** '(public) bus', **qián** in **qiánbàn** 'first half', **Zhōng-Měi** in **Zhōng-Měi guānxì** 'Sino-American relations', etc.
6. **AUX.** (Auxiliary Verb, **Zhùdòngcí 助动词**). This is what school teachers often call a "helping verb." Auxiliary verbs in Chinese always precede the main verb, e.g., **néng** in **néng shuō Yīngwén** 'able to speak English'. When an auxiliary verb co-occurs with a coverb (cov.), then the auxiliary verb always precedes the coverb, e.g., **néng gēn wàiguórén shuō Yīngwén** 'able to speak English with foreigners'. In any sentence containing an auxiliary verb, negation is always placed directly in front of the auxiliary verb, e.g., **bùnéng gēn wàiguórén shuō Yīngwén** 'unable to speak English with foreigners'.
 7. **B.F.** (Bound Form, **Niánzhuó Císù 粘着词素**). Morphemes which do not function as free words in a sentence and cannot be handled using one of the other bound category labels, such as prefix, suffix, measure word, or particle. A given character may represent a free word in one or more of its meanings but a bound morpheme in other meanings. E.g., **qiǎng** 抢 is a bound form meaning 'rush' in **qiǎngshōu** 抢收 'rush a harvest' but a free form as a verb meaning 'pillage'. In addition to these meaningful bound forms, which we define and illustrate with one or more examples, there are many characters which have no meaning of their own but simply represent a syllabic sound. E.g., **pú** 葡 and **táo** 萄 in **pútáo** 葡萄 'grapes'. For these entries we provide neither entry label nor definition but simply note words in which the character occurs. See also III. Explanatory Notes and Examples no. 17 above, and Section V. Free and Bound Characters below.
 8. **CMP.** (Complement, **Búyǔ 补语**). A complement is a post-verbal syllable, word, phrase or sentence that indicates the end result of the action carried out by the main verb. This end result may be (i) a state, e.g., **wán** in **chīwán** 'finish eating', **zhù** in **zhuāzhù** 'grasp tightly'; (ii) physical displacement, e.g., **guòlai** in **ná guòlai** 'bring over', **shàngqu** in **ná shàngqu** 'take up'; (iii) psychological displacement, e.g., **xiàlai** in **mǎi xiàlai** 'buy sth. (and thus bring it "down" into one's own realm)', etc. For all types of complement it is further possible to indicate the potential for that complement to be realized as a result of carrying out the main action. That potential or lack of potential is indicated by inserting a **-de-** (indicating positive potential) or a **-bu-** (indicating no potential whatsoever) directly between the main verb and its complement, e.g., **chīdewán** 'able to finish sth. if one tries', **chībuwán** 'unable to finish sth. no matter how hard one tries'. See also Resultative Verb construction (R.V.).
 9. **CONJ.** (Conjunction, **Liáncí 连词**). A conjunction is a word that joins phrases or sentences together to form a larger sentence or chunk of thought. Some examples include **érqiě** 'furthermore', **suīrán** 'although', **suǒyǐ** 'therefore', **jiù** 'then' and **yàoburán** 'otherwise'.
 10. **CONS.** (Construction, **Jùxíng 句型**). A fixed sentence pattern. E.g., **yǔqí v.1 bùrú v.2** 'rather than v.1 it is better to v.2'; **cóng A qǐ** 'starting/beginning from A'.
 11. **COV.** (Coverb, **Jiècí 介词**). Entries of this category frequently translate into English as prepositions. They directly precede nouns, which in turn are followed immediately by the main verb/action, e.g., **gēn** in **gēn wàiguórén shuō Yīngwén** 'speak English with foreigners', **gěi** in **gěi péngyou mǎi lǐwù** 'buy a present for a friend'.
 12. **F.E.** (Fixed Expression, **Gùdìng Cízǔ 固定词组**). Set expressions that allow for little if any freedom to substitute different words. They include (i) utterances whose meanings are exactly equivalent to the meaning of their parts, E.g., **hǎojiǔbùjiàn** 'haven't seen (you) for a long time', **báirìzuòmèng** 'daydream', **zhàn de gāo, kàn de yuǎn** 'be far-sighted'; (ii) parallel nominal, verbal, or phrasal expressions, e.g., **méiwánméiliǎo** 'endless', **pīhóngguàlǚ** 'drape honorific red silk band over sb.'s shoulders'; (iii) expressions whose meanings, although strictly speaking are metaphorical, can nevertheless still be fairly easily understood when encountered in context, e.g., **zǒumǎkànhuā** 'know only from cursory observation'; **qùwúcúnjīng** 'discard the bad and keep the good (in editing)'. Very frequently example sentences are necessary for students to know how to use entries from this category actively.
 13. **ID.** (Idiom, **Xíyǔ 习语**). A subset of fixed expressions whose meanings cannot be understood from context, but rather depend upon the listener/reader's specialized cultural, literary and/or historical knowledge in order to be understood. Most, if not all, idioms require example sentences in order for students to know how to use them actively. E.g., **hōngyúntuōyùè** 'use contrasting effect in writing'; **dōngshìxiàopín** 'ludicrous attempt to imitate'; **bólèxiàngmǎ** 'good at discovering talent'.
 14. **INF.** (Infix, **Zhōngzhuì 中缀**). The two bound markers of the potential in resultative verb (see R.V. below) and directional verb constructions. I.e. **de** 得, **bu** 不, e.g., **chīdewán** 'able to finish sth. if one tries', **nábuxiàlai** 'unable to get sth. down no matter how hard one tries'.

15. **INTJ.** (Interjection, **Gǎntàncí** 感叹词). An unbound exclamation. E.g., ²**ài** expressing sentiment/sympathy/disappointment; **āiyō** expressing surprise/pain.
16. **M.** (Nominal Measure Word, **Míngliàngcí** 名量词). In Chinese it is not possible to count the quantity of something simply by using a bare number, followed immediately by a noun. Rather, Chinese nouns all behave like the English nouns 'paper', 'water' and 'dynamite'. That is, when we count these three nouns in English, we must include an additional word, such as 'sheet', 'cup' or 'stick' directly after the quantity, and directly in front of the noun. This additional word tells us something about the shape, size, unit of measurement, etc. of the noun in question. Some Chinese examples include **zhāng** in **yī zhāng zhuōzi** 'one desk'; **bǎ** in **liǎng bǎ yǐzi** 'two chairs'; and ⁴**zhī** in **sān zhī qiānbǐ** 'three pencils'.
17. **M.P.** (Modal Particle, **Yǔqìcí** 语气词). These are sentence-final particles that express some kind of attitude, opinion, or feeling of the speaker. A few of the attitudes commonly expressed by modal particles in Mandarin include (i) supposition, e.g., **ba** in **Nǐ shì Měiguórén ba?** 'You're an American, right?'; (ii) warning, e.g., **a** in **Nǐ bié shàng tā de dàng a!** 'Don't be fooled by him!'; (iii) exclamation, e.g., **lou** in **Chīfān lou!** 'Time to eat!'; (iv) new (or currently relevant) situation, e.g., **le** in **Tài guì le**. 'It's too expensive.'
18. **N.** (Noun, **Míngcí** 名词). We use this label to cover a broad range of nominal expressions, from simple names of persons or things, to extended noun phrases (**míngcí cízǔ** 名词词组). (More technically: An expression that can be modified by a demonstrative pronoun plus a measure word. E.g., **shū** in **nà běn shū** 'that book'.) Chinese nouns, unlike their English counterparts, usually do not inherently contain a sense of location. That is, while one can comfortably say: 'He is eating by the picnic table' in English, the same sentence cannot be translated directly into Chinese without modification. This is because the action of eating is taking place at a specific location by the picnic table, yet **zhuōzi** 'table' all by itself in Chinese is merely a physical object. It lacks any natural sense of location. Therefore, some sort of locational information, e.g., **nèibiānr** 'there', **xiàmian** 'under' or **lǐ** 'in', is required after **zhuōzi** in order to locate the action in physical space. See **P.W.** (Place Word) for the special subtype of Chinese noun that does not require additional locational information when the noun serves as a location. The label **N.** is used for both nouns and noun phrases; the latter include (i) cases of the form 'XX de Noun' or 'XX zhī Noun', where modification of a noun takes place using a Subordinating Particle (**S.P.**), e.g., **ài de jiějīng** 'child of a couple in love', **bàijūnzhijiāng** 'general of a defeated army', as well as (ii) cases where two or more levels of modification exist; 'XX YY Noun' and the complex entry itself is neither a proper technical term nor an accepted piece of jargon, e.g., **àiguó wèishēng yùndòng** 'patriotic health campaign'.
19. **NUM.** (Number, **Shùcí** 数词). E.g., **yī** 'one', **èr** 'two', **sān** 'three'.
20. **ON.** (Onomatopoeia, **Xiàngshēngcí** 象声词). These are terms that imitate or are suggestive of the things they represent. Examples include **dīdā** 'sound of dripping water' and **wūwū** 'sound of hooting'.
21. **PR.** (Pronoun, **Dàicí** 代词). Includes (i) personal pronouns, e.g., **wǒ** 'I, me'; (ii) interrogative pronouns, e.g., **shuí** 'who?'; and (iii) demonstrative pronouns, e.g., **zhè** 'this'.
22. **PREF.** (Prefix, **Qiánzhuì** 前缀). Always bound and prefixed to (i) nouns, e.g., **lǎo** 'old' in **Lǎo Wáng** 'old Wang'; ²**fēi** 'non' in **fēijīnshǔ** 'non-metal'; (ii) numbers, e.g., **dì** 'sequence' in **dì-sān** 'third'; or (iii) verbs, e.g., ²**kě** 'can' in **kěxíng** 'doable'; **hǎo** 'good' in **hǎochī** 'delicious'; ²**nán** 'difficult' in **nánchī** 'bad tasting'.
23. **P.W.** (Place Word, **Chùsuǒcí** 处所词). Most Chinese nouns do not convey a sense of location. Therefore, when a Chinese noun is used to indicate the whereabouts of another object or the setting of a particular action, it is normally necessary to place some sort of locational information, e.g., **nèibiānr** 'there', **xiàmian** 'under', **lǐ** 'in', etc., directly after the reference noun (see discussion of **N.** above). However, there are certain types of nouns in Chinese that actually do inherently contain a salient enough sense of location that the inclusion of additional location information about that noun is largely unnecessary. These special nouns are called place words, and include (i) names of countries, e.g., **Zhōngguó** 'China', (ii) institutions, e.g., **Běijīng Dàxué** 'Beijing University', (iii) organizations, e.g., **Liánhéguó** 'United Nations' and (iv) buildings, e.g., **túshūguǎn** 'library'.
24. **R.F.** (Reduplicated Form, **Chóngdiécí** 重叠词). Terms containing the reduplication of one or two basic syllables. Examples include (i) **XXYY** reduplication, e.g., **māmāhūhū** 'so-so', and (ii) **XXX** reduplication, e.g., **lěngbīngbīng** 'very cold'.
25. **R.V.** (Resultative Verb, **Jiéguǒ bǔyǔcí** 结果补语词). Sometimes Chinese focuses not only on the action itself, but also on the end result or goal of that action, e.g., **chīwán** (lit. 'eat and finish') and **nā guōlai** (lit. 'pick up and

- bring over'). 'Finish' is the end result of eating, and 'ending up over here' is the final result of picking sth. up and carrying it somewhere. These verb-complement constructions (see CMP. above) are labeled here as resultative verb constructions, even though some people might call **ná guòlái** by a different name. For both types of constructions it is further possible to indicate the *potential* for the goal of that action to be realized. That potential or lack of potential is indicated by inserting an infix (see INF. above) **-de-** (indicating positive potential) or **-bu-** (indicating no potential whatsoever) directly between the main verb and the complement that follows it, e.g., **chidewán** 'able to finish sth. if one tries', **ná bu guòlái** 'unable to bring sth. on over no matter how hard one tries'.
26. **S.P.** (Subordinating Particle, **Cóngshùcí** 从属词). Used to link either (i) a modifying clause with the head noun that follows it, i.e. **de** 的 and **zhī** 之, e.g., **tāmen kàn de shù** 'the book they read'; (ii) an adverbial with the verb that follows it, i.e. **de** 地, e.g., **gāoxìng de shuō** 'say happily'; or (iii) a verb and the manner clause that follows it, i.e. **de** 得, e.g., **shuō de kuài** 'speak quickly'.
27. **SUF.** (Suffix, **Hòuzhù** 后缀). Always bound, most suffixes combine with nouns, e.g., **huà, r, biān, lǐ, wài, zhōng**, though verbal suffixes, e.g., **bùdié, chūlai**, also exist. Aspect markers (A.M.) are one type of verbal suffix, but are treated as an independent category here. Note that whereas monosyllabic position morphemes such as **lǐ** and **wài** are suffixes, their bisyllabic semantic equivalents **lǐtōu, wàibiān, zhōngjiān** etc. are place words (P.W.).
28. **S.V.** (Stative Verb, **Xíngróngcí** 形容词). These entries are frequently translated into English as adjectives, even though they actually behave in Chinese as verbs. That is, the sense of 'to be' is already incorporated into these verbs, e.g., **Zhèige hěn hǎo** 'This is quite good'. In fact, it is simply ungrammatical to place the verb **shì**, 'to be', directly in front of a stative verb. Because stative verbs are actually verbs, they are directly negated by **bù**, e.g., **bù hǎo** 'not good', and can be further modified by adverbs of degree such as **hěn** 'quite', **fēicháng** 'extremely' and **shífēn** 'very; utterly'. One common function of stative verbs is that they may serve as adverbs to other actions, e.g., **mànmàn** in **mànmàn chī** 'Take your time (eating)' and **rènzhēn de xiě** 'write carefully'.
29. **V.** (Verb, **Dòngcí** 动词). A word indicating an action or existence. E.g., **chī** 'eat', **zài** 'exist; be at'. (More technically: A word that can be modified by the negatives **bù** 'not' and **méi** 'have/did not'. E.g., **bù qù** 'do not go', **méi qù** 'did not go'.) See also Stative Verb (s.v.) and v.o. construction.
30. **V.M.** (Verbal Measure Word, **Dòngliàngcí** 动量词). These are bound syllables, suffixed to a quantity, that indicate the number of times an action has taken place, e.g., **cì, tàng: qù yī tàng** 'go once'; **biàn: zài shuō yī biàn** 'say it again'. See also Appendix VI.
31. **V.O.** (Verb-Object Construction, **Dòng-Bīn Jiégòu** 动宾结构). Many English verbs get translated into natural Chinese as a verb plus an object noun, e.g., **chīfàn** for 'eat', **shuōhuà** for 'speak', etc. It is important for two reasons to know what is merely a verb in Chinese and what is actually a verb-object construction. First, verb-object constructions can never take a second object, i.e. **chīfàn** can never be followed directly by something else to be eaten. Second, a verb and its object can be separated from one another, thus allowing (i) aspect particles to be placed directly after the verb, e.g., **chīle fàn** 'after finishing eating'; (ii) modification of the object, e.g., **chī Zhōngguófàn** 'eat Chinese food'; and (iii) quantification of the noun, e.g., **chīle sān wǎn fàn** 'ate three bowls of rice'. See also Stative Verb (s.v.).
32. **V.P.** (Verb Phrase, **Dòngcí Cízǔ** 动词词组). This includes (i) descriptive predicates that do not behave as stative verbs, e.g., **ǎirán** 'amicable; amiable', as well as (ii) phrases and longer chunks containing a verb that are not fixed expressions, e.g., **bǎiláibǎiqù** 'sway; waver', **áidào tiānhēi** 'bear up until nightfall'.

V. Free and Bound Characters

As an integral part of our labeling of parts of speech we make a distinction between those which are "free" and those which are "bound" and we further recognize two levels of "boundness". First there are those characters that individually have no meaning of their own (at least in modern Chinese) but require one or more companion characters to form a meaningful word. The characters **xī** 蟋 and **shuài** 蟀 separately have no more meaning than English 'cric' and 'ket', but together they represent a word, **xīshuài**, meaning 'cricket'. In our single-character entries, such characters are neither labeled nor defined but simply followed by a word (occasionally more than one word) in which the given character occurs.

Exhibiting a second level of boundness are those characters which do have meaning of their own, and often carry this meaning into many different compound words, but which do not occur independently as free words in standard modern Chinese (though they may be free words in classical Chinese or in very formal written styles of the

language). Examples are **nǚ** 女 'female' in **nǚrén** 'woman', **nǚháizi** 'girl', **nǚde** 'woman, female', and **fùnǚ** 'woman, women'; and **shēng** 生 'student' in **xuésheng** 'student', **nánshēng** 'male student', **nǚshēng** 'female student', and **zhāoshēng** 'recruit students'. Many characters are bound in some meanings but free in others. For example, **shēng** 生, in addition to being bound in the meaning of 'student', is also bound in its meaning of 'life', as in **shēnghuó** 'life, livelihood' and **shēngsǐ** 'life and death'. But in the meaning 'to give birth' or 'to be born' it is a free word, a verb. We label such characters B.F., for 'bound form', when they occur only in compound words; and those that are bound in some meanings and free in others are labeled accordingly in the several sub-definitions within their entries.

These categorizations should be valuable to users of the dictionary in at least two ways. Like the other entry labels, N., V., S.V., etc., they enhance the semantic definition of a term, providing grammatical information to improve the user's understanding of how the terms are used. And beyond that, they serve the very practical purpose of a caution sign, indicating that one cannot turn the Chinese-to-English definitional equivalents around and assume that a given English concept is expressed in Chinese by the single character in question. For example, one cannot say that the Chinese word for woman is **nǚ** or the word for student is **shēng**, because these are not "words" in Chinese but bound morphemes, or "parts" of words.

VI. Simplified Versus Complex Characters

The reality confronting most people seeking to cope with the Chinese system of writing is that they must acquire command of both the simplified and the complex forms of characters. Most of the former were created anonymously and have been in common informal use, especially in personal handwritten materials, for many centuries. Together with a few new creations they were promulgated as the official PRC standard starting in 1955. The complex forms have remained the standard in Taiwan, in Hong Kong up to 1997, and in many overseas Chinese areas, where the simplified forms are known generally and used informally but are frowned upon in publication and other public display. Because of the need to cope with materials of diverse origin in time and place, we provide help in learning both the simplified and complex forms. The present note explains how the simplified/complex connection is handled in the main body of the dictionary.

For single-syllable/single-character entries, traditional equivalents of practically all characters that have been simplified are provided in square brackets. For example,

mǎ 马[馬] horse
mā 妈[媽] mother
qí 骑[騎] ride astride
jiù 旧[舊] old; bygone
wèi 为[為/爲] for
fā 发[發] send out
fā 发[髮] hair
zhe 着[著] durative aspect marker

Note that 着 and 著 are both used for **zhe** in Taiwan, and in general, complex forms in brackets do not imply any standard (or historical precedence) for traditional characters. Similar examples include **yú** 于[於], **jì** 迹[跡], and **tái** 台[臺]. For **cái** 才[-/纔], the notation is meant to suggest that even where complex forms are preferred, 才 may be more commonly used than 纔. (For some purposes, such as ordering the variants in **wèi** 为[為/爲], **lǐ** 里[裡/裏], and **xiàn** 线[線/綫], we have taken into consideration the "Big5" character set used for electronic text in Taiwan. The basic version of that character set does not include 着, 迹, 爲, 裏, or 綫.)

For entries of two or more syllables/characters the traditional forms are provided in the following manner:

jiùrì 旧日[舊-] former days
rénɡjiù 仍旧[舊] still; as before
shǒujiùpài 守旧派[舊-] conservatives
luànqībāzāo 乱七八糟[亂-] at sixes and sevens
àndùchéncāng 暗渡陈仓[倉] rendezvous secretly

This notation highlights the complex equivalents of simplified characters and saves space by avoiding repetition. The dash represents one or more characters of two kinds: (1) those (like 日 **rì** in **jiùrì**) which were not simplified and

hence have no separate traditional equivalent; and (2) those (like 陳 **chén** in àndùchéncāng) which were simplified regularly by substitution of the thirty characters or components listed below. These thirty forms occur so frequently (as radicals, non-radical components, or whole characters) that we have singled them out for memorization, to obviate the need for bracketed representation of the complex forms.

Complex characters that have been regularly simplified with the thirty forms listed below are not included within brackets in the main body of the dictionary, except for single-syllable entries. Examples of their occurrences are given in the two columns to the right.

儿 兒 r (suffix); ér child **	帽儿 帽兒 mào r	儿童 兒童 értóng
几 幾 jǐ several	机 機 jī	虬 虯 jiū
讠 言 yán speech *	语 語 yǔ	词 詞 cí
饣 食 shí eat *	饮 飲 yǐn	饱 飽 bǎo
门 門 mén door; gate	间 間 jiān	问 問 wèn
纟 糸 sī silk *	纺 紡 fǎng	纱 紗 shā
马 馬 mǎ horse	驾 駕 jià	妈 媽 mā
无 無 wú not	芜 蕪 wú	忧 憂 yōu
车 車 chē vehicle	软 軟 ruǎn	军 軍 jūn
贝 貝 bèi cowrie	负 負 fù	责 責 zé
见 見 jiàn see	现 現 xiàn	苋 苋 xiàn
长 長 cháng long; zhǎng grow	佺 佺 chāng	张 張 zhāng
仑 侖 lún (used chiefly for sound)	伦 倫 lún	沦 淪 lún
风 風 fēng wind	飘 飄 piāo	枫 楓 fēng
为 為 爲 wéi be; wèi for	伪 偽 僞 wěi	洩 洩 瀉 wéi
龙 龍 lóng dragon	袭 襲 xí	聾 聾 lóng
东 東 dōng east	栋 棟 dòng	陈 陳 chén
钅 金 jīn gold *	针 針 zhēn	钉 釘 dīng
尔 爾 ěr (used chiefly in foreign words) **	尔格 爾格 ěrgé	马尔他 馬爾他 Mǎ'ěrtā
鸟 鳥 niǎo bird	鸣 鳴 míng	鸪 鸕 gū
头 頭 tóu head **	石头 石頭 shítou	头人 頭人 tóurén
过 過 guò pass **	过年 過年 guònián	难过 難過 nánguò
页 頁 yè head; leaf	项 項 xiàng	顺 順 shùn
会 會 huì meeting	绘 繪 huì	侏 儻 zū
来 來 lái come	莱 萊 lái	徕 徕 lái
两 兩 liǎng two	俩 倆 liǎng	魑 魍 chī
仝 僉 qiān unanimous	检 檢 jiǎn	脸 臉 liǎn
鱼 魚 yú fish	鳖 鰓 biē	渔 漁 yú
单 單 dān only	蝉 蟬 chán	禅 禪 chán
学 學 xué study **	科学 科學 kēxué	学校 學校 xuéxiào

Notes:

* The forms marked with a single asterisk (讠 饣 纟 钅) are used only as components, not as whole characters.

** The forms marked with double asterisks (尔 尔头 过 学) are simplified only as whole characters; they do not function as simplified components. For example, although 兄 contains 儿 as a component, it has not been simplified. (There is no complex form of 兄 with 兒 in place of 儿. Similarly, there is no modern complex form of 你 with 爾 in place of 尔; the form 爾 is archaic.)

See also Appendix VII, Standard and Variant Character Forms.

VII. Abbreviations

AB.	abbreviation 缩写	M.	measure 量词
acct.	accounting 会计	mach.	machinery 机械
ADV.	adverb 副词	math.	mathematics 数学
agr.	agriculture 农业	med.	medicine 医学
A.M.	aspect marker 体标记	met.	meteorology 气象
archeo.	archeology 考古学	metal.	metallurgy 冶金
archi.	architecture 建筑学	mil.	military 军事
astr.	astronomy 天文学	min.	mining 矿业
A.T.	abstruse term 深奥词	M.P.	modal particle 语气词
ATTR.	attributive 定语	mus.	music 音乐
AUX.	auxiliary verb 助动词	N.	noun 名词
B.F.	bound form 粘着词素	NUM.	number 数词
bio.	biology 生物学	ON.	onomatopoeia 象声词
Budd.	Buddhism, Buddhist 佛教	orig.	original(ly) 原意
ca.	about; approximately 大约	paleo.	paleontology 古生物学
CCP	Chinese Communist Party 中国共产党	phil.	philosophy 哲学
cent.	century 世纪	photo.	photography 摄影
Ch.	China, Chinese 中国	phy.	physics 物理
Ch. med.	Chinese medicine 中医	phys.	physiology 生理学
chem.	chemistry 化学	pol.	politics 政治
CMP.	complement 补语	PR.	pronoun 代词
comp.	computer 计算机; 电脑	PRC	People's Republic of China 中华人民共和国
coll.	Beijing colloquial 口语	PREF.	prefix 前缀
com.	commerce 商业	print.	printing 印刷
CONJ.	conjunction 连词	prov.	province 省
CONS.	construction 句型	psy.	psychology 心理学
court.	courteous 敬词	rel.	religion 宗教
COV.	coverb 介词	R.F.	reduplicated form 重叠词
Cult. Rev.	Cultural Revolution 文革	R.V.	resultative verb 结果补语词
d.	died 逝世	sb.	somebody 某人
Dao.	Daoism, Daoist 道教	sig.	signifying, signaling 表示
derog.	derogatory 贬义词	soc.	sociology 社会学
econ.	economics 经济	S.P.	subordinating particle 从属词
edu.	education 教育	sth.	something 某事
elec.	electrical engineering 电工	SUF.	suffix 后缀
esp.	especially 特指	sur.	surveying 测绘
F.E.	fixed expression 固定词组	thea.	theater 戏剧
fig.	figurative(ly) 隐喻	topo.	topolect, non-Mandarin 方言
forest.	forestry 森林	trad.	traditional 传统
geog.	geography 地理	traf.	traffic, communication 交通
geol.	geology 地质	TW	Taiwan 台湾
hist.	history 历史	txtl.	textile 纺织
humb.	humble 谦词	usu.	usually 通常
ID.	idiomatic saying 习语	V.	verb 动词
INF.	infix 中缀	V.M.	verbal measure word 动量词
INTJ.	interjection 感叹	V.P.	verb phrase 动词词组
Jp.	Japan, Japanese 日本	V.O.	verb-object 动宾离合词
KMT	Kuomintang/Guomindang 国民党	vs.	versus 对应
lg.	language, linguistics 语言	vulg.	vulgar 俗语
lit.	literal(ly) 字面义	wr.	writing, wenyān 文言
liv.	livestock husbandry 畜牧	zoo.	zoology 动物学
loan	loan word 外来词		
log.	logic 逻辑		

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