

北大版对外汉语教材·语法教程系列

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for Speakers of English

中文语法快易通:句型结构

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前言

语法教学是外语教学中颇受争议的问题。在汉语作为外语教学中也同样存在如何教授语法的问题。为什么很多人,特别是学生害怕学习汉语语法呢?主要的问题是怎么教和用什么教材教。现在的语法书和语法教材一般都是根据作者认为的语法的难易内容,先列出条目,然后加以详细解释,给出例句,帮助学生理解语法解释。学生要学会语法,先要看懂解释,然后去仿造。可是语法书和教材的解释非常繁杂,术语也很多,学生很难看懂。即使看懂了,也不一定会用。目前国内出的语法书基本上都是以中文解释为主,学生看不太懂,老师用语法书的内容教学也很困难。如果把这些解释翻译成外语,虽然有所帮助,但是由于两种语言的差别,并不能完全解决问题。尽管语法里讲了应该怎么用,不可以怎么用,可是学生理解这些解释和记住这些条目已经很困难,哪有能力再根据这些解释和条目造出符合语法的句子?即使能造出来,很可能离实际运用相差甚远。要解决汉语语法教学的问题,就应做到语法教学的简单、易学、易记、易用和趣味性。这就是我们编写这本语法书的目的。

这本语法书是为英语为母语的学生编写的,全书采用英汉双语,在内容设计上以句型结构为主,配以简单易懂的例句和注释。例句除了英汉双语外,还有拼音,便于学生阅读。每一个语法点都配有练习,每章有综合性的复习练习。语法点的练习以机械性练习为主,学生主要练习句子的结构。每章的综合练习以交际和理解为主,要求学生用所学的语法点完成交际任务,进行实际练习和交流。这样的练习设计是基于现在外语教学研究的最新理论,既重视句子的基本形式,又强调语言交际功能。

句型是学生用来模仿和理解语法点的。用句型教中文语法可以说是基于我们在教学实践中总结的经验和以前语法研究推陈出新的结果。用这种方法来教授语法,使语法学习变得不再复杂和烦琐,从而达到易学、易记、易用的目的。本方法在教学中收到了很好的效果。目前的基础汉语教学尚缺乏这样的语法书和教材,语法教学基本上是按传统的方法进行。本书将填补这个空白,为学中文语法的学生和从事语法教学的教师提供一个行之有效的方法和工具。

本书分三册,第一册《中文语法快易通》,围绕汉语的基本句子结构编写;第二

册《中文语法步步高》，重点介绍汉语的一些特殊用法；第三册《中文语法万事达》主要介绍复合句以及它们的连词、固定词组等。学了第一册，学生可以学会汉语的基本句子结构，造结构正确的句子。第二册可以帮助学生增加语言的表达效果，有效、流利地进行交流。第三册的目的是帮助学生向更高的汉语水平发展。本书最大的特点是简单实用，既可以作为语法教材用，也可以用做语法参考书。

具体说明如下：

1. 用句型说明语法内容。
2. 句型可以举一反三。
3. 句型配以简单易懂的例句，第一册例句的词汇量基本上是 HSK 词汇大纲的甲级词。
4. 例句带拼音，都有英文翻译，便于汉英对照。
5. 语法注释使用双语，注重汉英比较。
6. 全书编排改变传统的按语法项目分类的方法，根据学生学习语法的特点，按基本句型结构、扩展句型结构和特殊句子结构安排，并参照汉语水平考试 (HSK) 的语法等级决定先后顺序，也参考了美国出版的比较流行的中文课本。
7. 重点语法项目多次循环反复，在不同的章节重复出现，但侧重点不同。
8. 练习形式多样，既有机械性练习，也有交际情景和段落的练习。每一个句型结构都配有练习，每章有复习练习。
9. 本书拼音的声调全部采用原来的声调，没有变调。
10. 语法注释里加阴影部分为汉英用法比较。

本书的使用对象是英语为母语的学习中文的高中生、大学生、研究生和自学的成人，亦可作为教师教学的参考书和汉语作为外语的学生准备 HSK 汉语水平考试等的辅导书。

本书在编写过程中得到很多老师和同学们的指教和帮助，特别是北京语言大学的崔永华教授审阅了部分章节，为此书的编写提出了很多指导性的建议，美国圣十字大学的罗云 (Dr. Claudia Ross) 教授提出了很重要的建设性意见，美国西点军校中文部负责人葛沛迪 (Brady Crosier) 教官审阅了书稿，提出了修改意见，西点军校的许多中文学生阅读了部分书稿，提出了很好的建议，在此一并感谢！我们特别要感谢北京大学出版社汉语及语言学编辑部主任沈浦娜老师和责任编辑沈岚老师，没有她们的鼓励、支持和辛勤劳动，这本书是不可能问世的。最后我们还要感谢我们的家人，在编写此书过程中对我们的耐心、容忍、支持和帮助。

作者

2010年8月于纽约

Preface

The teaching of grammar can be a source of controversy among world language educators. Some advocate that students learn all the grammatical structures of the target language in the first year or two of study, while others contend that students should be exposed to grammar intuitively rather than explicitly. In the case of existing Chinese language teaching materials, most are organized according to the authors' perceptions of the difficulty of each grammatical form, proceeding from simplest to most complex, and generally provide detailed explanations of the forms before providing context and examples. Many grammar books published in China include lengthy grammatical explanations in Chinese, which are difficult for foreign learners to understand. Translating these explanations into foreign languages can be helpful, but even these lack the context of comparison with the students' native language. In this book, we approach the challenge from the perspective of the native English speaker learning Chinese, sum up the most useful sentence structures, make useful comparisons between English and Chinese language structures, provide simple and clear explanations of Chinese grammar with a lot of authentic context and a wealth of examples. We also wholeheartedly embrace the notion that language learning should be engaging, fun, and a source of joy and enthusiasm for students, but also rigorous—and developing a comprehensive understanding of Chinese grammar is of great importance in this respect.

This grammar book is designed specifically with English-speaking students in mind. We introduce the most useful and important Chinese sentence structures, offer comparisons and points of continuity with English, and supplement these with simple and easy to understand examples and commentary. In addition to English and Chinese, each of the examples includes pinyin, so that it will be easier for students to read. Each grammar point is supplemented by grammar exercises, and each chapter includes a set of comprehensive review activities. The grammar exercises in each section focus on accurate production and manipulation of sentence structures and grammatical forms, while the review exercises in each chapter target comprehension and communication, and require students to complete communicative tasks that offer real world contexts for using the language patterns. This design is consistent with the latest views on language teaching and research, emphasizing both form and interaction, building immediately from simple production to communicative language use in natural contexts.

This book is based on our experiences in university and high school classrooms in the United States, in which we have adapted the traditional tools of language teachers—including sentence patterns and grammatical structures—in order to bring forth something new and exciting. We believe that our experiences and research support the idea that the approach to teaching grammar we advocate in this book helps make the learning process more efficient, effective, and engaging. We take as our primary goals to make Chinese grammar easy to learn, easy to remember, and easy to use and apply in novel contexts.

This book series is divided into three volumes: the first introduces the basic sentence structures of Mandarin Chinese, the second focuses on some special usages of the Chinese language, and the third introduces complex sentences, their conjunctions and connectors, and fixed phrases. By using the first book, students can learn all of the basic Chinese sentence structures and learn to generate grammatically correct sentences. Volume Two helps students increase their effectiveness in communicating with native speakers of Chinese in real-world situations. Volume Three provides the necessary tools for students to reach the well-educated native speaker's level of Chinese proficiency. The greatest feature of this book is that it is simple and practical, and can be used as both a grammar textbook and as a reference grammar of Chinese.

The special features of this series include the following:

1. Sentence patterns are used to teach grammatical structures in a systematic way.
2. Each sentence pattern is used to draw inferences about similar sentences.
3. Each language structure that is introduced includes a range of easy to understand examples.
4. The vocabulary of Volume One is mainly based on the Class A vocabulary of the HSK Chinese Proficiency Test.
4. All the examples are available in English translation and with pinyin, and include meaningful comparisons with English.
5. Grammar notes are written in both English and Chinese.
6. Rather than the traditional method of organizing content by grammatical categories, this book is based on a learner-centered approach that first introduces the basic sentence structures of Mandarin Chinese, then considers the expansion of those structures, and finally includes special sentences. The sequence of grammar items is made with specific reference to the HSK Chinese Proficiency Test and some popular Chinese textbooks published in the U.S.
7. Important or difficult grammar items may appear several times, repeated in different sections, but with different emphasis.
8. The book includes a wide variety of practice opportunities, both mechanical drills and exercises to practice communication scenarios and paragraphs. Each grammar item is accompanied by exercises, and each chapter has a set of comprehensive review exercises.
9. All the tones in pinyin in the book are original. No tone change is marked.
10. The shaded parts in grammar notes are comparison of usage between Chinese and English.

This book series targets speakers of English learning Chinese at the university or high school level, as well as adults who are studying Chinese on their own. It can also be used as a reference book for teachers who teach Chinese as a foreign Language and for students who are preparing for the HSK Chinese Proficiency Test.

During the writing of this book, many colleagues and students gave encouragement, guidance, and advice. We especially want to thank Professor Cui Yonghua of Beijing Language and Culture University, who reviewed parts of the manuscript and gave us some guiding suggestions.

Professor Claudia Ross of the College of the Holy Cross also provided some important insights and constructive suggestions. The Desk Chief of the Chinese Department of the US Military Academy at West Point, LTC Brady Crosier, also reviewed the manuscript and suggested some revisions. Many cadets taking Chinese at West Point partially read the manuscript and gave very good suggestions. We want to take this opportunity to express our sincere thanks to them. We also want to especially thank the Director of the Chinese Language and Linguistics Department of Beijing University Press, Shen Puna, and our editor, Shen Lan. Without their encouragement, support, and hard work, we would not have been able to make this project a reality. We also wish to sincerely thank our families for their patience, tolerance, and support during the process of writing and preparing this book for press.

The authors
August, 2010, in New York

A Brief Introduction to the Chinese Language: 汉语简介

1. Basic Facts about Mandarin Chinese:

You may be surprised to know that the language we call Mandarin Chinese in English goes by many names in the Chinese speaking world. While often referred to as Hànyǔ, it is also called Zhōngwén, particularly in reference to the written form; pǔtōnghuà in Mainland China; and Huáyǔ in Singapore.

Mandarin Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan family of languages. It is the common language of the Han nationality, one of the world's major languages for business and diplomacy, and the world's most widely used language. Chinese is also one of the six official working languages of the United Nations (the others are English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Arabic). In addition to mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau, there are large Chinese speaking populations in Singapore, Malaysia and across Southeast Asia, as well as in Europe and the Americas. Native speakers of Mandarin Chinese in the world number more than 1.4 billion (30 million use it as a second language), or fully one-fifth of the world's population.

Mandarin is usually called “pǔtōnghuà” in mainland China, where it is the official national language. It is the common language of the modern Han ethnicity, which accounts for about 97% of the population of the People's Republic of China. “Pǔtōnghuà” takes Beijing pronunciation as standard, the northern dialect for its basic vocabulary, and a corpus of model modern Chinese writings as the standard grammar.

1. 汉语的概况

汉语, 又称中文、普通话(中国内地), 其他名称有华语(新加坡)等。

汉语属于汉藏语系, 是汉民族共同语, 是世界主要语言之一, 也是世界上使用人数最多的语言。汉语是联合国的工作语言之一。除了中国内地、香港、澳门以外, 汉语还分布在新加坡、马来西亚等国。以汉语为母语的人大约有 14 亿(3000 万人作为第二语言), 即五分之一的世界人口。

现代汉语则是指“普通话”, 即“以北京语音为标准音, 以北方话为基础方言, 以典范的现代白话文著作为语法规范的现代汉民族共同语”。普通话所代表的标准现代汉语也是中国的国家通用语言。

2. Modern Chinese Dialects

Linguists generally recognize seven major dialect areas in China, namely Northern dialect, Wu dialect, Xiang dialect, Gan dialect, Hakka, Min dialect, and Cantonese. 1. Northern dialect is

known as Mandarin, and is represented most often by Beijing dialect. Northern dialect is the basic language of the modern Han Nationality. It is the most widely distributed dialect, and used by the largest population. 2. Wu dialect is represented by early Suzhou speech, and now by Shanghai and Suzhou dialects. 3. Xiang dialect is represented by Changsha speech and distributed throughout Hunan Province. 4. Gan dialect is represented by Nanchang speech and located in Jiangxi Province. 5. Hakka is spoken mainly in the Guangdong Meixian area. 6. Min dialect is primarily used in parts of Fujian and Hainan provinces. 7. Yue dialect is called Cantonese and represented by Guangzhou speech.

2. 现代汉语方言

汉语方言分为七大方言区,即北方方言、吴方言、湘方言、赣方言、客家方言、闽方言、粤方言。(1)北方方言又叫官话方言或北方话,代表话是北京话。北方方言是现代汉民族共同语的基础方言,分布区域最广,使用人口最多。(2)吴方言又叫吴语,代表话早期是苏州话,现为上海话和苏州话。(3)湘方言又叫湘语,代表话是长沙话。分布在湖南省大部分地区。(4)赣方言又叫赣语,代表话是南昌话。分布在江西省大部分地区。(5)客家方言又叫客家话,代表话是广东梅县话。(6)闽方言又叫闽语,主要分布在福建和海南的大部分地区。(7)粤方言又叫粤语,代表话是广州话。

3. Formation of scripts

Based on evidence of the earliest extant records of the Chinese script, Chinese writing has a recorded history of at least 3,000 years. The earliest examples of Chinese characters are found on turtle shells and ox bones that were used for divination purposes. These Shang Dynasty (c. 1600 BCE—1000 BCE) oracle bone inscriptions provide strong evidence for the maturity of Shang dynasty culture and many points of continuity with modern Chinese writing. The development of Chinese characters can be divided into two major phases: from Oracle Bones to the Small Seal Script (xiǎozhuàn 小篆), and then from the Official Script (lìshū 隶书) of the Qin and Han Dynasties to the present day. The former is generally thought of as the period of ancient writing, while the latter belongs to the category of modern language. In general, there have been few significant changes from the Official Script to today's modern Chinese characters.

3. 文字的形成

从目前我们能看到的最早的成批的文字资料——商朝甲骨文字算起,汉字已有3000年的历史。由于甲骨文字已经是相当成熟的文字体系,我们可以推断汉字的出现一定远在3000年以前。汉字的发展可以划分为两个大阶段。从甲骨文到小篆是一个阶段;从秦汉时代的隶书以下是另一个阶段。前者属于古文字的范畴,后者属于近代文字的范畴。大体说来,从隶书到今天使用的现代汉字,形体上没有太大的变化。

4. Simplification of Chinese characters

The People's Republic of China and Singapore both used simplified characters, as opposed to the traditional or complex forms used in Taiwan and Hong Kong. The work to simplify

Chinese characters began in the 1950s. Simplified character forms were created by decreasing the number of strokes and simplifying the forms of a sizable proportion of traditional Chinese characters. In 1956 the People's Republic of China promulgated the Scheme of Simplified Chinese Characters, which was adjusted slightly in subsequent years. Eventually China published the Complete List of Simplified Characters (Jiǎnhuàzì zǒng biǎo, 简化字总表) in 1964.

In 1986 the Complete List of Simplified Characters was re-issued with more than 2000 Simplified Chinese characters (including words of simplified radicals by analogy). There is occasionally talk of writing reform in China or voices arguing for the re-adoption of traditional characters, or even of pinyin as a replacement for Chinese characters, but for the time being, it seems likely that the forms of characters will remain stable and consistent.

4. 汉字简化

简体字在中华人民共和国和新加坡共和国正式使用,繁体字现在主要用于中国台湾和香港。汉字简化从1950年代开始。简化主要是减少汉字笔画,使很大一部分繁体字变得简单。1956年1月28日,中国政府发布《汉字简化方案》。以后做过一些调整补充。1964年5月,中国出版了《简化字总表》,1986年重新公布的《简化字总表》规定了2000多个简化字(包括用简化偏旁类推的字)。这项工作目前已告一段落,今后在一个时期内将保持稳定,不继续简化。

5. Chinese pronunciation

Each Chinese syllable is composed of three parts: consonants, vowels and tones. The beginning sounds are usually consonants, often called initials, and the rest are vowels, often called finals. Tones refer to pitch differences in the pronunciation of the syllables. Each syllable has a tone. Chinese syllables (almost the equivalent of Chinese characters) may have one of four tones, all of which change the meaning of the syllable. For example, the four syllables “mā (妈, mother); má (麻, hemp); mǎ (马, horse); mà (骂, curse)” all sound about the same to an English speaker, but to a speaker of Chinese the differences are clear and easy to distinguish. The first word meaning “mother” has a high and level tone, the second meaning “hemp” a tone that rises from low to high, the third meaning “horse” has a tone which drops from high to low and then back up again, and the fourth meaning “to curse” goes from high to low. Pǔtōnghuà has four tones, though other Chinese dialects may have more. The tone symbols are written as shown in the table below. The first tone is generally referred to as “high level”; the second tone as “rising”; the third tone as “dipping” or “falling-rising”; and the fourth as “falling.”

5. 汉语发音

汉字的特点是“一字一音”,即一个汉字只有一个音节。每个音节都由声母、韵母和声调三个部分构成。打头的音是声母,其余的部分是韵母,声调是整个音节的音高。每个音节都有声调。汉语音节(差不多相当于汉字)的高低升降,都有区别意义的作用。例如“妈、麻、马、骂”四个音节,声母和韵母都相同,只是因为音高变化不同,表示的意义就不一样,写出来也是四个不同的字。这种音节上区别意义的音高变化就是“声调”。普通话有四个声调,分

别是阴平、阳平、上声、去声，简称“四声”。声调符号见下表。

Tone 声调	Tone Mark 调号	Example Using Tone Mark 例子
First 阴平	-	mā (妈, mother)
Second 阳平	'	má (麻, hemp)
Third 上声	ˇ	mǎ (马, horse)
Fourth 去声	`	mà (骂, curse)

6. Phonetic writing

The Ministry of Education of the then Chinese government issued a phonetic alphabet in 1918. In 1930 it was renamed as Mandarin Phonetic Symbols (zhùyīn fúhào 注音符号). After the founding of the People's Republic in 1949, the Language Reform Commission formulated a "Chinese Phonetic Alphabet" (Hànyǔ pīnyīn, 汉语拼音) in 1955—1957, which is now used as the primary tool for recording the sounds of pǔtōnghuà. It was approved by the National People's Congress on February 11, 1958. In 1982, it became an international standard ISO 7098 (Chinese spelling of the Roman alphabet). In September 2008, the Taiwan government determined that its Chinese transliteration policy would change from the "universal alphabet" ("tōngyòng pīnyīn" 通用拼音), to "Hànyǔpīnyīn". Translations from Chinese into English now generally utilize Hànyǔpīnyīn, and foreign learners of Chinese also mainly use pinyin as their primary phonetic tool.

6. 记音符号

1918年由北洋政府教育部发布了“注音字母”，1930年把注音字母改称为“注音符号”。1949年中华人民共和国成立以后，中国文字改革委员会于1955—1957年制定了《汉语拼音方案》，主要用于汉语普通话读音的标注，作为汉字的一种普通话音标，是一种辅助汉字读音的工具。1958年2月11日全国人民代表大会批准公布该方案。1982年，成为国际标准ISO 7098(中文罗马字母拼写法)。2008年9月，中国台湾地区确定中文译音政策由“通用拼音”改为采用“汉语拼音”，涉及中文英译的部分，都将要求采用汉语拼音。海外在汉语教学中主要采用汉语拼音。

7. Modern Chinese vocabulary

Modern Chinese vocabulary is dominated by two-syllable words. Monosyllabic words are mostly verbs, though more monosyllabic words are used in daily conversation. There are varieties of structural forms of the words, but they are basically compound words. Chinese vocabulary has unique measure words and modal words. Modern Chinese cannot directly use "numeral + noun" format. A unit of measurement must be inserted between the numeral and noun. For example, in English one can say, "five students, six cars." But in Chinese one can only say "five + measure word gè 个 + student". Or "six + measure word liàng 辆 + cars". Chinese

sentences often end with a modal particle, such as “He was not happy” + “le 了”. Was he unhappy + Question particle “ma 吗”? He was not happy + particle “a 啊”! But other languages such as English mainly use the intonation of sentences to indicate these moods or nuances.

7. 现代汉语词汇

现代汉语词汇中双音节词的数量占优势。但在日常口语中,单音节词(主要是动词)还较常用。词的构造形式多种多样,基本都是合成词。有独特的量词和语气词。现代汉语不能直接用“数词+名词”,中间一定要加一个表示计量单位的量词。例如英语,可以说“five students, six cars”,而汉语得说“五个学生、六辆汽车”。汉语的句子常常在句子末尾加上一定的语气词。例如:“他不高兴了。他不高兴吗? 他不高兴啊!”而其他语言如英语的语气主要靠句调来表示。

8. Modern Chinese grammar

(1) One of the main features of Chinese grammar is that the words used in a sentence show no morphological change for meaning, mood, aspect, gender, register, or tense. No matter whether the Chinese words are in a dictionary or in a sentence, and regardless of what position they occupy within a sentence, they are read and written the same way.

(2) There are a large number of important function words in Chinese, through which the grammatical relationship and grammatical meaning of the sentence are mainly expressed. The role of function words in Chinese is roughly equivalent to that of morphological changes in Indo-European languages. Essentially, rather than changing the form of the word itself, Chinese adds independent words to the sentence. For example, in the sentence “Zuótiān shéi lái le? Who came yesterday?” “le” is used to indicate that the action “come” has been completed, but the form of “lái” is not changed. In English “come” should be changed to “came” or perhaps “have come.”

(3) Chinese sentences convey much of their meaning through word order, as in English. Other languages indicate subjects and objects with cases or other grammatical markers. In both Chinese and English, however, it is the position of words in a sentence that shows the subject (or agents) and object (or patient) of the action being described.

8. 现代汉语语法

(1) 词没有形态变化。汉语语法的主要特点是词进入句子后没有形态变化。汉语的词不论在词典中或在句子里,也不论在句子的什么位置上,读法和写法都是一样的。

(2) 虚词重要而丰富。汉语句子中的语法关系和语法意义主要是通过虚词表示的。虚词的作用大致相当于印欧语言的形态变化,只不过不是词形的变化,而是独立出现的词。比如“昨天谁来了?”“了”表示动作完成了,但动词“来”形式不变。而英语则要变化动词形式。

(3) 语序的作用重要。汉语和英语一样,是用语序表示句子的主语(施事)和宾语(受事)。例如汉语说“狗咬人”和“人咬狗”,这两句话中所用词语完全相同,只是由于语序相反,才使主语和宾语不同,意思也正好相反。

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