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## CHINESE

## SPOKEN LANGUAGE.

By Rev. M. C. WHITĖ, M.D.

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## THE CHINESE LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT FUH CHAU.

BY REV. M. C. WHITE, M. D.

The Chinese language is, in theory, a language of monosyllables; but, owing to the paucity of distinct syllables, two monosyllabic words laving, in the language of books, the same signification, are often joined together in the spoken language to represent a single idea. Other varieties of compound words are used to express ideas which, in other languages, are represented by a simple word. Some words which are generally regarded as monosyllables, contain two or more vowel sounds, which are pronounced so distinct and separate as to constitute real dissyllables, as, kiang, hiong, sieu, which are pronounced ki-ang, hi-ong, si-eu.

There are in the Fuh Chan dialect but ten vowel sounds, and they are generally reckoned as only nine, and the elementary consonant sounds are only ten, heuce the number of syllables must also be small. Many combinations of consonants found in other languages are unknown to the Chinese, and the structure of their language is unfavourable to the formation of many polysyllabic words. To compensate for these restrictions upon the formation of words, they have adopted the use of a variety of tones to distinguish ideas expressed by what we should call the same word.

The tones used in different dialects vary both in their number and intonation.

In the court dialect, spoken at the Capital, and by public officers in all parts of the empire, there are five tones. In the Tiechu dialect there are said to be nine tones. In the several dialects spoken at Canton, Amoy, and Fuh Chau, there are reckoned eight tones; but in the Fuh Chau dialect there are really but seven tones, for the second and sixth are identical, and in their books, the words referred to these two tones are all arranged under the second.

In the Fuh Chau dialect there is a native work, called the Book of Fight Tones, and Thirty-six Mother Characters. In this book all the characters in common use are systematically arranged, according to their sounds. Three of the mother characters are mere duplicates, and are not used in the body of the work. All the syllabic sounds of this dialect are, therefore, arranged in thirty-three genera, under mother characters, having the same final sound as the
characters arranged under them. Each genus (containing the same final sound) is again divided into fifteen classes, in reference to the initial sounds with which they are severally connected.

The Chinese have not carried their analysis of vocal sounds to the nice elementary distinctions recognised in Western languages; but each simple word is divided by their analysis into two parts: a final part, or "mother sound," which gives body to the word, and a "leading part," or initial sound.

The initial sound consists of a single consonant, or of two consonants combined, but no vowel ever acts as the "leading port," or initial.*

The final part, or "mother sound," consists, essentially, of a vowel or vowels, followed, in some words, by a single consonant, but never by two consonants. $N g$, which is found ąt the end of many Chinese words, represents, as in English, but a single elementary consonant sound, unlike either $n$ or $g$ when used alone, and not compounded of the sounds of $n$ and $g$ combined. This is a distinct elementary sound, and is used both at the beginning and end of Chinese words. This consonant sound, which we represent by $n \mathrm{~g}$, is one of the initials, and in some cases it is used alone, without the addition of a final, but only as a prefix to other words, giving thern a negative signification; as, hò ${ }^{2}$, good; ng $^{7}$ - ${ }^{2} \grave{o}^{2}$, bad; $\mathbf{k}^{\prime}{ }^{\mathbf{0}}{ }^{3}$, to depart; $\mathrm{ng}^{7}-\mathrm{k}^{‘}{ }^{3}{ }^{3}$, will not depart.

Each class of syllables is again sub-divided, according to the distinctions introduced by the tones.

The thirty-three final sounds, multiplied by the fifteen initial sounds, give four hundred and ninety-five primary syllables. These again, multiplied by the seven tones in actual use, give three thousand four hundred and sixty-five different monosyllabic words, which may be distinguished by the ear; to which may be added the semi-vocal initial, ng, used in a single tone without a finul, as mentioned above.

Though there are in theory this number of simple words, many of them are distinguished from others by very slight shades of difference, and there are (so far as known to the writer) only sixteen hundred and forty-four in actual use.

To supply the defect which this paucity of words occasions in the spoken language, two or more words are frequently combined into one, to express a single idea. This practice is so common, that the

[^0]dialect of Fuh Chau has become, to a great extent, a language of polysyllables.

The statement sometimes put forth, that there are hundreds of characters expressing different ideas, which are all pronounced exactly alike, refers only to the written language as read; and even in the language as read the number of set phrases and the peculiar collocation of words give a good degree of definiteness to the language. There is but little more difficulty in understanding the idea intended, than we experience when we hear an English book read, in which occur such words as right, rite, write, and wright, or cleave, to split, and cleave, to adhere. It is true, however, that such equivocal words are more numerons in Chinese than in English.

In the different provinces, and in different districts of the same province, the reading sounds of the characters differ in the same manner as the Arabic figures are differently pronounced by the various nations of Europe. The spoken dialects also differ widely from the reading dialects of the same localities.

In general, the spoken dialects are more diffuse than the written language, which is common to all parts of the empire. This results, in the main, from the fiequent necessity of using two words of similar meaning, or, more properly, a dissyllable, to express an idea definitcly, when a single written character or word is all that is required.

The spoken languages being more diffuse, and differing in style from the written language, they have adopted, in several dialects, a system of writing the spoken dialects, by borrowing from the general written language a few common characters, which they use clliefly as phonetics, to represent the sounds of the spoken language. 'These characters are thus used without reference to their signification in the classical writings which have been handed down from the remote ages of antiquity.

This is the common system of mercantile and epistolary writing adopted by persons of limited education, and can only be understood by persons speaking the same dialect, while the style of writing in use among professed literary men, is understood alike by the literati of all parts of the empire.

The system of initials and finals used in the "Book of Eight Tones," referred to above, would, if used for that purpose, form (in connection with the tonal marks) a complete alphabet for the Fuh Chau dialect. They have been so used by missionaries for writing colloquial phrases, in their private study of the language. Three of the gospels have been written out in this manner by Chinese teachers in the employment of missionaries.

Books written in this style can be read with the same facility as alphabetic writing of other languages, and are a great aid in learning the colloquial, though no books have been printed in this style, and the initials and finals have never been used in this manner in native books.
' 'To foreigners learning the Fuh Chau dialect, a thorough knowledge of this system of initials and finals, and the eight tones, is of great importance.

The student should constantly refer the pronunciation of every word to its place in this system, till he can analyze each spoken word, giving its proper initial and final, and point out its proper tone as readily as he can spell any word in his mother tongue.

Slight variations in the pronunciation of Chinese words are noticed among different Chinese teachers. When, therefore, Chinese words are represented by the letters of the English alphabet, (which are written more readily than the Chincse initials and finals,) the student refers at once to the sounds of the corresponding initials and finals, as he has learned them from his teacher.

The letters of the English alphabet, when used in the following pages to represent Chinese sounds, are to be pronounced as follows:

## I.-Consonant Sounds.

1. Ch, having the same sound as in church.
2. $\mathrm{Ch}^{\prime}, c h$ with the same sound as above, followed by an additional $h$, which is represented, in such cases, by the Greek spiritus asper, ('.)

3: H, having its own proper sound, as in hand, at the beginning of words, while at the end of words (where it occurs only in the fourth and eighth tones) it denotes simply an abrupt closing of the vocal organs, without the formation of any distinct sound. When the sound of $h$ follows $c h, p$, or $t$, it is, for convenience, represented by the spiritus asper, ('.)
4. $K$ has its own proper sound, as in king.
5. K', $k$ followed by a distinct sound of $h$.
6. L, as in English words.
7. M, as in English words.
8. N, as in English words.
9. Ng , as in sing, both at the beginning and end of words. It often requires great care to enunciate this sound correctly at the beginning of words.
10. P , as in parle, parule.
11. $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}, p$ followed by the distinct sound of $l$.
12. $S$, as in same.
13. T, as in tame, till.
14. T', $t$ followed by $h$, each letter retaining its own proper sound

The preceding are the consonant sounds found in the Fuh Chau initials, but it will be seen that there are, in reality, only ten elementary consonants, viz: : $\mathrm{Ch}, \mathrm{H}, \mathrm{K}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{N}, \mathrm{Ng}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{I}$.

The spiritus asper, ( 9, ) which is equivalent to $h$, being used to avoid confounding $p h$ with the sound of $f$, and $t h$ with $t h$ in thin or then, and to show that it is never silent in any combination.

Il.-Vowels. There are nine distinct vowel sounds, viz.:

1. a, as in far, father.
2. $e$, as in they, prey, but when followed by $n g$ its sound is nearly as short as in met.
3. è, like the flat soond in there, or like $a$ in care.
4. ë, pronounced nearly like $e$ in her, or $i$ in bird, but more open, and spoken deeper in the throat.
5. i, as in machine, but frequently like $i$ in pin, if the word ends with a consonant.
6. o , as in note, report.
7. ò, like $o$ in for, cord, lord.
8. u, like oo in school; but if the word ends with $h$ or $n g$, the sound is like that of $u$ in bull. The distinetion, if any, between the sound of $u$ in these two forms of Chinese words is unimportant in practice, and too slight to be noted by any diacritical marks. $\Lambda$ t the beginning of words, when followed by another vowel, it has the force of $w$ in English words.
9. $\ddot{u}$ has the French sound of $\ddot{u}$, as in l'üne. Ihis is a sound between those of $e$ and $o o$. When two vowels come together in the same word, each vowel retains its own sound. There are no silent letters employed in this system.
III.-Tones. Figures raised above the line, at the end of words, are used to distinguish the tones.

Note.-This system of orthography is substantially that known as the system of Sir William Jonet, used for Romanizing the languages of India, the Pacific Islands, and the languages of the North American Indians. Some have desired to embrace the sounds, used in all the dialects of China, in one system, distinguishing them by separate letters, or by diacritical marks, so that each letter shall have a uniform sound in every dialect for which it is used. Such strict uniformity would require the use of several diacritical marks on letters where they are not needed, when, as in the phan here adopted, slight modifications are allowed in each dialect. The sounds of the letters, as here given, is nearly identical with the system used in writing the language spoken at the Sandwich Islands.

TABLE OF FINALS AND INITIALS，WITH THEIR NAMES，AND their alphabetic value in roman letters．

| thirty－three finals． |  |  |  |  | FIFteen | initials． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Clitung | 春 ung | 18 Ngrüng | 銀 ung |  | 1 Liu | 柳 L |
| 2＊Hua | 花 11 | 19 Kong | 鉎＂ong |  | 2＊Pieng | 邊 P |
| 3＊Hiong | 香 iong | 20 Chi | 之 ${ }^{\text {i }}$ |  | 3 Kiu | 求 K |
| Chin | 秋iu | 21 Tëng | 東 ${ }^{\text {eng }}$ |  | $4 \mathrm{~K}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{8}$ | 氣 $\mathrm{K}^{\prime}$ |
| Sang | 山 ang | 22 Kan | 郊 ${ }^{\text {au }}$ |  | 5 Tè | 低T |
| K＇ai | 開 ai | 23＊Kuò | 過 иò |  | 6 P＇ò | 波 ${ }^{\text {P }}$ |
| Ka | 嘉 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $24 \mathrm{Sè}$ | 西 |  | T＇a | 他 $\mathrm{T}^{\text {c }}$ |
| Ping | 賓 ${ }^{\text {ing }}$ | $2{ }^{2}+{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ Kūì | 橋 ${ }^{\text {ù }}$ |  | 8 Cheng | 曾 Ch |
| $9^{*}$ Huang | 歡 ${ }^{\text {and }}$ | ${ }^{26}+\mathrm{Kie}$ | 雞 ${ }^{\text {ie }}$ |  | $9 \mathrm{Nih}^{\text {s }}$ | 日 |
| 10 Kò | 歌 ${ }^{\text {o }}$ | $27^{*}$ Siang | 聲 iang |  | $10 \mathrm{Si}^{5}$ | 時 $S$ |
| $11 \ddagger$ Sü | 須 ${ }^{\text {u }}$ | 28 Ch＇oi | 催 oi |  | 11 Eng | 臨 |
| 12＊Pue | 杯 ue | $29 \mathrm{Ch}{ }^{\text {e }}$ | 初 |  | $12 \mathrm{Mung}{ }^{\text {s }}$ | 票M |
| 13 Ku | 孤 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 30＊Tieng | 天 ieng |  | $13 \mathrm{Ngü}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | 語 Ng |
| 14 Teng | 燈 eng | 31＊Kia | 奇 ia |  | $4 \mathrm{Ch}^{\text {oll }}{ }^{4}$ | 出 ${ }^{\text {ch }}$ |
| 15＊Kuong | 光 nong | 32 Uai | 袚 uai |  | 5 Hi | 㻗 H |
| 16＊Hui | 輝 ${ }^{\text {ui }}$ | ${ }^{33+} \mathrm{Keu}$ | 溝 elı |  |  |  |
| 17＋Sien | 燒 ieu |  |  |  |  |  |

Nors．－The twelfth and sixteenth finals are regarded by some teschers as having the same alphabetic sound，（the initial consonant，of course，is ex－ cepted，）bat most persons observe the distinction given in the table．The char－ acters arranged onder the twenty－fifth final are pronounced by many persons residing within the walls of Fuh Chau，like those under the twenty－third．The vowel of the eighth final is pronounced by some teachers like the sound of $i$ in machine，while others give it the sound of $i$ as in pin．The vowel of the fourteenth final is pronounced by some like $e$ in met，and by others like $e$ in they．The thirty－third final has a peculiarly clear and ringing sound，and at once reminds a person of the croak of a frog．
The thirteenth initial sound is，in one instance，used alone without any final or vowel sound following it．It is used only in the seventh tone，and merely as a negative prefix to other words．

The primary syllables formed by joining each initial with all the finals，will be geen in the following tahle．

[^1]8 The Chinese Language spoken at Fuh Chau.

















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Each of the syllables in the preceding tables is susceptible of seven variations of the tone in which it is enunciated. Some of the tones affect the orthography, while others do not. Under each word thus formed may be arranged several characters baving independent signifieations; and thus it happens that a single word in the spoken language is made the symbol to express a number of ideas essentially different from each other.

## Chinese Tones.

The greatest obstacle to the acquisition of the spoken dialects or languages of China, is the peculiar application of the tones, which distinguish words having otherwise the same orthography. It is believed that the tones are not in themselves very difficult, but as they are absolutely essential to the spoken language, and require constant attention to nice distinctions, which are never noticed in other languages, they demand all the attention the student can bestow, to remember always the proper tone of each word, and to enunciate it correctly in speaking.

In English, various tones or inflections of the voice are used to give force and animation to language; but in Chinese, the tone is an essential part of the word in all circumstances; while rhetorical effect is given to discourse by accentuation, rapidity or slowness of utterance, and peculiarities of manner, as well as varieties of pitch of the voice, and gesticulation.

Mucb zas been written in regard to the tones, and some discrep.ace will be found in the statements of different writers, caused, proncipally, by the differences in tones of the same name in the several dialects with which the different writers were acquainted.

It is generally believed that the system of tones was invented to compensate for the paucity of syllables, or single words, in the spoken languages, or dialects, of the numerous kingdoms of Eastern Asia, which have long since been consolidated into the one vast empire of China.

What was the condition of the spoken languages of China previous to the adoption of the present system of writing, we have no means of learning, except from the structure of their written language, and their ancient poetry.

The general rules of poetry, derived from the Confucian classics, have been fixed and unchanging for more than twenty centuries.

In poetical composition the words are arranged in reference to their tones, of which, for poetical purposes, there are reckoned but two classes or distinctions.

The poetical division of tones is into 平聲 ping ${ }^{5}$ siang, smooth
tone or tones；and 不聲 cha ${ }^{4}$ siang，oblique，or harsh tone or tones；（for these terms may be taken either as singular or plural．） Thesc being the only distinctions，in regard to tone，which it is necessary to observe in poetical composition，it is not improbable that there were only two tones in use when the ancient classics were written，or at least in the early ages，when the poetic standards were fixed．

The universal study of the ancient classics，and the observance of the ancient standards of poetical composition，secure a pretty gen－ eral uniformity in the division of the characters into ping $^{5}$ ，or smooth toned，and cha ${ }^{4}$ ，or harsh toned characters，though the subordinate divisions in these two classes of tones are by no means uniform in the different dialects．

The Nanking，or court dialect，has five tones，viz．：two ping ${ }^{5}$ ，or smooth tones，and three cha4，or harsh toncs；though，it is stated that there was originally but one smooth，or even tone．

The names which now distinguish the ping ${ }^{5}$ tones，viz．：上平聲 siong $^{2}$ ping ${ }^{5}$ siang，primary smooth tone；and 下平聲 ha ${ }^{2}$ ping $^{5}$ siang，secondary smooth tone，are thought，by Chinese writers，to have arisen from having the characters arranged under the ping． tone，placed in two volumes；the first volume（as is customary with any work）marked 上．siong ${ }^{2}$ ，or first，and the latter volume marked T ha ${ }^{2}$ ，or last．These distinctions，which originally related to the volumes of the book，having been afterward referred to a distinction of two ping ${ }^{5}$ tones．This view is still further supported by the fact that，while characters referred to the smooth tones in the court dia－ lect，are also referred to what are called smooth tones in the several local dialects，yet many characters referred to what is called a pri－ mary smooth tone in one dialect，are placed in the secondary smooth tone in another dialect，and vice versa．

The cha ${ }^{4}$ tones，of which there are three in the court dialect， called 上聲 siong2 siang，high tone；去聲 $\mathrm{k}^{\top}$ ëü ${ }^{3}$ siang，diminish－ ing tone；and 入聲 $\mathrm{ib}^{8}$ siang，entering，or obrupt tone，as they are now found in the dictionaries of the general language，or court dia－ lect，are each again sub－divided，in many of the local dialects，（as the even tone has been in all dialects，）into primary high，diminishing， and abrupt，and secondary high，diminishing，and abrupt tones．

When all the tones now enumerated are arranged together，the上聲 siong ${ }^{2}$ siang，primary tones，are always arranged before the下聲 $\mathrm{ha}^{2}$ siang，or secondary tones，as follows，viz．：



4．上入 型憵 siong ${ }^{2} \mathrm{ih}^{8}$ siang；primary abrupt tone．
5．下化聲 ba $^{2}$ ping ${ }^{5}$ siang；secondary smooth tone．


8．下入掏 ha ${ }^{2} \mathrm{ih}^{3}$ siang；secondary abrupt tone．
This translation of the Chinese names of the tones，though not the one usually given，is admitted by the original，and gives a better idea of their nature than a more literal translation．The names of the tones，as given above，are common to various dialects，but they do not represent the same qualities of voice，or sound，in the differ－ ent dialects；that is，tones bearing the same names are often essen－ tially different in different dialects．

The number of tones in actual use，varies also in different districts． In several dialects，there are reckoned eight tones，as given above， while in the Fuh Chau dialect，only seven are in actual use，and in the＇Fiechu dialect there are said to be nine tones．In the spoken language of Canton there are ten tones，but in reading，only eight． The names applied to the tones give but an imperfect idea of their nature，and，in general，it would be as well to designate them as first，second，\＆e．，tones，as to employ the names they bear in Chi－ nese books．

Description of Tones in the Fuh Chau Dialect．－The first，or primary smooth tone，called siong ${ }^{2}$ ping $^{5}$ ，is a uniform even sound， enunciated a little above the ordinary speaking key，but neither ele－ vated nor depressed，from the commencement to the close of the word．It is，in this respect，like the enunciation of a note in music； it may，therefore，be called the singing tone，or the musical mono－ tone．

The second，or primary high tone，called siong ${ }^{2}$ siong $^{2}$ ，is enunci－ ated in the ordinary speaking key，and the voice usually falls a note at the close，as at the end of a sentence in unimpassioned discourse． In connected discourse，however，the second tone is sustained，and turns upward，like the vanishing stress of unaccented words in com－ mon conversation．In attempting to pronounce the letters $a-e$ ，we notice that $\epsilon$ is pronounced either a note higher，or lower，than $a$ ． So，also，if we take the pains to listen attentively when $a$ alone is pronounced，we shall notice that it has its ending，or vanishing move－
ment, turned upward one note; or, if spoken like the close of a sentence, where the voice falls in the usual way, we shall perceive that the vanishing movement of $a$ turns downward one note. This is exactly the variety of enunciation, distinguished by the second, or siong $^{2}$ siong $^{2}$ tone in this dialect.

The third, or primary diminishing tone, called siong ${ }^{2}$ k'ëü ${ }^{3}$, is what elocutionists call the rising third, and is heard in English on the emphatic word in a direct question, as, "Does it rain?" where the voice turns upward, through the interval of two notes of the octave.

The fourth, or primary abrupt tone, called siong ${ }^{2}$ ih $^{8}$, turns the voice upward through the same interval as the third tone; but it terminates abruptly, as though the voice was suddenly interrupted in an effort to pronounce a final $h$. In words which, in other tones, end in $n g$, the abrupt close of the fourth tone sounds somewhat like a suppressed, or half-uttered $k$, but the clicking sound of the $k$ is not heard. If a person should attempt to ask the question, "Can you open the lock?" and be suddenly stopped before enunciating the final clicking sound of the $k$, he would give to the last word the primary abrupt tone.

The fifth, or secondary smooth tone, called $\mathrm{ha}^{2}$ ping $^{5}$, is a quick, forcible enunciation, commencing about two notes above the ordinary key, and suddenly dropping down, at the close, to the key note. It is what is called by elocutionists the falling third, and, when emphatic, the falling fifth. It is sometimes called the scolding tone. It is heard in a petulant enunciation of the emphatic words in the sentence, "No! I'll do no such thing."

The sixtl tone is identical with the second, and no words are arranged under it; that is, no secondary high, or rising tone, has yet been invented in this dialect.

The seventh, or secondary diminishing tone, called ha $a^{2} k^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{u}{ }^{3}$, is a guttural downward circumflex. It is, in English, expressive of peculiar emphasis, frequently indicating rebuke, scorn, or contempt, as,

> "Whence, and what art thou, execrable shape? False fugitive."

> "You wrong me every way ; you wrong me, Brutus."

The words very many, if spoken with forcible emphasis, would also exhibit the tone under consideration.

This is probably the most difficult tone in the language to onun ciate correctly, under all circumstances.

The eighth, or secondary abrupt tonc, called $\mathrm{ha}^{2} \mathrm{ib}^{8}$, closes abruptly, like the fourth tone, but differs from it by being enunciated on a uniform pitch, a little above the ordinary key. The eighth tone is an abrupt termination of the first tone, in the same manner as the fourth tone is an abrupt termination of the third.

The tones affect only that part of the word known as the finul, while the initial remains unaffected by the tone.

In the table, pages 16, 17, the finals are given with the modifieations produced by the tones. If each initial consonant is suceessively prefixed to all the forms in the table, there will be obtained all the separate words, or distinct syllables, found in the language. We have placed at the head of the table, the initial eng, which denotes merely the absence of any initial consonant, as this gives the simplest form of all the finals through each tone. The student will see, from the table at pages 8, 9, how each initial is successively united with all the finals, and in the table, pages 16, 17, how each final, whether joined to an initial or otherwise, is modifiel by the tones. In the table, the vowels printed in italics are accented; in all other cases the first rowel in a word takes the aceent. This accentuation of the vowels is uniform, and should be thoroughly learned from the table. The accented vowels are not marked in other parts of this artiele. Bésides the final syllables in the table, the semi-vocal $n g$ is used in the seventh tone, without a vowel or any other addition. With this addition there are sixty-one independent final syllables, which may be arranged in alphabetical order. as follows:
a, aë, aëh, aëng, ah, ai, aih, aing, aiu, ang, au, auh, aung, e, è, ë, eh, ëh, cng, ëng, eu, ëü, ëiih, ëüng, i, ia, iah, iang, ie, ieh, ieng, ieu, il, ing, ioh, iong, iu, ng, o, $̀$, oe, oh, oi, òi, ong, u, ü, ua, uah, uai, uang, ue, uh, iuh, ui, ung, iing, ud, iid, noh, uong.

If we add the forms produced by prefixing the initial consonants, we shall obtain nine hundred and one syllables, or simple words, eapable of being distinguished by the mode of spelling them with Roman letters. Some of these forms, it will be noticed, are produeed by changes in orthography, required by the tones. The entire number of forms obtained by all the changes produeed by the tones, is three thousand four hundred and sixty-six words, which can be distinguished by the ear. Some of these are distinguished with difficulty, and (as nearly as is known) only one thousand six hundred and forty-four of these monosyllabic words are in actual use in the spoken language; while in the Tonic Distionary, or P'aih Ing,
only one thousand six hundred and twenty of these sounds have characters arranged under them.

To compensate for this paucity of monosyllables, two or more are often united together, forming real polysyllables, to express single ideas. By this means the number of words is increased to several thousands, and, as regards its richness and variety of expression, this dialect is but little inferior to many alphabetic languages.

It will be seen in the table, that the orthography of some words is changed, as they are declined through the different tones. In rapid speaking, words in the third and seventh tones are but slightly distinguishable from the first tone; and in such cases the orthography reverts toward the form of the corresponding word in the first tone. Yet when spoken deliberately, the tones are readily distinguished, and the orthography varies with the tones, as shown in the table.

## Nouns.

Nouns, like other Chinese words, are incapable of inflexion. Gender, number, person, and case, are determined either by the addition of other words, or by the position a word occupies in the sentence.

Case.-The subject nominative precedes, and the predicate nominative follows the verb, as in English. The accusative case is placed after transitive verbs and prepositions, and is only distinguished by its position in a sentence. But in many instances, the accusative precedes the verb in the imperative mood, as chü pong ${ }^{3}$ chü-ka ${ }^{3}$, book place book-case; that is, place the book in the bookcase. This construction is very common, though not always adopted.

I'The dative and ablative cases are often used without any distinguishing mark, though they are sometimes preceded by a preposition. The genitive case of nouns is formed by adding kis , his, hers, its, or theirs, after the noun, as sung ${ }^{5} \mathrm{kj}^{5}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$, ship's men; that is, sailors; or boatmen ; Tüng kuoh ${ }^{4}$ ki $^{5}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$, Central kingdom's men ; that is, Chinamen. The genitive is often followed by the name of the thing possessed, without any intervening word, as sung ${ }^{5}$ nëng $^{5}$, boatmen, sailors; Tüng kuoh ${ }^{4}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$, men of China; Kuoh ${ }^{4}$ hò $^{2}$, nation's title, or national title. But in such cases, the noun in the genitive may generally be regarded as an adjective, qualifying the following noun.

Gender.-The gender of nouns is indicated by words denoting male and female,"either directly or indirectly, as nang, male; and $\mathrm{nü}^{2}$, for female. These are general terms, applicable to any living beings, and are placed before the nouns which they qualify. These terms are but seldom used in speaking; they belong more properly to the written language.


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In common conversation, mò ${ }^{5}$, signifying mother, and këü ${ }^{4}$, to denote the male, are employed after nouns, to distinguish the gender of all the lower animals, including birds and insects; as iong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{mo}^{5}$, the female goat ; iong ${ }^{5}$ këüh $^{4}$, the male goat. For human beings, nü ${ }^{2}$ ing $^{5}$ is used for woman, in the most genteel society; but the common terms for man and woman are derived from a singular circumstance in the history of the ancient kingdom of $\mathrm{U}^{5}$-chü, of which Fuh Chau was the capital.

The kingdom of $\mathrm{U}^{5}$-chü was subjugated by the Tong ${ }^{5}$ dynasty, and tradition says, that all the men were destroyed, and that the women were compelled to become the wives of their captors, (called Tongs ${ }^{5}$ men,) who immediately occupied the kingdom of $\mathrm{U}^{5}$-chü, which, thereafter, became a part of the great Chinese empire. In memory of this circumstance, to the present day, the women of Fuh Chau are usually called Chüniong ${ }^{5}$, or Chü niong ${ }^{5}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$; that is, Chü ladies, retaining a part of their ancient name. Girls are called Chü niekiang $^{2}$; that is, Chü children. On the other hand, the men are called Tong ${ }^{5}$ può nëng ${ }^{5}$, or Tong ${ }^{5}$ men, and boys are called Tong ${ }^{5}$ può niekiang $^{2}$, or Tong ${ }^{5}$ può kiang ${ }^{2}$; that is, Tong ${ }^{5}$ children. The shorter term, Tong ${ }^{5}$ può, is often used to signify husband. A teacher, or any literary man, is called sieng sang, while a literary lady is called sieng sang niong ${ }^{5}$. There are also other terms descriptive of the various human relations, some of which are essentially masculine, and others essentially feminine; as,

| Huang ${ }^{\text {kiang }}$, foreigner. | Huang pot ${ }^{\text {s }}$ foreigu lady |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{Ho}^{7}$, father. | Mus ${ }^{\text {a }}$, mother. |
| Nong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{pa}^{7}$, papa. | Nong ${ }^{\text {fiè }}$, mamma. |
| Tong ${ }^{\text {può }}$ kiang ${ }^{2}$, son. | Chii niekiang ${ }^{2}$, daughter |
| Hiang tie ${ }^{7}$, brother. | Chia ${ }^{\text {moe }}{ }^{\text {a }}$, sister. |
| Hiang, elder brothe |  |
| Tie ${ }^{7}$, younger brother. | Moe ${ }^{3}$, younger sister. |

Number.-In the Chinese language, both written and spoken, there is often much vagueness in regard to the number of nouns.

The singular can only be indicated definitely by being preceded or followed by the numeral for one. The plural is denoted by the connexion of words in the sentence, or by the addition of teng ${ }^{3}$, denoting a class, or collection of individuals. Sometimes the plural is formed by repeating the noun, as nëng ${ }^{5}$ nëng $^{5}$, man by man, or men generally.

## Classifying Nouns.

These are analogous to what are called, in English, collectiv: nouns; as flock, drove, herd, pair. These and many others of the
same character are found among the Chinese classifying nouns. But the greater part of the Chinese classifiers (as these nouns are commonly called) relate to individual things, and become plural only, when preceded by a numeral greater than one; as, a piece of wood; a fibre of silk; a blade of grass; a stalk of grain; a kernel of corn; a grain of sand; a head of cabbage; a sprig of mint; a loaf of bread; a block of marble, \&c. While in English comparatively few nouns have classifiers of this kind used with them, both in the singular and plural numbers, in the Fuh Chau Chinese every noun has its appropriate classifier attached to it, in almost every case where it is preceded by a numeral.

Generally several nouns have the same classifier, but when the same vocal sound is used as the names of different objects, the different classifiers that are used clearly distinguish them.

In the written language the numeral can frequently be joined to the noun without the classifier, but this usage is seldom or never admissible in the spoken language.

If we say in English two piece men, as the Chinese do when speaking English in the Chinese jdiom, it sounds no more uncouth to us than lang ${ }^{7}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$ (literally two men) does to the Chinese, who say lang ${ }^{7} \mathrm{ka}^{2}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$, for two men, using the classifier $\mathrm{ka}^{2}$ between the adjective lang ${ }^{7}$, two, and the noun neng ${ }^{5}$, men. The combinations, a flock of tongs, a drove of weights, a kernel of twine, a sprig of land, would sound no more uncouth in English, than corresponding errors in the use of Chinese classifiers; and as very few Chinese nouns can be used without their classifiers, early attention to the proper use of this class of words is of great importance. Këng, a day's work, is used without a classifier, and perbaps some others. The round numbers for twenty, thirty, forty, \&c, one hundred, two hundred, one thousand, one myriad, \&c., can be used before many nouns without classifiers; but these are rare exceptions to the rule, that Every noun must be accompanied by its appropriate classifier, when taking a numeral adjective before it.

The classifiers are called uah ${ }^{8}$ che ${ }^{7}$, living words; because they give life and precision to discourse. Two nouns, differing greatly in signification, though pronounced exactly alike, may be readily distinguished by the different classifiers with which they are joined in discourse; as, süò ${ }^{8}$ kuò $^{3} \mathrm{ua}^{7}$, a phrase of speech; and $\mathrm{s} \dot{\mathrm{u}}^{8}$ hoh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{ua}^{7}$, a scroll of painting; the word $\mathrm{ua}^{7}$, meaning discourse in one case, and painting in the other, being rendered perfectly definite by the classifying nouns with which it is joined in the two cases. Tliu ${ }^{5}$, plain silk cloth, and tiu ${ }^{5}$, a wardrobe, or cupboard, are distinguished in a similar manner, for we say, süì ${ }^{8} \mathrm{ka}^{3}$ tiu ${ }^{5}$, one frame
wardrobe; but süò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{peh}^{4}{ }^{4} \mathrm{tin}^{5}$, one web of silk; or, süò ${ }^{5}$ tòi ${ }^{7}$ tiu ${ }^{5}$, a small piece of silk goods. It is thus that these living words give clearness and precision to discourse.*

## Compound Nouns.

Two or more words are often united to describe an object which has no simple name. They form regular compound nouns, and are of frequent occurrence. Kiang ${ }^{2}$, a childy or a small specimen of any object named, is often affixed to nouns to form compounds; as, nëng ${ }^{5}$ kiang $^{2}$, a human child; ngu $^{5}$ kiang $^{2}$, a calf; huang ${ }^{5}$ kiang $^{3}$, a foreign child, or a foreigner ; chieng ${ }^{5} \mathrm{kiang}^{2}$, a small coin; $\mathrm{ie}^{2}$ kiang $^{2}$, a small chair, or a stool; sung ${ }^{5}$ kiang $^{2}$, a boatman. Kiang ${ }^{2}$ nay be joined to any noun in the same manner as a diminutive suffix. Sa hu ${ }^{2}$ signifies a lcader, and is a term often applied to priests; but when preceded by the term for such substances as wood, earth, stone, silver, it signifies a worker in those substances; as, ngüng sa $\mathrm{hu}^{2}$, a silversmith; T'u ${ }^{5}$ sa $\mathrm{hu}^{2}$, a mason; süo ${ }^{8}$ sa hu ${ }^{2}$, a stone-cutter; muh ${ }^{8}$ sa hu ${ }^{2}$, a worker in wood, a carpenter. Some other trades are designated in the same manner.

Chò ${ }^{3}$, to make or do; or $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, to beat out, or to fashion, prefixed to the name of a thing, or the matcrial of which it is made, designates the maker of those goods, or the worker in that material; as, chò ${ }^{3}$ i siong ${ }^{5}$, maker of clothing, or a tailor; $\mathrm{pa}^{8}{ }^{~}{ }^{\prime}$ ieh ${ }^{4}$, iron worker, that is, a blacksmith; pa ${ }^{8}$ tëng ${ }^{5}$, a coppersmith, or a brass-worker; pa ${ }^{8}$ ngüng ${ }^{5}$, a silversmith. Sa hu ${ }^{2}$, affixed to the above compounds, will give the additional idea of a master workman at any of those trades. We have chò ${ }^{3}$ mè ${ }^{2}$ mè ${ }^{7}$, to work at buying and selling, or chò ${ }^{3}$ seng $\mathrm{li}^{2}$, or chò ${ }^{3}$ seng $\mathrm{e}^{3}$, to be a trader, or a merchant; chò ${ }^{3}$ ch'eng ${ }^{5}$, to work the fields; that is, to be a farmer; chò ${ }^{3}$ cheng $^{3}{ }^{\text {këü }}{ }^{3}$, to bear testimony, to be a witness; chò ${ }^{3}$ këng ngie ${ }^{7}$, to be a mechanic of any kind; chò ${ }^{3}$ maëng ${ }^{3}$ would signify a maker of nets, but as the very

[^2]same expression signifies also to dream, they usually say $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$ maëng ${ }^{3}$, for making nets. All the above terms formed with chò ${ }^{3}$, to make, or $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, to fashion, often take after them the phrase $\mathrm{ki}^{5} \mathrm{nëng}^{5}$, its man; that is, the man of whom these actions are predicated, and the entire expression is used as a noun, for merchant, trader, \&c.

## Adjectives.

Adjectives commonly precede the nouns which they qualify; as. $k^{2} n^{5}$ sang, a high hill; uong ngu ${ }^{5}$, a yellow ox; ngai ${ }^{5}$ nëng $^{5}$, bad men. The adjective may also be placed after the noun, the substantive verb being understood, in which case the adjective becomes a predicate. Such forms are more common than in English, as the substantive verb is more readily understood, and needs not to be so frequently expressed; as, nëng ${ }^{5} g a i^{5}$, the man is bad ; no ${ }^{8} h \grave{o}^{2}$, the thing is good; tüo ${ }^{7}$ huong $^{7}$, the road is long. In some such cases it is scarcely admissible to supply the substantive verb in speaking, though it must be supplied to give a correct translation in English. An adjective reduplicated becomes intensive; as, hò ${ }^{2}{ }^{h}{ }^{2}{ }^{2}$, very good; keng $^{5}{ }^{\text {keng }}{ }^{5}$, very high; ming ${ }^{6}$ ming $^{5}$, very plain, clear, or evident; kuong²kuong ${ }^{2}$, very smooth; kuongkuong, very luminous. Different qualities are expressed by ordinals; as, 'Tè eh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{ho}^{2}$, number one good, or first quality; Tè ne ${ }^{7} 0^{2}$, number two good, or second quality. The Chinese are extravagant in the use of adjectives, using superlatives where intensives only are strictly admissible. Siong ${ }^{3}$, upper, or superior, and ting ${ }^{5}$, ridge, or summit, are often thus used.

The following examples will show the method of comparing adjectives: ia ${ }^{5}$ keng $^{5}$, rather high; keng ${ }^{5}$, high; keng ${ }^{5}$ keng $^{5}$, very high. ku keng ${ }^{5}$, higher, kah ${ }^{4}$ keng $^{5}$, too high; ting ${ }^{5}$ keng $^{5}$, highest; ia ${ }^{5}{ }^{5}{ }^{2}$, rather good; hò ${ }^{2}$, good; hò ${ }^{2}$ hò ${ }^{2}$, very good; ku hò ${ }^{2}$, better; kah $^{4}$ hò $^{2}$, too good, or remarkably good; ting ${ }^{5}{ }^{2}{ }^{2}$, best; siong ${ }^{3}$ hò $^{2}$, first rate, best quality; ia ${ }^{5} \mathrm{pa}^{\mathrm{B}}$, rather white, pretty white; sometimes it means very white.
Nia ${ }^{3}{ }^{n}{ }_{\mathrm{i}}{ }^{3}$, a little, or somewhat, affixed to an adjective, indicates a slight shade of the quality; but this form is more commonly used in comparing two objects, and indicates that the object to which the adjective thus modified is applied, surpasses by a little the one with whieh it is compared. When two things are compared, they are generally connected by the conjunction këung ${ }^{7}$, and the quality expressed by the comparing adjective belongs to the thing first mentioned, though it is placed after both nouns; thus, $\mathrm{li}^{2}$, këung ${ }^{7} \mathrm{li}^{5}$, ku hò ${ }^{2}$, plums than pears [are] better; the same idea may be expressed without the conjunction; as, $\mathrm{li}^{2}$ ku hò ${ }^{2}{ }^{\text {lis }}$, plums [are] better [than] pears ; though placed between the nouns, it still qualifies the former noun.
＂The position of an adjective determines its comparison．＂When two things are compared，長一尺 tong ${ }^{5} \operatorname{süo}^{8}{ }^{8} \mathrm{ch}^{\prime}$ üò ${ }^{4}$ ，signifies，longer by a foot；but when one thing only is spoken of，the same expres－
 means，（when one thing only is referred to，）one foot long；but if two objects are mentioned，the same expression signifies one foot longer，and the greater length is understood of the thing first ment－ tioned．子文 chün ${ }^{2} \ddot{u}^{2}$ ，signifies sons and daughters；while 女子 nü ${ }^{2}$ chü ${ }^{2}$ ，signifies a female child；and in the written language，when these two are combined into one character，thus，好 it is read hò ${ }^{2}$ ，and signifies good，beautiful．平正 pang ${ }^{3}$ chang ${ }^{3}$ ，literally level and perpendicular，signifies in commrn conversation，bad，of inferior quality．

Numeral adjectives are best understood in connexion with the written characters．Both the common and the business forms are given in the following table．

| Numbers． | Obaructers． | Spoken． | Abbroviated． | Spoken． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | － | Süd ${ }^{\text {b }}$ ，or，Eh ${ }^{4}$ ． | I | Eh4． |
| 2 | 二 | Laing ${ }^{7}$ ，or， $\mathrm{Ne}^{7}$ ． | \｜ | $\mathrm{Ne}{ }^{7}$ ． |
| 3 | 三 | Sang． | 11 | Sang． |
| 4 | W | Se ${ }^{3}$ ． | $x$ | Se ${ }^{3}$ ． |
| 5 | 五 | Ngo＇． | 8 | Ngo ${ }^{7}$ ． |
| 6 | \％ | Lēüh＇． | 1 | Lêunh ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． |
| 7 | $t$ | Cb＇elı ${ }^{4}$ ． | $\pm$ | Ch＇eh＇． |
| 8 | 1 | Paih ${ }^{4}$ ． | $\stackrel{1}{2}$ | Paih ${ }^{4}$ ． |
| 9 | j | Kan ${ }^{2}$ ． | $\frac{1}{2}$ | Kan ${ }^{2}$ ． |
| 10 | 7 | Seh ${ }^{\text {b }}$ ． | $1+$ | Eh ${ }^{4} \operatorname{seh}^{\text {B }}$ ． |
| 11 | $\pm$ | $\mathrm{Seh}^{8} \mathrm{eh}^{4}$ ． | 1 | Eh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{seh}^{8} \mathrm{eh}^{4}$ ． |
| 12 | $\pm$ | Seh ${ }^{8} \mathrm{n} \mathrm{e}^{7}$ ． | $t=$ | $E h^{4} \operatorname{seh}^{8} \mathrm{ne}{ }^{\text {\％}}$ ． |
| 13 | 者 | Seh ${ }^{8}$ sang． | $t \geqslant$ | $E h^{4} \mathrm{seh}^{8}$ sang． |
| 20 | 雨 | $\mathrm{Ne}^{7} \mathrm{seh}^{8}$ ． | $11+$ | $\mathrm{Ne}^{7} \mathrm{seh}^{8}$ ． |
| 30 | 产 | Sang seh ${ }^{\text {b }}$ ． | 111＋ | Sang seh ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． |
| 100 | E | Sū ${ }^{\text {d }}$ pa ${ }^{4}$. | 1 画 | Eh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{pa}^{4}$. |
| 101 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 靣 } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Sūd ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}{ }^{4} \mathrm{ling}^{5}$ süd ${ }^{\text {b }}$ ． | $\frac{101}{\text { 百 }}$ | $E h^{4} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{ling}^{5} \mathrm{su} \delta^{8}$. |
| 102 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 吕 } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Süd ${ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{pa}^{4}$ ling ${ }^{\text {b }}$ lang ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． | $\frac{1011}{\text { 百 }}$ | Eh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{ling}{ }^{6} \mathrm{lang}{ }^{\text {\％}}$ ． |



211． $\mathrm{Ne}^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{eh}^{4}$ ，or，lang ${ }^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{eh}^{4}$ ．
220． $\mathrm{Ne}^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{ne}^{7}$ ，or，lang ${ }^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{ne}^{7}$ ．
122． $\mathrm{Pa}^{4} \mathrm{ne}^{7} \mathrm{lang}^{7}$ ．
1220．Ch＇ieng ne ${ }^{7}$ lang ${ }^{7}$ ．
1221．Ch＇ieng ne ${ }^{7} \mathrm{ne}^{7} \mathrm{seh}^{8} \mathrm{elh}^{4}$ ．
1001．Süo ${ }^{8}$ ch＇ieng ling $^{5}$ süo ${ }^{*}$ ．
1202．Siio ${ }^{8}$ ch＇ieng lang $^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{4}$ ling ${ }^{5}$ lang $^{7}$ ．
12000． $\mathrm{Uang}^{7} \mathrm{ne}^{7}$ ．［One］myriad two［thousand］．
In the use of the duplicate forms for one and two，some care is required，for while we can say $\mathrm{eh}^{4} \mathrm{seh}^{8}$ ，or $\mathrm{ne}^{7} \mathrm{seh}^{8}$ ，for ten and twenty， we cannot say süò ${ }^{8}$ seh $^{8}$ ， lang $^{7}$ seh $^{8}$ ，neither is it admissible to say süö ${ }^{8}$ $p a^{4}{ }^{4} h^{4}$ ，süio ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{4} \mathrm{ne}^{7}$ ，for one hundred and ten and one hundred and twenty．

The system of abbreviated numerals used in business transactions is easily made to represent concrete numbers，as inches，feet，and poles；or ounces，pounds，\＆c．，with their decimals，by placing the character denoting some weight，or measure，under the propcr figure， in the same manner that the character for tens，hundreds，\＆c．，is used under ordinary abbreviated characters；thus，
$\|=\|_{R} \times 1$ two hundred and twenty－one feet，four inches，six tenths； ＂ 1
＂二⿺尢丶坔土 two thousand two hundred and fourteen inches，six tenths．
The same system serves for writing decimals，as the character placed below the line determines the place of units．

## Pronouns.

The words used to perform the office of pronouns, in Chinese, are varied to suit the comparative rank of the speaker and hearer.

When a person speaks to an equal, or when a man of rank speaks to an inferior, the proper personal pronoun Nguai ${ }^{2}$ is used; but this is inadmissible in addressing a superior. Nëng ${ }^{5}$-ka, l or we, is commonly used when speaking to equals; it is, however, a circumlocution, but is in common use for the first person. Nu ${ }^{5}$, [literally, a servant,] your servant, or, I your servant, is used by persons addressing their superiors, and generally by persons desiring to honour those whom they address. Puong ${ }^{2}$-sing, this body, cquivalent to myself, is used to denote the speaker; it has no plural. There are various other circumlocutions, used as polite forms of indicating the speaker. Nü ${ }^{2}$, thou, or you, is the common form of the pronoun in the second person. I [pronounced as in machine] is used for he, she, it, they, or them. Pronouns, like other words in the Chinese language, may be either singular or plural, as best suits the connexion. Nëng ${ }^{5}$, man, is often appended to pronouns, as the sign of the plural; as, Nguai ${ }^{2}$-nëng ${ }^{5}$, or, $\mathrm{Nu}^{5}$-nëng, we, or us; $\mathrm{Nu}^{2}$-nëng ${ }^{5}$, you; I-nëng5, they.
$\mathrm{Ki}^{5}$, the sign of the genitive case, may be placed after any of the pronouns, in the same manner that it is used after nouns. For the possessive case of pronouns, other forms are often used; thus, leng ${ }^{7}$ chong. your father; leng ${ }^{7}$ tong ${ }^{5}$, your mother; leng ${ }^{7}$ hing, your elder brother; leng ${ }^{7}$ tie ${ }^{7}$, your younger brother; leng ${ }^{7}$ chiang, your wife; leng ${ }^{7}$ ch'ing, your relations ; leng $^{7}$ long $^{5}$, your son; leng ${ }^{7}{ }^{7}{ }^{\text {hieng king, }}$ your daughter. Leng ${ }^{7}$, in all these examples, signifies good, or exrellent, and is used for your as a very respectful and dignified address. The words for father, mother, \&c., with which it is joined, are also titles of respect and honour, and not literal translations of our terms; yet one who fails to use them will often appear uneducated.

In the same manner they say, $k a \mathrm{ho}^{7}$, my father; $k a \mathrm{mu}^{2}$, my mother; $k a$ hing, my elder brother. $K a$, in these expressions, signifies one's own family, or, perhaps, the family. When other relations are spoken of, another term is used; as, chieng ${ }^{7}$ nòi ${ }^{7}$, my wife; (literally, the unpretending, secluded one.) This accords with the Chinese custom of speaking in humble terms of one's self, or what is one's own, and of praising that belonging to angther.
$S i a^{3}$ tè̀ ${ }^{7}$, my younger brother ; sia ${ }^{3}$ ch'ing, my relations ; $p e^{3}{ }^{3} \mathbf{i u}^{2}$; my friend ; pe $e^{3}$ ngieh ${ }^{8}$ sü, my teacher; pe $e^{3}$ muong $^{5}$ tu $^{5}$, my pupils; $p e^{3}$ huò $^{2}$, my agent; pe ${ }^{3}$ siong ${ }^{7}$, my master; sieu ${ }^{2} \mathrm{i}^{5}$, my boy; sieu ${ }^{2}$ nü ${ }^{2}$, my
daughter; sieu ${ }^{2}$ k'ai $^{3}$, my slave. Sieu ${ }^{2}$ means, literally, the little, or inferior one. Koi', signifying honourable, is used for your, on the ground that what is said to be honourable, is of course understood to belong to the person addressed, rather than to the speaker. Koi ${ }^{3}$ $k^{\prime} \mathrm{ai}^{3}$, your slave; koi ${ }^{3}$ siong ${ }^{7}$, your master, or superior; $\mathrm{koi}^{3}$ huò $^{2}$, your agent; koi ${ }^{3}$ tung, your employer; koi ${ }^{3} \mathrm{ka}$, your noble family; koi ${ }^{3}$ iu $^{2}$, your noble friend; koi $^{3}$ kuoh $^{4}$, your honourable country ; koi ${ }^{3}$ seng ${ }^{3}$, your surname. In all these examples honour is conferred upon the person addressed by applying an honourable epithet to what belongs to him.

When speaking of brutes or inanimate objects, the simple possessive pronouns are generally used.

The Interrogatives are, sie ${ }^{7} \grave{o}^{8}$, what? which ? $\operatorname{sie}^{7}{ }^{7} \grave{o}^{8}$ nëng ${ }^{5}$, what man? who? tie në nëng ${ }^{5}$, who? or, man from what place? tie ${ }^{\top}$ süö ${ }^{8}$ chia ${ }^{4}$, which one? This expression is varied by using, instead of the last word chia ${ }^{4}$, the elassifier which corresponds with the particular thing in reference to which the inquiry is made.

The Demonstratives are, chi ${ }^{2}$, or chia ${ }^{2}$, this; $\mathrm{hi}^{2}$, or $\mathrm{hia}^{2}$, that. $\mathrm{Chia}^{2}$ is also often used as nearly equivalent to that. Chui ${ }^{5}$, or in full, chia ${ }^{2}$ kuai ${ }^{3}$, this place, is often used adjectively for this. $\mathrm{H} u \mathrm{i}^{5}$, or hia ${ }^{2}$ kuai ${ }^{3}$, is also used for the demonstrative that.

Who, which, and what, when used as relative pronouns, have no proper equivalent in this dialect of the Chinese language. Their place is supplied by demonstratives, followed by the nouns themselves.

## Verbs.

The variations of the verb are not as numerous, or as precise in their meaning, as in most other languages. The various forms of $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, to strike, will illustrate the peculiarities of the Chinese verb in the Fuh Chau dialect.
I.-Indicative Mood. 1. General tense. Nguai ${ }^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I strike. 'This form may denote either past, present, or future time, which may be determined, with more or less certainty, by the connexion in which it is used.
2. Present tense, definite; as, Nguai ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}{ }^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I am striking.
3. Perfect tense. This tense denotes that an action or event is already completed. With transitive verbs, in this tense, the accusative follows the principal verb, and lan ${ }^{5}$, finished, follows the accusative, to denote the completion of the action; as, Nguai ${ }^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8} . i$ lau $^{5}$, I have struck him.

In case of intransitive verbs, $\mathrm{k}^{\circ}{ }^{3}$, departed, or, $\mathrm{li}^{5}$, to come, is often inserted between the principal verb and the anxiliary lau ${ }^{5}$,
which denotes the completion of the action; as, Muong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{kui}^{3} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{o}^{3}$ lau ${ }^{5}$, the door is opened already; Muong ${ }^{5}$ kuong $\mathrm{li}^{5}$ lan ${ }^{5}$, the door is shut to.
4. Future indefinite. Nguai ${ }^{2}$ chiong $\mathrm{pa}^{\text {® }}, \mathrm{I}$ shall strike.
5. Future definite. Nguai ${ }^{2}$ chen ${ }^{7}$ può $^{8}{ }^{8} a^{8}$, I at once will strike.

The following form is nearly intermediate between the two preceding, namely, Nguai ${ }^{2}$ chiong può ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I am about to strike.
II.-Subjunctive Mood. The subjnnctive is formed from the indicative, by placing ioh ${ }^{8}$-sü ${ }^{2}$, ka -sü̈ ${ }^{2}$, or kò-pe ${ }^{3}$, signifying $i f$; $\quad$ r, supposing that, before the nominative to the verb; as, ioh ${ }^{8}$-sü ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Nguai}^{6}$ $\mathrm{pa}^{\mathrm{B}}$, if I strike, \&c.
III.-Potential Mood. Nguai ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}{ }^{7} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I may, or can strike; Nguai ${ }^{2}$ tüò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I must strike; Nguai ${ }^{2}$ kai-tong $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I ought to strike; Nguai ${ }^{2}$ $\grave{o ̀}^{3} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I wish to strike.
IV.-Imperative Mood. $N \ddot{u}^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, strike thou; $\mathrm{Nü}^{2} \mathrm{k}^{\prime}{ }^{3} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, proceed thou to strike; $N \ddot{u}^{2}$ tüò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, do you strike at once.
V.-Irfinitive Mood. $\mathrm{Pa}^{\mathrm{a}}$, to strike; Ing kai $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, it is proper to strike; Lì̀ ${ }^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, to be striking; $\mathrm{Pa}^{8}$ lau ${ }^{9}$, to have struck; Chiong può ${ }^{8}$ $\mathrm{pa}^{8}$, about to strike.
VI.-Participles. Lede ${ }^{2} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, striking; $\mathrm{Pa}^{8}$ lau ${ }^{5}$, struck, or, having struck.

## Passive Vorce.

In the spoken language of Fuh Chau there is no proper passive form of verbs. Kieng ${ }^{3}$, to see, or experience, placed before the verb, and after the auxiliary, if there is one, is sometimes used to form the passive voice, but it is seldom heard in conversation, and more properly belongs to the written language. It is even doubtful whether this form is understood by any except the educated, who have learned it in books. Sieu. to receive, or suffer, is more frequently used before the verb to denote action endured by the noun which precedes the verb. Both these forms may be used without naming the person or thing by which the action is performed. When either of these words is used before an active verb to give it a passive signification, it becomes the principal verb, and the words denoting the action or suffering received or endured, become verbal nouns in the accusative case.

There is another form sometimes used, namely, Nguai ${ }^{2}$ këinh $^{4} \mathrm{i} \mathrm{pa}^{8}$, I permitted him to strike; that is, I was struck by him. In some few cases this form has acquirel, by usage, something like a passive signification; as, Nguai ${ }^{2}$ këü ${ }^{4}$ loे-tia pa ${ }^{8}$, I suffered the officer to strike; that is, I have been beaten by the officer. In this form it is always necessary to mention the person or thing by which the aetion has
been performed. This form is to be carefully distinguished from another which closely resembles it, but has a very different signification; as, Nguai ${ }^{2}$ keüng ${ }^{7}$ lò-tia pa ${ }^{8}$, I with the officers fought, or, I struck the officers.

By these and other circumlocutions, the ideas of the passive voice can be tolerably well expressed, but they often appear very harsh. The awkwardness of these expressions is most apparent when it is desirable to give an exact colloquial translation, rather than a paraphrase, of portions of Scripture.

## List of Verbs.

Ain ${ }^{4}$, to press.
Ang, to touch, to rest.
Ang ${ }^{7}$, to solder, to cement.
Chia, to shade.
Chie ${ }^{9}$, to sacrifice.
$\mathrm{Ch}{ }^{9}$, to make.
Ch'ah ${ }^{8}$, to chop.
Chd ${ }^{9}$ hua $^{8}$, to create.
Ch'iang ${ }^{2}$, to invite.
Chu, to rent.
Ch'oh ${ }^{4}$, to go forth.
Ch'èh ${ }^{8}$, to mortise.
Engs', to reply.
Eng', to stamp, to seal, to print.
Eng ${ }^{3}$ sing, Ening, or, Eng ${ }^{9}$ ing, to consent.
Hai', to injure.
Hëng, to roast, to bake.
Hëïh ${ }^{4}$, to be tired.
Hieng ${ }^{5}$, to late.
$\mathrm{Ho}^{3}$ chui ${ }^{2}$, to sprinkle with water.
Hieu ${ }^{3}$ tih ${ }^{8}$, to understand.
Hung, to seal up.
Hung hos, to direct.
Hui ${ }^{2}$ paung ${ }^{3}$, to defame.
$\mathrm{Ka}^{3}$, to teach.
$\mathrm{Ka}^{7}$, to bite.
$\mathrm{Ka}^{\mathrm{s}}$ hong $^{3}$, to teach [morals].
$\mathrm{Ka}^{8}$ tò ${ }^{7}$, to preach,
K'ang ${ }^{9}$, tc see.
Kang ${ }^{\text {kieng }}{ }^{9}$, to see.
K'ang ${ }^{4}$, to lop off.
Kang ${ }^{2}$ tong $^{7}$, to be inspired.
Kaing ${ }^{3}$, to cover.
(Kaius, a cover.)

K'aih ${ }^{4}$, to crowd.
K'aiu', to button.
$K^{\prime}$ aung ${ }^{3}$, to conceal.
K'aung', to sleep.
$\mathrm{Ke}^{3}$, to record, to remember.
K ${ }^{2}$, to unfold.
Keng ${ }^{2}$, to select.
Keng ${ }^{9}$, to honour.
Keng ${ }^{5}$, to lead.
Keus ${ }^{3}$, to save.
$\mathrm{Keu}^{3}$, to call.
Këii', to saw.
Këüh ${ }^{4}$, to permit.
Kiang, to fear.
Kiang ${ }^{5}$, to walk.
$\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}^{2}$, to begin, to build, to set up.
$\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}^{2} \mathrm{li}^{6}$, to get up.
$\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{ie}^{\top}$, to stand.
Kiu ${ }^{\text {b }}$, to shrivel.
Kong, to carry.
Kong ${ }^{3}$, to spcak.
$\mathrm{K}^{\mathbf{j}}{ }^{\mathbf{~}}$ laung $^{7}$, or, $\mathrm{K}^{\mathbf{6}}{ }^{\text {taung }}{ }^{7}$, to gurgle.
$K^{\prime} \dot{o}^{\prime}$, to depart.
K ${ }^{2}$ leng ${ }^{5}$, to pity.
Laës, to rub, to file, to polish.
Li", to come.
$\mathrm{L}^{8}$, to descend.
Ldi ${ }^{9}$, to bore.
Mai, to carry on the back.
Mai chaung, to bury.
$\mathrm{Me}^{2}$, to buy.
$\mathrm{Me}^{7}$, to sell.
Meng ${ }^{7}$, to command.
Muai, to grind.
$\mathrm{Muh}^{8}$, to heal.
Muong ${ }^{3}$, to inquire.
Muo, to touch, to stroke.
Neng ${ }^{5}$, to nurse.
Neng ${ }^{7}$, to recognise.
Neng king, to repeat prayers.
Ne, to smear.
$\mathrm{O}^{\gamma}$, there is, to have.
$\mathrm{O}^{3}$, to learn.
Pa , to manufacture.
$\mathrm{Pa}^{\mathrm{B}}$, to strike.
$\mathrm{Peh}^{4}$, to pull.
Puai, to split.
Pua ${ }^{\text {a }}$ to, to stumble.
Pau , to envelope.
$\mathrm{Sia}^{\mathrm{s}}$, to eat.
Sia che ${ }^{3}$, to write.
Sai, to use.
Sè, to wash.

Sè $1 e^{2}$, to baptize.
Sieu, to burn.
Sieu, to receive.
Sing, to search.
Sing puang, to judge.
Sūo $\dot{o}^{4}$, to cut in pieces.
Sëng, to put on [clothes.]
Tang, to row.
Tang, to carry burdens.
T'aung ${ }^{3}$, to put off [clothes.]
Teng ${ }^{3}$, to sew, to nail.
T'iang ${ }^{3}$, to ache.
T'iang ${ }^{3}$, to love.
Tieus: to jump.
T'iang, to listen.
Toi, to plane.
Tid ${ }^{3}$ ua $a^{\mathrm{b}}$, to answer.
T'ui', to hammer.
Uoh ${ }^{8}$, to water.

Adverbs.
Adverbs are compared in the same manner as adjectives. They are in the same manner rendered intensive by reduplication; as, $\mathbf{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{3} \mathbf{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{3}$, very quick; maing ${ }^{7}$ maing $^{7}$, very slowly. This latter expression often means hereafter, or wait a little. $\quad \mathbf{N} \mathrm{g}^{7}$ is a negative prefix, which may be joined either to adjectives or adverbs.

The following are adverbs in common use, namely:

Hieng ${ }^{7}$ chai ${ }^{7}$, now.
Moe ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}$, not yet.
$\mathrm{Po}^{7}$, again.
$\mathrm{K} \mathrm{i}^{2}$ seng, formerly.
Cha ${ }^{2}$, early.
Chia ${ }^{2}$ sis haiu ${ }^{7}$, at this time.
$\mathrm{Hia}^{2} \mathrm{si}^{5}$ haiu $^{7}$, at that time.
$\mathrm{Na}^{2}$, only, simply.
$\mathrm{Mo}^{5}$ tang tong, impossible.
Këüng ${ }^{7}$, near.
Huong ${ }^{7}$, distant.

H $\dot{0}^{2}$, well.
Chiang ${ }^{3} \mathrm{se}^{7}$, truly, yes.
$\mathrm{Ng}^{7}{ }^{7} \mathrm{se}^{7}$, not so.
Cbiong uang ${ }^{7}$, thus.
Chia ${ }^{2}$ iong ${ }^{5}$, after this fashion.
Cha poh ${ }^{4}$ t $\hat{y}^{\text {r }}$, about so, or, not much different.
Chia ${ }^{4}$ chia ${ }^{4}$, just now (past.)
Cha ${ }^{2}$ ki, early in the morning.
Mò ta $^{2}$ king ${ }^{2}$, no matter.
Tang, now, to-day.

## Adverbial Phrases.

King nieng ${ }^{5}$, this year.
$\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{o}^{3}$ nieng ${ }^{\text {b }}$, last year.
Nieng ${ }^{5}$ tau $^{5}$, first of the year.
$\mathrm{S}^{8}{ }^{8}$ nieng ${ }^{5}$, year before last.
N $\delta^{7}$ au ${ }^{7}$ nieng ${ }^{5}$, three years hence.
Nguoh ${ }^{\text { }}$ nguoh ${ }^{h}$, monthly.

Mang ${ }^{5}{ }^{5}{ }^{6}{ }^{6}$, next year.
Nieng ${ }^{5}$ nieng ${ }^{5}$, yearly.
$N_{i e n g}{ }^{5}$ mue ${ }^{2}$, the last of the year.
$\mathrm{Au}^{7}$ nieng $^{5}$, year after next.
$N \delta^{7}{ }^{1} \grave{o}^{8}$ nieng ${ }^{6}$, three years ago.
Chia ${ }^{2}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, this month.

Puang ka ${ }^{2}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, balf a month.
Siong ${ }^{3}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, last month.
$\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{F}}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, next month.
Seng kui ${ }^{3} \mathrm{ka}^{2}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, several months $\mathrm{Ti}^{5} \mathrm{kui}^{2} \mathrm{ka}^{2}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, several months ago.
Chiang ${ }^{2}$ nguoh ${ }^{8}$, first month of the year. Sang ${ }^{3}$ seh $^{6}$ mang $^{6}$ può, new year's eve.
$\mathrm{Nih}^{\boldsymbol{1}} \mathrm{nih}^{8}$, daily. King tang ${ }^{3}$, to-day.
Ming ${ }^{5}$ tang ${ }^{3}$, or, ming $^{6}$ nih $^{8}$, to-morrow. So $^{8}$ mang $^{3}$, yesterday.
S $\delta^{8}$ nili ${ }^{8}$, day before yesterday.
$N \dot{o}^{7} \mathrm{an}^{\top}$ nih ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}$, three days hence.
$A u^{\eta} n^{n} h^{8}$, day after to-morrow. $\mathrm{N}^{7}{ }^{7} \mathrm{so}^{\mathrm{f}}$ nih ${ }^{\mathrm{s}}$, three days ago.

Puo, night, or evening, affixed to either of the expressions denoting days, signifies the evening of that day; as, king può, (nih ${ }^{8}$ being omitted,) this evening; so $^{3} \mathrm{mang}^{5}$ può, last evening.

## Connectives.

But few connecting particles are used in the dialect spoken at Fuh Chau, and the same is true of the Chinese language generally.

## Conjunctions.

Këüng ${ }^{7}$, and; ling ${ }^{5}$, also; hëüh ${ }^{4}$, or hëüh ${ }^{4}$-ti, or, either; ka sü ${ }^{2}$, or $\mathrm{ioh}{ }^{\boldsymbol{8}} \mathrm{sü}^{2}$, if; $\mathrm{ko}^{2} \mathrm{pe}^{3}$, supposing that; ing $\mathrm{oi}^{7}$, because; ku chü, therefore.

## Prepositions.

Meng ${ }^{3}$-seng ${ }^{5}$, before; $a^{7}$-lau ${ }^{2}$, behind; kè-teng ${ }^{2}$, above; $a^{7}$-tè ${ }^{3}$, below; tie ${ }^{2}$-tie ${ }^{3}$, within; ngie lau ${ }^{2}$, without, outside.

Interjections.
$\mathrm{Ho}^{2}$ ! Well! It is well! $\mathrm{Ai}-\mathrm{ia}^{5}$ ! an expression of wonder, or surprise; this expression is also used in a drawling tone, denoting excessive grief. Ë̈̈ ${ }^{7}$ ! So-ho! Ho there! used to call the attention of persons standing near. $0^{5}!0^{5}!$ expressive of sudden pain.

## Versification.*

The written language governs the style of poetry. The most ancient Chinese poetry was irregular, composed of an even number of lines, consisting of a ncarly uniform number of monosyllabic words in a line, subject to rules of rhyme and alliteration; that is to say, to periodic return and cadence of certain articulations and terminations. Short pieces of this measured prose make up the Chu King, or Book of Records, and some other arcient books of the same class. The style of long poems, sucl as the Panegyric of Moukden, is very similar. Chinese poetry has advanced by degrees to the condition in which
"The rules of Chinese versification have been translated from the Chinese Grammar of Abel Remusat. I'ais: A. D. 1822.
it is seen in at present．Modern poetry commonly consists of either five or seven words in a line．Of these two kinds，that of seven syl－ lables（words）in a line is the more common．There are also verses of three，four，six，and nine words，or syllables，in a line；but the or－ dinary poetry is written in measures of either five or seven syllables．

In poetry there are recognised only two distinctions of tone，namely， the 㞼 ping，or smooth，and the $\mathbb{K}$ cha $^{4}$ ，or harsh tones．The latter comprehends the 上 siong ${ }^{2}$ ，or rising，the 去 $\mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{ëü}^{3}$ ，or van－ ishing，and the $\lambda$ ih ${ }^{8}$ ，or abrupt tones，these being all considered harsh tones．

In verses of five words（syllables）no attention is paid to the tones of the first and third．The second and fourth ought to alter－ nate；that is，if the second is a ping tone，the fourth ought to be cha $a^{4}$ ，and vice versa．The second and third lines ought to be the reverse of the first，and，by consequence，the fourth verse resembles the first．In verses of seven syllables，the tones of the first，third， and fifth may be selected at pleasure．The tones of the second and fourth words should alternate，and the sixth should correspond with the second．In verses of five，and also of seven syllables，the stan－ zas，consisting of four lines each，require three of the lines to termi－ nate alike both in rhyme and tone，or accent．Usually the ending of the third line does not rhyme with the others，and frequently they dispense with the rhyme altogether．

The structure of Chinese poetry may be illustrated by diagrams， using the open circle to represent smooth tones，the shaded circle for harsh tones，and the circle with one half only shaded，to represent syllables which may be smonth or harsh at pleasure．

In this example the left hand column represents the first line，having the second syllable a smooth tone，and the fourth harsh．The second syllable of the second line is harsh，and the fourth smooth，and so on．

In the following example，the second syllable of the first line is harsh，and the fourth smosth，and so on．This ex－ ample is the inversion of the first．

It is thus admissible to choose at pleasure the tone of the governing syllable，（the second of the first line，）but when that is chosen，the whole stan－ za must be made to correspond to the peculiar form which agrees with it；＇in the same manner as in music，the whole tune must preserve a certain rela－ tion to the key note．In some poems of five sylla－

bles in a measure, the third of the first line is the governing word: and the fifth sometimes holds the same relation in verses of seven syllables. This key word in Chinese poctry is the object of particular attention. It must not be a mere particle, but a word expressing some prominent idea in the sentence. It may rhyme with the key word in the following line, or it may alternate with it, according to the rule which is chosen in the poem. These different kinds of verses are variously combined, making as many as forty different poetical metres. There are six different metres in ancient poetry. The style of these poems is, in general, elevated, concise, full of allegorical, and metaphorical expressions, of words that are antique and little used, and references to events of history, deeds, usages, and opinions little known. This is what renders Chinese poetry so very difficult to be appreciated or described by Western scholars.

The great difference between the smooth and harsh tones, which are variable in different stanzas of Chinese poetry, some of which can be scarcely, if at all, enunciated in singing, renders it almost impossible to sing Chinese poetry with Western music, and a tune which was adapted to one stanza would not be appropriate for the next, though agreeing with it in the number and metrical arrangement of its syllables.

In the written language there are so many synonymous cbaracters differing in pronuneiation and tone, that there is little difficulty in adapting them to the strict rules of Chinese poctry. In the spoken language, however, the number, tones, and arrangement of words in a sentence, is so inflexible, that it is almost impossible to compose poetic measures in the spoken language. The popular songs of the empire, and hymns composel for Christian worship, are only approximations to the style of the spoken language, and, consequently. are but partially intelligible to the common people.

## LIST OF NOUNS WITH their classifiers.

N. B. In the following list Süds, the adjective one, is frequently translated by the indefinite article to which it is often equivalent.



$\rightarrow$ En


Sǜs ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ hahe $^{\text {C }} \mathrm{Cheu}^{2}$; A pair of birde.
Sūò hah ${ }^{4}$ Chioì ${ }^{4}$, A couple of candles.
Süòs ${ }^{5}$ hab $^{4}$ Chuò ${ }^{4}$-tais, A pair of candlesticks.
Süö ${ }^{8}$ hah $^{4}$ Sieu $^{2}$ ieu tò ${ }^{4}$, A pair of small side tables, (Making a square when put together.)
Sūò hnli ${ }^{4}$ Tius, A pair of wardrubes, or cupboards.
Süò ${ }^{8}$ hah ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Ta}^{6}$ - $\mathrm{to}^{4}$, A pair of tea-tables.
Stiò ${ }^{8}$ bieh $^{8} \mathrm{Chü}$, One leaf of a book.
Süò ${ }^{8}{ }^{\text {hos }}$, A set, consisting of tet things of any kind. Enough for ten persous.
Süò ${ }^{\text {hes }}{ }^{\mathbf{3}} \mathrm{Uang}^{2}, \mathbf{A}$ set of howls.
Süò ${ }^{\mathbf{s}} \mathrm{ho}^{3}$ Puange, A set of plates.
Süò ${ }^{8} h^{8} \mathrm{Eu}^{5}, \mathrm{~A}$ set of cups.
Süò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{ho}^{3} \mathrm{Tieh}^{2}, \mathrm{~A}$ set of saucers.
 nese use purrelain spoons.)
Sǜ̀ ${ }^{\mathbf{h}} \mathrm{ho}^{3}$ Tëür ${ }^{7}$, A set of chop-sticks (i. e., 10 pairs).
Süò ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{ho}^{3} \mathrm{Ngax}^{6}$-chieng. A set of tooth-picks.
Süò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{ho}^{3} \mathrm{Ie}^{2}, \mathrm{~A}$ set of chnirs.
Süö ${ }^{8}$ hohr Cb' ${ }^{6}$ aëlı4, A acroll.
Süò ${ }^{\text {hoh }}{ }^{4} \mathrm{Ua}^{7}$, A picture (on a scroll).
Sädi hoh ${ }^{4}$ Puè ${ }^{3}, \mathbf{A}$ roll of cotton cloth.
Süò hoh ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Tu}^{5}$, A roll of silk.
Suò ${ }^{4}$ hong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{Che}^{7}, \mathbf{A}$ columo of characters. (Chinese is written in colomns.)
Süos hong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{Ch}^{6} \mathrm{eu}^{2}$, A row of trees.
Süò hung Chula, A sealed communication, a letter.

(Hud2 signifies many banded together.)
Süò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{hud}^{3} \mathrm{Ch}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{eh}^{2}$, A band of thieves.
Säo ${ }^{8}$ huó $^{2}$ Chbeh $^{\mathbf{s}}$-sung ${ }^{5}$, A fleet of pirates.
Süò ${ }^{\mathbf{~ k a}}{ }^{\text {b }}$ Chieng ${ }^{5}$, One cash, a copper coin. (The same ${ }^{\text {as }}$ Süd8 ${ }^{8}$ chia ${ }^{4}$ Chieng5.)
Süò ${ }^{8}$ ka $^{2}$ Nëng ${ }^{5}$, One person, a human being.

The Chinese Language spoken at Fuh Chau．

- 個月
- 個門
- 個㮁架書架
- 架自駡鐘 $\mathrm{Süo}^{8} \mathrm{ka}^{3} \mathrm{Chëän}^{7}$ ming ${ }^{5}$ chüng，A clock，（a seff－striking
- 架眠床 Sùì $^{8} \mathrm{ka}^{3} \mathrm{Ming}^{5}$－ch ${ }^{\text {cong }}$ ，One bed－stead．
- 名口木周 Süò $\mathrm{ka}^{3}$ Tius，A cupboard，a wardrobe．
- —間行 $\mathrm{Süo}^{\mathbf{8}} \mathrm{kang} \mathrm{Ong}^{5}$ ，A mercantile establishuent，a hong．
- 間庴 $\mathrm{Süo}^{8} \mathrm{kang} \mathrm{Ch}^{2} \mathrm{u}_{0}{ }^{3}$ ，One house．
- —間房 Süo ${ }^{8}$ lang Pung，An inner room．


Süd ${ }^{8} \mathrm{ka}^{3} \mathrm{Ng}^{2} \mathrm{Nah}^{\mathrm{B}}$, One month．
Süò ${ }^{8}$ ka $^{2}$ Muong ${ }^{5}$ ，One door．
Sü ${ }^{8} \mathrm{ka}^{2}$ Siong ${ }^{5}$ ，One trunk，box，or chest．
Süò̀ ${ }^{\mathbf{k} a^{5}} \mathrm{Chü}^{-k} a^{8}$ ，One book－case．

Süò ${ }^{\text {s }}$ kang Taings，One shop．
Süò ${ }^{8}$ keh ${ }^{8}$ Chü，A set of books．$\underset{\text { several volumes．）}}{\text { ．}}$（A work consisting of

- 羣陣鴨
- 羣陣羊

一擪陣㵀
Süò ${ }^{8}$ kungs．teng ${ }^{s}$ Iongs，A flock of sheep，a herd of goats．
Sūòs kungs－teng ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Nio}^{3}$－kiang ${ }^{2}$ ，A company of children．
Süò ${ }^{9}$ kung ${ }^{3}$－teng ${ }^{3}$ Nèng ${ }^{\overline{3}}, \mathrm{~A}$ company of men．

 bers．
一句語
Sùòs kuòs $\mathrm{Ua}^{7}, \mathrm{~A}$ phrase（spoken）．
Süòs kuò ${ }^{3}$ Cbü，A sentence of a book．
一句 古言吾 Süòs ${ }^{\text {kuò̀ }}{ }^{\text {Ku－ua7，An ancient saying．}}$俗語 Sǜ̀ ${ }^{8}$ kuòs Sü ${ }^{8}$ ．ua ${ }^{7}$ ，An adage，a proverh．金十 $\mathrm{Süg}^{9}{ }^{\text {k }} \mathrm{kuong}^{2}$ Cheng．A needle，a probe．


Süòs kuong ${ }^{\mathbf{2}} \mathrm{Mi}^{5}$ ，A stalk of rice．
Süòs kia Ē，An odd shoe（one of a pair）．
Sǜ̀o kia Uabs，An odd stocking．
—哥靴
Süò ${ }^{\text {kia }}$ K＇uò，One boot，an odd boot．
Süòs ${ }^{\text {k }}{ }^{\text {cuoh }}{ }^{4}$ Mëhs， $\mathbf{A}$ cake of ink．
Süd̀ ${ }^{\mathbf{G}} \mathrm{k}^{\mathbf{4}} \mathrm{uoh}{ }^{4} \mathrm{Ch}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{a}^{5}$ ，A block of wood．
—東立楊梅 Süò labe Chuò－ungs，An arbutua，strawberry fruit，Red－ fruit．

—米立珠 Süò ${ }^{\text {lah }}{ }^{8}$ Chuò，A bead．

一然立全们 one strawberry，or one of any kind of fruit）．



一 采立本比柜 Süò $^{3}$ lah ${ }^{5}$ Pis pas，Medlar fruit，Loquat，Merpilus japon－



一粒鼓釘
Süò ${ }^{\gamma}$ lahs $\mathrm{Ku}^{2}$－ting，A round headed nail，a drum nail．
—粒葡萄


Süòs lianga Può̉，One breaddl of cotton cloth．
 Sinò ${ }^{8}$ wut ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Ch}^{\prime} \mathrm{ieng}{ }^{5}$ ，One acre of field land．

Süòs mu ${ }^{2}$ Huongs，An acre of garden land．
Sǜ̀ ${ }^{8}$ mue ${ }^{\boldsymbol{N}} \mathrm{Ng}{ }^{\text {ü }}, \mathrm{A}$ fish，one tail（used in books only）；
spoken，Süd̀ traus $^{\text {ta }} \mathrm{Ngü̆}$ ，One head of fish．

一尾黄化魚
Süòs mué Uongs．hua－ngǘj，Yellow fish，（one of the beat salt water fish．）
－門 炮 Sǜs muong ${ }^{5} \mathrm{P}^{\prime} \mathrm{au}^{3}$ ，One mouth of artillery，one cannon．



一把日冒 Süòs paz Nihorchia，A sun shade，a parasol．



Süd ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{2}$ Sieng $^{3}, ~ A$ fan．
Süōs ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ Sieu，A reed instrument with 12 tnbes（sound－ ing like an accordeon）．
Süòs pa Kiens，A flute，a clarinet（？）
Süòs pa ${ }^{2}$ Kieu7 or Süòs ting ${ }^{2}$ Kieur，A sedan．
Süòs ${ }^{8} \mathrm{pa}^{2} \mathrm{P}^{\prime}$ ieut， A spoon．
Süòs par ${ }^{2}$ ò，One knife．
Sǜ̀s paz ${ }^{2}{ }^{c}$ a，One fork．
Süò̀ ${ }^{\text {pa }}{ }^{2}$ Hong．tëng ${ }^{5}$ One tobacco pipe．
Süòs par Sau³－chiuq，Ove broom．（ $\mathrm{Pa}^{2}$ ，is used with almost all mecbanical tools aod implements of husbaodry．）
Süös penge Chü，Dne page of a book（so called from penge，ihe board，or hlock on which it is eograved）：
Süòs peng ${ }^{2}$ Che $^{7}$ ，$A$ block of characters，a block en－ graved for printing．
Süòs peng2 $\mathrm{Ua}^{7}$ ，A page of pictures．
Süòs－penge Süòs ${ }^{\text {spengen }}{ }^{2}$ ，Stand aside，make way．
Lang ${ }^{7}$ peng2，${ }^{2}$ Two sides，both sides．
Sang－penge or Sang－pange，A small boat（narried from the three oars with which it is rowed）．
Süò ${ }^{\text {s }}$ pang ${ }^{\text {Kis，}}$ A chess board．
Süò ${ }^{8}$ puong ${ }^{3}$ Chü，One volume of a book．
Süd＇s puong ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Peh}^{4}$ ，One pencil，（made of hair．）
Süd̀s puongs Hua，A pot of flowers，a flowerling plant．
Süò ${ }^{8} p^{\text {ch}}{ }^{4}{ }^{4}, \mathbf{A}$ roll，or piece，of any woven goods．A fragment of cloth is cailed tois．
Süòs ${ }^{8}$ peb4 Chè̀ ${ }^{3}$－${ }^{\circ}{ }^{3}{ }^{3}$ ，A piece of summer cloth，i．e．，


- 正花絴 Süò ${ }^{8}$ peh $^{4}$ Hua－tiu ${ }^{5}, \mathbf{A}$ web of figured silk．
- 正綿紬

Süös ${ }^{5}$ peh $^{4}$ Miengo．tius，Cloth made of cotton and silk
一必白綾 Süò ${ }^{9} p^{2}$ eh ${ }^{4}$ Pas－lings，A web of lutestring，a species of —更仿 Sǜs ${ }^{8}$ peh $^{5}$ Può ${ }^{3}$ ，A piece of cotton cloth．

—正素触 Sù̀̀s peh4 Sos－tiús，A piece of plain silk．


Süò ${ }^{3}$ péh $^{4}$ Tius，A piece of common silk．
Süòs p＇eh4 Iongs－può ${ }^{3}$ ，A piece of foreign cotton cloth．一疋尼一足大尼 Sũòs péeh ${ }^{4}$ Nis，A piece of fulled cloth，dressed cloth． Süò ${ }^{9} p^{e}$ eh $^{4}$ Tuair nis，A piece of broadeloth．一足粗尼 Süòs ${ }^{4}{ }^{4}{ }^{4} \mathrm{Pi}^{\mathrm{s}}$－chies，A piece of Spanish stripe（baize）．

Süòs péeh Iongs－chè，A piece of foreign lawn．
一下斜交跘布 Süò ${ }^{8}$ peh $^{6}{ }^{4}$ Sia－houg ${ }^{5}$ iong $^{5}$ può ${ }^{3}$ ，A piece foreign drilling．

## 一是斜文絾

一疋線緇

Sêò ${ }^{9}$ peb $^{4}$ Siang－chaiu ${ }^{3}$ ，A piece of silk camlet．
——馬

一杆棋
Süò ${ }^{8} \mathrm{p}^{\text {e }}$ eh $\mathrm{Ma}^{2}, \mathrm{~A}$ horse（one of a span）．
Süò puangr Kis，A set of chess，a game of chess（？）
一柔花
Süò ${ }^{9}$ puòs ${ }^{8}$ Hua，A single flower，one blossom．
Sũòs ${ }^{8}$ p $^{\text {noor }}$ Cbü，$A$ set of books，or several volumes composing a single work． Süòs sëng $\dot{E}^{\text {s．}}$ ，A pair of shoes，one put on of shoes． Süò esëng Uahs，A pair of stockings．
Süò sëng K＇uó，One pair of boots．
Süò ${ }^{9}$ sing Sings，An idol god．
Süò s sing Puissah4，One（Budhist）idol．
Süò ${ }^{9}$ sing Ku2－tuag2，An ancient image not worshipped，
Süòs sing Nëngs－kiangs，A statue（？）
Süò ${ }^{8}$ sing $\mathrm{N}^{2} \mathrm{guang}^{7}$－ub ${ }^{\mathbf{B}}$, A fancy image，a doll．
Süò ${ }^{3}$ aing Huhs，An image of Buddha．
Süòs sing Mòj－kuiz，One devil．
Süò ${ }^{*}$ siux Si, A piece of poetry．
Sü ${ }^{s}$ tau Cheu ${ }^{3}$ ，One root tree，one tree．
Sǜ̀ ${ }^{8}$ tau Hua，One root of flowers．
一株花
Süòs t＇aú Tauc－sang，An animal，a wild animal．
－$\ddagger$ Süòs tangas，A Coolie load，a hundred weight．


Sưòs tais $\mathrm{Hie}^{3}$ ，A theatrical play．
Süòs taung ${ }^{3}$ Puongt，A meal of victuals．
Süòs tès Ungb．chiong，An essay，a dissertation．
Sưò ten ${ }^{5}{ }^{\text {Ons }}$ ，A canal，or river．
Süò ten ${ }^{5}$ Kè，A street，a street hordered by shops，a market place．
—條索 Sùò ten ${ }^{5}$ Sò ${ }^{4}$ ，One rope．


Süò ${ }^{9}$ teu ${ }^{\text {siangas }}$ ，A silk thread．
Süòs teus Ch＇iu－küng，A handkerchief．

- 條 帶 Eùòs teus Tais，A girdle．
- 條血品 Büds tear ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Sungs，A ship，a boat．

一條三板
Sưòs teus Sang－penge，A three oared boat．

- 條鐵金厂 Süòs ten ${ }^{5}$ Tieh4 ting，One iron nail．
- 條金† Sioòs teus Cheng，A single needle．
- 佟草 Süòs teus $\mathrm{Ch}^{\prime}$ aus， $\mathbf{A}$ spear of grass．
- 條竹
- 條柱
- 條梁
- 金定金艮 Suò ${ }^{\text {chang }}{ }^{7}$ Ngüngs，One ingot of silver．
- 錠金

Süòs tiang ${ }^{7}$ King，An ingot of gold，a bar of gold．
金定金易
Stòs tiang ${ }^{7}$ Seh ${ }^{4}$ ，A block of pewter．
Süòs tiang ${ }^{7}$ Tëng＇，A block of copper or brass．
Süòs tiang ${ }^{7} \mathrm{~T}^{\mathrm{ie}} \mathrm{h}^{4}$ ，A pig of iron．
—滴水 Sǜ̀ teh4 Chuir，A drop of water．

—滴日汁 Söŏ́ teh4 Mëhs－chais，A tear．

—滴手 Suòs teh－kiang ${ }^{2}$ ，A little drop，a little．（Properly used

Stiòs teus Têuh ${ }^{4}$ ，One bamboo．

Süò teu ${ }^{5}$ Cli＇eus，One tree．

- 嵞铜
- 金定鐵

The Chinese Language spoken at Fuh Chau．

- 頂絷 Sǜs ting Lihs，A summer hat．
- 頂帽 Süòs tinge Mò̀r，A folt hat，a cap．

一頂車㟢 Sǜ̀s ting ${ }^{\text {Kieut，}}$ One eedan．（A sedan，like a hat，has a ting ${ }^{2}$ ，or ball，on the top．）


- 谁地 Sū̀s toi $T^{\prime} \mathbf{n}^{5}$ ，A heap of earth．
- 㔼畨草 Sàòs toi Pong－tòs，A heap of rubbish．

一塊石



一塊玻璃
Sūò ${ }^{\text {tòìs }}$ Chiong，One brick．
Süò ${ }^{\text {s．}}$ tòi ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Nguat，One tile．
Süòs tòis Pò ${ }^{-l}{ }^{\text {ess }}$ ，A pane of glass．
Sừ̀s tòis Huang－chiengs，A foreign coin，one dollar．
一塊番銭
Stiòs tòi ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Ch}^{\text {a }} \mathrm{a}^{5}$ ，A stick of firewood．

- 塊柴
- 塊水晶

Süòs tòis Chui－ching，A piece of quartz crystal．
一堍板
Süòs tòi ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Pengas，One board．
Süòs tòi ${ }^{3}$ Piangz，A cake，a biscuit．
Süòs tòis Nülıs，A piece of meat．
Süòs tòi ${ }^{3} \mathrm{~T}^{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{en}^{3}, \mathbf{A}$ post，a pillar，a piece of timber．
Süò ${ }^{9}$ tüng I －siongs，One thickness of clothing．
Sùiò tüng Muongs，A single door．
Langi tüngs Muongs，A donbly enclosed door，a door on each face of the wall．
Süò ${ }^{\mathbf{g}}$ tüngs Siangs，A city surrounded with one wall，a single enclosure．
Süò ${ }^{\text {s }}$ tüng $\mathrm{T}^{\text {rieng，}}$ A single vault of heaven，a single tier of clouds．

Taus，is used as a classifier or numeral of every animal except man，whether oo the earth，is the air，or in the water，including beast，fowl，reptile，and insect．





## Chinese Synonyms．



Eng，To touch，to come in con－ tact．
Muò，To rub slightly，to feel．
Laës，To rub，to polish，to grate， a grater，
Lès，To graze in passing，as to strike against flowers in passing， to come in collision．
敖皮 Chiaés，To fret or chafe by rub－
磨学 Maais，To grind，to polisb，
磨刀 Muais tò，To griad kaives．
䄷墨 Muais mëhs，To grind ink．

磨若 Mòr，To griad in a mill．
 with the hand．
印Eags，A seal，to stamp，to print， a press worked by a lever，to prese．
厚 Tah4，A press worted by a screw．
掳 Ma ，To grasp in the hand．
拉手 La ch＇iua，To clasp hands as a token of respect．毫手 K＇eng chiiua，To take bold $\Varangle \sim$ Ore of hands．
Х $\mp \begin{gathered}\text { Cha chiciu，} \\ \text { hands（the fingers of one thand }\end{gathered}$ hands（the fingers of one havd between those of the other．）
f占 Nieng，To bring．
䤠 ${ }^{\text {Tös }}$ ，To take up．
掏梨Tòs lí，Briag。



女麻 Ma，Mamma．
噳Ma，To grasp in the hand．
f旦
馬
馬
女臣 Ma²，Father＇s mother．
傌䍖

$\mathrm{Ma}^{8}$ ，The pulse．
$\mathrm{Ma}^{8}$, Barley．

厓田彭 Naur－iels，Great bustle， place where crowds assemble tor business or for pleasure．
 great bustle．
Pung，To burst away（as water from a pool）．


Pungs，Aa inner room．
K P＇ong3huen，To extinguish
Prongs，To liberate，to let loose．

Pong 3，To place．
粸
Pongs，Night soil．

本 Prong，Root，origin．
身 Puong2－sing，Myself．盆Hua－puongs，A flower pot．
Pungs，A deep dish．
Puong7，Boiled rice．
Tong，Long（in space or in time）．污長Chui²taung，Flood tide．長 $\mathbf{E}^{\text {Tong－tong，}}$ Very long．湯 Tong，Hot water，soup．節 Tong，To swallow．
粬 T＇ong＜super＞s，Sugar．

浪 Taung3，To take off（raiment）．
湯 Tangs，To row（a boat）．
畑 Tang，Satin．
紋
Tang ${ }^{7}$ ，To drop，to lose．
Taung7，A measure of ten feet．

## THE LORDS PRAYER．






 hüng－auh ${ }^{4}$ ；Ing oi s kuoh ${ }^{4}$－lè̀ ${ }^{2}$ ，kong ${ }^{5}$ pang ${ }^{3}$ ，këüng ${ }^{7}$ ing－ient，tu se ${ }^{7}$ nü $^{2}$




[^0]:    * One of the (so called) initials has merely the force of the Greek spirius tenis, and denotes the absence of any initial consonant, in which case the word begins with the vowel of the final or " mother sound."

[^1]:    －Accented on the second vowel．
    $\dagger$ Accented ou the vowel hefore the last．
    $\ddagger$ The eleversth initial denotes merely the absence of initial sound．

[^2]:    *In the use of nouns preceded by their elassifiers, a numeral adjective must alpays precede the classifier. The numeral sǜ ${ }^{8}$, one, is, in such eircumstances, commonly equivalent to $a$ or an. There is no proper artiele in the Chinese language; its place is in part supplied by numeral and demonstrative adjectives.

    Weights and measures, as classifiers, are used before nouns in the same manner as in English. In the Chinese money weights in common use at Fuh Chau,

    10 Lie equal one Hung $=5.760$ grains, Troy.
    10 Hung equal one Chieng $=57.55$ grains, Troy.
    10 Chieng equal one Liong, or ounce $=575.5$ grains, Troy.
    16 Liong equal one Kūng, or pound $=9208$ grains, Troy.
    100 Küng equal one Trang, or load $=131 \frac{1}{2}$ pounds, Avoirdupois.
    Six or eight other weights are in use at Fuh Chan, varying in value from is to $\frac{1}{1} \frac{4}{1}$ of the Küng, or pound, given above.

