IN THIS SURVEY OF CHINESE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES THE AUTHOR FIRST ASSUMES THAT MOST SERIOUS STUDENTS HOPE EVENTUALLY TO ATTAIN SUFFICIENT READING AND WRITING ABILITY TO CONDUCT ORIGINAL RESEARCH USING RESOURCES WRITTEN IN CHINESE. BECAUSE OF THE NATURE OF THE CHINESE WRITING SYSTEM, THIS IS A VERY DIFFICULT GOAL AND "THE LEVEL OF COMPETENCE REACHED IN READING CHINESE AFTER TWO OR THREE YEARS OF STUDY IS STILL SO LOW AS TO LEAVE THE STUDENT 'FUNCTIONALLY ILLITERATE'." THERE IS AT PRESENT A SCARCITY OF SCHOLARS WELL VERSED IN THE CHINESE LANGUAGE AND A CONCURRENT SHORTAGE OF QUALIFIED CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS. CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS TO WORK AT ALL LEVELS OF INSTRUCTION FROM HIGH SCHOOL TO POST GRADUATE, (2) EMPHASIZING MORE SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS TO SUPPLEMENT CLASSROOM WORK, (3) DEVELOPING A NUMBER OF SMALL CENTERS FOR INTENSIVE LANGUAGE AND TEACHER TRAINING, AND (4) CONCENTRATING SCARCE TEACHER TIME ON THOSE STUDENTS MOST LIKELY TO BECOME TEACHERS OR RESEARCHERS. A SELECTIVE AND ANNOTATED LIST OF TEACHING AND REFERENCE MATERIALS ORIGINALLY PREPARED BY NICHOLAS C. BODMAN IS UPDATED AND PARTIALLY REVISED IN THIS PAPER. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES WHICH SHOULD BE STRENGTHENED ARE BRIEFLY DISCUSSED HERE AND INCLUDE AUDIOVISUAL AIDS, LANGUAGE LABORATORIES, SPECIAL LIBRARIES AND LIBRARY SERVICES, AND OVERSEAS LANGUAGE CENTERS. (JD)
Foreword

This state-of-the-art paper has been commissioned by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics in collaboration with the Foreign Languages Program of the Center for Applied Linguistics. A copy of this report has been placed in the ERIC System and is available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. For ordering procedures consult U.S. Office of Education monthly publication "Research in Education" or write to the Clearinghouse at 1717 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, D.C. 20036. Points of view or opinions contained in this document do not necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy. Comments concerning the article's contents should be addressed to the author at Brown University, Providence, R.I., 02912.

A. Hood Roberts, Director
ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics
August 1968

ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics is a part of the Educational Resources Information Center of the U.S. Office of Education
In preparing a report on the present state of Chinese language teaching in America, we can begin by assuming that most students and educators will agree that the student learns the Chinese written language after he has some control over spoken Chinese, but that he learns the Chinese language so that he will be better able to read materials written in Chinese, to talk in Chinese with others about his reading, and at more advanced levels, to conduct research using sources in written Chinese. In short, I will assume that Chinese is not studied as a spoken language alone (even though I recognize that some few students will have only this as a terminal goal), but that in addition to spoken Chinese, students are expected to learn, and teachers to teach, the Chinese writing system, and the reading of Chinese. Since Mandarin Chinese is the Standard Language of China, I will further assume that the dialect taught in American schools will be Mandarin.

The Difficulty of the Chinese Writing System

Reading is introduced in most Chinese courses, but because of the difficulty of the writing system and its lack of dependence on the spoken language, the level of competence that is reached in reading Chinese after two or three years of study (in an academic schedule) is still so low as to leave the student 'functionally illiterate'. We can fairly represent the difficulty as a whole order of magnitude greater than learning to read any of the common European languages, for two basic reasons: First, that writing system is intrinsically more difficult than any writing system used for representing any Western language. Second,
many of the "familiar languages" are closely related, as are French, Spanish and Italian. Chinese, by contrast, has almost no common stock of words that are similar in form or meaning to any of the European languages, and it uses grammatical categories that are unfamiliar to speakers of most European languages. In teaching and studying the more familiar languages, we can assume that the student, in learning to listen and speak, will achieve a parallel competence in reading, but the parallel development is not possible with Chinese.

In addition, the scholar or reader who has to use Chinese sources finds that he is not able to divide the chronological totality of Chinese literature. In the West we decide more or less arbitrarily that at some point in time Latin was no longer; and Italian, French and Spanish emerged as separate languages with separate literary traditions. In Chinese the continuity of the writing system forces us to live with the fact that any item out of the past can exist in modern usage, so we must accommodate to the panchronic range of styles and literary genres that characterizes the written record of the last two-and-a-half millennia of Chinese literary output. This requires that we adapt our methodologies and attitudes to social, religious, and political systems that have a two-thousand year time depth.

Methodology and Language Competence

For the early Western pioneers in Chinese studies, almost every topic that they chose to investigate represented a significant breakthrough in understanding of some significant aspect of the Eastern traditions. The research activities of these older sinologues were based on long residence in China, and were supported by careful well-trained native Chinese scholars raised in traditional values. The invaluable insights these Chinese gentlemen offered have often gone unrecognized and unacknowledged --- as has also the Sinocentric skewing of the viewpoint of the writers who depended on them so much. Later, as scholars of the 1920's and 1930's (both Chinese and Western) began systematic investigations with the newer 'scientific' tools of disciplines developed in the West, there was a recognition of the need for specialization in a single discipline or in closely related disciplines. Historians and Sociologists of China began
to see themselves as associated with a scholarly discipline with its own traditions. The utilization of Chinese data offered a way of testing and further developing the methodology that was the professional focus of these scholars. Their researches made available in Western languages important monographs on many aspects of Chinese history and society as well as monumental joint studies such as *Eminent Chinese of the Ch'ing Period*.

As more material has become available in translation it has become possible to do significant research on China without exclusive reliance on materials in Chinese. The result of reliance on translated material, especially by many scholars working the modern period, is that many teachers in Chinese programs who are interpreting China to this generation of Americans are doing so without sufficient facility with Chinese language materials and techniques for research in Chinese collections to guide a new generation of scholar-teachers through broadly based research activities that will make significant use of Chinese sources.

Scholars in Chinese are aware that the body of unanalyzed material is still so vast that a careful research job using the methodology of any of the Western disciplines can produce a new breakthrough. They are also aware that the next levels of scholarly synthesis of Chinese history and institutions depends on the original research --- using Chinese sources --- that will make this synthesis possible. However, this level of scholarship can be attained only by scholars with excellent grounding in the Chinese language (including the written styles of particular disciplines and historical periods).

We are left with a situation in which the pyramid of scholarly achievement stands precariously on its tip --- the broad base of language competence which underlay earlier scholarly achievement is no longer there. Political upheaval in China, and the pains of coming to grips with the 20th century have made the traditional Chinese scholar unbelievably scarce, and no new ones are being developed on Taiwan or in Hongkong.

**Emergency Demands for Language Training**

The effect of this thinning-out of language skills has had the effect
of putting still greater pressures on language training facilities, on the acquisition of research library facilities, and the development of data-processing techniques for literary, scientific and humanistic studies (particularly the social sciences) in Chinese. These last, I will discuss more fully later, but will merely point out here that at every level of Chinese language teaching our most valuable resources are 1) the language teachers, who develop new resources, and 2) those who operate at the next higher stage, who train language teachers and professional librarians for Chinese collections --- who are responsible for the quality of the next generation of scholars.

Let me point out that shortage of skilled language teachers is not relieved by the back-and-forth 'raiding' of these few. There is no increase in the total pool of resources, while the raiding in some ways only dilutes the strengths of one institution, without adding to the strengths of the next, and often postponing the development of a 'critical mass' of language teachers in any of the institutions. Certainly much valuable teaching time is lost while the 'raided' teacher adjusts to a new institution.

In recognizing that we are now desperately short of qualified teachers who understand the importance of good language habits; teachers who understand how to teach language, and believe language teaching is important, we must not neglect the next generation. We need to develop attitudes toward the study of Chinese that will encourage more intelligent and highly-motivated students to begin the study of Chinese as a foundation for careers in Chinese language teaching, research in Chinese language and literature, and in disciplines for which these language skills are a prerequisite.

**Manpower Resources**

This section makes some observations on 1) who teaches Chinese and 2) some of the problems the American educational system poses for teachers of Chinese language, particularly with respect to academic qualifications, and at the high school level, the formal requirements for teacher certification. I will also describe some desirable changes in the existing requirements in the interest of better utilization of our scarce manpower.
resources.

There is a variety of technical obstacles in the way of assessing the manpower resources that are available. There is no single source of data on those who teach Chinese. Many Chinese teachers see themselves as 'really' historians or political scientists; some specialize in the literature of early periods, and never teach any student who has not achieved minimal literacy; some are administrators more than teachers. There are a few teachers of Chinese who have committed themselves to serving the needs of a religious community, some who teach in government programs, and some who have taught Chinese previously but who are now in government or industry, keeping their connections with researchers and teachers. Many belong to no professional organization. An important but impermanent group who do much of the teaching in beginning language courses is the group of Teaching Assistants (most of these are girls who marry within a few years of their arrival to start new careers as wives and mothers). Few of these are listed in the professional registers.

Academic Requirements

Many of the teachers at the high school level are native Chinese. Some of these are kept from early full certification by a set of requirements designed for native Americans who were teachers of foreign language. These requirements are for academic course credits in the history and culture of the country where the language they teach is spoken. For Americans they are still appropriate, for native Chinese these requirements should be waived. Requirements certifying that such a teacher had adequate control of Standard Mandarin would be more appropriate.

At the college and university level, the Ph.D. degree is still the only generally acceptable measure of professionalization. The Ph.D. degree assures both the academic administrator and other professionals that one has been accepted into the American educational system. For an administrator who is unfamiliar with the state of Chinese teaching, the Ph.D. degree offers some assurance that he is dealing with a person who has at least made his peace with the American academic system. This is particularly important when one realizes that for any senior appointment
an administrator is selecting a colleague. He is selecting a person who has the professional and personal qualification to develop and direct a program of language studies; someone who can work together with colleagues in other departments and disciplines; someone to help develop a coordinated program that requires interdisciplinary cooperation; but also someone who is a colleague.

Some few institutions that have very limited programs for which they do not see expansion, and fully staffed programs, may not see the need for a language teacher to help direct the research work of advanced graduate students. These institutions sometimes accommodate experienced language teachers with long service by according them full status, but rarely full responsibility. Special arrangements such as these can be expected to cushion some of the effect of the shortage of language teachers; certainly this is often a more appropriate solution than the appointment of someone with a Ph.D. in a discipline that is irrelevant to the institutional specializations.

**Teacher Development**

The specific skills required in the teaching of Chinese language to non-native speakers of Chinese (Chinese-as-a-foreign-language), are rarely taught formally, as they are in the U.S. in preparing teachers of the commonly taught European languages. The requirements for the basic language-teaching skills are substantially the same at all levels; the high school, junior college, and university. These skills are not taught in preparing teachers for college teaching, although recently there have been some short NDEA summer institutes for the training of high school teachers.

Indeed, in many smaller institutions and 'Chinese Studies' or 'Chinese Area' programs, there is often the expectation that someone who is 'in Chinese' is necessarily multi-competent. The result is that language teachers are frequently assigned to teach 'Chinese Area' courses, or survey courses on Chinese Civilization --- even Oriental Civilization. At the same time, sometimes even in larger institutions, individuals who are by training or inclination Historians, Political Scientists, Art Historians, and Sociologists often are pressed into service as language
teachers. In most other fields this would be regarded as ridiculous pretension for all but a gifted few. In Chinese it is still a commonplace.

We do not yet have any serious investment in new tactical teaching techniques or strategic modes of teaching that will offer any hope that we are likely to become more efficient teachers of the average student, nor do we have any sure-fire way of competing with many of the sciences for the rewards our society offers to the brilliant student who chooses the sciences for his career. Our teaching techniques are very much the same as they have been for the last twenty years (except for some notable improvements in the texts we use), but we are becoming more and more aware that we are teaching in the same old way.

We need to plan to develop two different kinds of teachers, the native American, and the native Chinese.

There are obvious problems for anyone who joins the American educational system without previous contact with it, as is the case with most Graduate Assistants and Teaching Assistants in Chinese in American Universities.

In these days of the expansion of Chinese language programs in the U.S., most new teachers of Chinese are native Chinese; many are new to this country and to the teaching methods used in the American school systems. For most, the education that they have received has been intended to fit them for life in their own country rather than life in a foreign country. This difference in training is more marked for Chinese teachers than for any other group of foreign language teachers. Many potential teachers lack the English proficiency necessary to maintain communication with students, colleagues, and administrators. China is geographically, ethnically, and socially much farther away from the 'Average American' than the familiar Western European who shares the cultural heritage of Greece, Rome, and the Roman Orient. The only real difference with the European is that he speaks a different language. His cultural presuppositions are much the same.

Some of the needs of both the native Chinese and native American teachers of Chinese are the same, and some different. Both need training in the development of modern, programmed teaching materials and the use of
teaching devices; and carefully controlled practice-teaching experience in teaching Chinese, practice which will be analyzed both for cultural content and for effectiveness. There is no body of training materials that is prepared specifically for teachers of the Chinese language, and the few teachers' manuals that accompany particular textbooks often assume that the teacher is already fully competent as a teacher.

For native Chinese, we will need to alter our requirements for the certification of potential teachers, as I have suggested previously, and prepare special curricula which will emphasize practice teaching and the development of specialized materials to be used in practice teaching.

We will have to recognize that because a considerable part of the educational time of the native Chinese is spent on learning to control the Chinese writing system, there will be similar demands on the time of the Americans who wish to be literate in Chinese. For the same amount of time spent in study, it is certain that the level of literacy that is to be expected from the native American who is a teacher of Chinese in a good high school system may very well be lower than the level of literacy acceptable for teachers of other languages in the same system. If administrators or policy-making bodies wish to make a requirement for a high level of literacy in Chinese, they may have to require a level of ability that is attained only after two to five more years of literacy training than that from other teachers of Western languages taught in the same system. Some compensations for the extra years of study should be planned.

Recommendations for Teacher Development

The choices that are available to us in making optimum use of our scarce teacher resources involve a mix of the following:

1) Training more Chinese language teachers to function effectively at several levels of the American educational system, from the high school on to post-graduate study.

2) Emphasizing the development of more self-teaching materials, or materials designed for individual instruction that can be used to supplement classroom activity. These are particularly important where classroom teachers may not be fully professional.
3) Developing a small number of centers devoted primarily to intensive language training, and to the training of language teachers.

4) Limiting enrollment for five years (1970-75) at the high school level and ten years (1970-80) at the college level, or perhaps longer, so that the teacher's time will be focussed on those students who are most likely, in our judgement, to have the ability and motivation to become teachers of Chinese language and literature, or will serve well as teachers and researchers in associate disciplines.

No matter which choices we make for the future the challenge will fall on the small group of teachers and scholars that is already overtaxed by growing enrollments in Chinese language classes. However, each of the four goals that I have listed above, teacher training, development of self-teaching materials, establishment of language training centers, and selective limitation of enrollment, suggests a selection of skills that are associated with competence in language teaching, but that may not be in such great demand, or that may be more readily acquired than the complex skills required for the teaching of Chinese language.

1) Thus, in attempting to train more teachers of Chinese language, we can draw on a considerable body of existing materials that have been designed to help the new teacher of Western languages --- materials that help develop good teaching techniques; that offer useful theoretical insights with descriptions of how they are applied to particular familiar teaching situations; that can help develop facility with audio-visual devices and their uses and limitations.

2) Similarly, in the development of self-instructional materials, there is a growing body of generalized literature on programmed learning and machine-aided instruction that can be interpreted by non-teaching research personnel. For example, a research or programming 'team' might be made up of:

a) A literate Chinese; one who might be disqualified from teaching by dialect, deficient training in English or lack of teaching experience, or even because he was too young or too old to take on classroom responsibilities,

b) a foreign-language teacher with considerable classroom experience, and
c) a programmer who has had experience with the programming of self-instructional materials.

By some chance more than one of these functions might be represented in a single person. In the interests of conservation of personnel, such a 'team' might be briefed by an experienced teacher of Chinese, or a professional linguist who had done some analytical work on Chinese, on the sources of difficulty for speakers of English who study Chinese, and the details of the goals that a program must be expected to satisfy. The same experienced teacher or linguist might direct the work of a number of such groups, each working on a different problem of grammar or comprehension, or on a single problem to be presented in more or less sophisticated ways for different groups of students. They might also prepare programmed introductions that would be useful in the training of teachers. The mastery of one or more romanization systems is a source of initial difficulty to the literate Chinese who is beginning to teach Chinese to speakers of English. The problems that a romanization system presents to the beginning teacher and the beginning student are entirely different, and a programmed introduction to any system of romanization would be a useful training tool.

3) In considering the establishment of centers devoted to language training here in the United States, it should be emphasized that they must serve the needs of a variety of institutions, and because of this need for service, that they should probably be administered by a consortium representing the institutions that they serve. They must be staffed by competent language teachers, perhaps recruited from the participating institutions. In some sense, the development of such centers should be looked on as a way to bring together a group of creative scholar-teachers so as to create a 'critical mass' of excellence in a few locations. These centers should also be charged with the training of teachers, and could commit themselves to maintain an atmosphere of creative, innovative teaching, and to continuing research on teaching techniques. Such centers could be modest in size and should be responsible for intensive language training throughout the academic year as well as during the summer, and should
be prepared to operate over the four levels: post-doctoral, graduate, college, and pre-college.

The Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC) of the 'Big Ten', which operates only Summer programs in Chinese, is an example of a kind of joint enterprise that could be developed to fill these functions.

4) Although good students are attracted by good teaching, and scholars develop themselves on the model of scholarship their teachers offer, it may be necessary to limit enrollment in Chinese classes to potentially successful students. Our techniques for recognizing the unsuccessful student are unnecessarily wasteful of teacher time. The development of more sophisticated language aptitude tests should be helpful, and would supplement the test-development skills that Chinese language teachers ordinarily lack. Specialists from other disciplines are working on the development of testing techniques to make use of our growing knowledge about symbol manipulation and pattern-recognition skill, and of the different kinds of analogic abilities. All of these have relevance to language learning aptitudes. Psycho-linguists like Lambert are developing testing instruments to predict responses in different kinds of language learning situations, and college admissions officers are doing follow-up studies of graduates to try to identify the kinds of students who are likely to serve society successfully in various professional roles. Researchers who are developing these testing techniques might be consulted to see if there is any way to hedge our bets in the training of students over the next decade or so.

Teaching and Reference Materials

In any discussion of manpower resources, it is almost impossible to discuss the people involved without also considering the resources generally available to them --- textbooks and language tapes or records, and local institutional resources; libraries and special research collections, language laboratory facilities, and taped programs prepared for specific teaching objectives that are not likely to be marketed commercially.

There are some difficulties of definition that result from the
diversity of aims in Chinese programs, but there is a large enough basis of agreement to describe some resource areas adequately. The best compact discussion of these problems that I know of has been written by Prof. Nicholas C. Bodman of Cornell in 1965, and I will preserve his comments in very nearly their original form with some updating and occasional deletions. He presents a list of materials to which he makes reference by item number. Here I have appended the list rather than included it in the text. Sometimes I have made some comments and additions. These additions are enclosed in square brackets.

"The bibliography appended here is a rather selective one, including only those texts that have proved successful with the oral-aural approach or those on reading which integrate well with this approach.

The oral-aural approach in its most usual form is well exemplified by Hockett's Spoken Chinese (No. 26) and DeFrancis's Beginning Chinese and Intermediate Chinese (Nos. 23 and 24) [and Advanced Chinese (No. 25)], all of which use the basic sentence method. Hockett's text is now rather old, having been developed for Army use during the Second World War. DeFrancis's books are up-to-date and include excellent drill material. Chao's Mandarin Primer (20a) differs somewhat in presenting longish monologues for the most part rather than dialogues. Additional drills and examples are presented in Pian's A Syllabus for Mandarin Primer (21). Chao's text is perhaps not so easy to teach as the others, but is noteworthy for its naturalness of language, wit and excellent analysis. It could be used to great advantage as a 'follow-up' text after any of the others, especially in programs where texts require complete or near-complete memorization of the basic sentences or passages. The Yale texts, Speak Chinese (No. 1) [Speak Mandarin (No. 27)], Chinese Dialogues (No. 3), and others, are examples of a somewhat different teaching philosophy. Rather than using basic sentences they stress acquisition of the basic construction types in basic patterns which are well exemplified and drilled upon, but do not require the degree of
memorization inherent in the basic sentence method. This Yale series of texts is long established, is well coordinated, and is probably more widely used than any of the others. The method of pattern sentences is well adapted to the learning of Chinese where the chief problems are the acquisition of the various syntactic patterns. These texts have been used when the goal is good spoken mastery or in more academically oriented programs where the goal is for less oral fluency than good comprehension and where the emphasis on reading grows in importance as time goes on."

"Probably the major problem in an elementary Chinese course is that of when to introduce the written component. It would be possible, of course, to devote two years purely to the study of the spoken language. If this were done, the student would really have an excellent foundation in speaking and the comprehension of spoken language which would be adequate for residence in a Chinese-speaking area. If this goal should be chosen, any of the introductory spoken language textbooks could be used initially (Nos.1, [or 27], 20a, 23 or 26 in the Bibliography). However, the books by Chao and Hockett have no spoken language sequels available for intermediate use. DeFrancis's text (No. 24) is now available and his 'Advanced Chinese' is [also available], so a two or three year sequence based on his textbook is possible. By far the most complete range of spoken instructional materials exist in the Yale Mirror Series. A recommended sequence here would be Nos. 1 [or 27] and 2 plus 3, 4, and 13 or 14 or both 13 and 14.

Generally, the student of Chinese is interested in learning to read Chinese, either for the intrinsic interest of the writings, or more usually as a tool for pursuing writings in Chinese relevant to a specific discipline in Graduate School. Because of the very difficult nature of the Chinese writing system, the student must spend a great deal of time learning characters which perforce reduces the amount of time left for study of the spoken language. In a typical two year program in Chinese, at least half the class hours are given over to reading. This means that the level of fluency in speech usually aimed at is considerably less than that for languages using
an alphabetic script, where reading is a relatively easy problem. Yet it is acknowledged generally that a fair speaking ability is prerequisite to taking up the writing system, otherwise reading would become a process of laborious character-by-character decipherment. Linguists recognize the priority of the spoken language over its symbolization in writing, and good pedagogues realize that it is poor teaching practice to introduce more than one learning problem at one time. Therefore, once the underlying spoken forms are learned, the later learning of the written symbolizations is just one more step, difficult as it is. In the early stages of learning characters at least it is simplest then to learn the written equivalent of spoken texts already learned. Parallel character texts exist for Chao (No. 20b in Bibliography) and DeFrancis (No. 23a [24a and 25a]). The Yale series readers (Nos. 7-10 and others) take up the study of characters systematically and only introduce forms already learned in their spoken language series, but the text of these books does not attempt to parallel that of the spoken language textbook sentence by sentence. Here should be mentioned also the fact that after a certain stage it is not necessarily an advantage to learn all the characters corresponding to morphemes in common spoken use, since many of these do not often occur in the kind of written materials that will be of most use and interest to the student. Reading texts such as those by DeFrancis (23b,[24b and 25b]) are organized on this basis as are some of the texts of the Yale series, notably 11, 12 and 14 for colloquially based writings, and 5 and 6 for newspaper readings.

Programs differ rather widely as to when the writing system is introduced and in the relative time devoted to speech and reading. It is recommended here that at least three or four weeks elapse before writing is commenced. With the written component, a possible program for the first year is:

a) For speech: One of the basic texts, 1 [or 27], [with or without] part of 3; or 20a; or 23; or 26.

b) For reading: 7, or 7 and part of 9, 10, and 12; 20b; or 23a (or 23b).
For the second year:

(a) Complete 8 if started previously or switch to 14 without doing 8.

(b) Follow any sequence not already done in the colloquially based writings, or go directly into newspaper with 5 and 6.

Due to appear shortly [now available as Intermediate Reader in Modern Chinese in 3 vols. Ithaca, Cornell University Press. 1967. $12.00] is the Modern Chinese Reader by Harriet Mills, which contains selections on modern social science subjects. It is planned for use during the second and third years of instruction and can be used in conjunction with or as a supplement to newspaper selections.

Note that most programs do not give formal instruction in the varied script styles; however, 17 is an excellent introduction to cursive handwriting. When newspaper instruction is given with actual Mainland Chinese papers, the simplified characters must be learned as encountered. Textbook 6 gives simplified character forms commonly encountered in Mainland newspapers and is the only learning aid presently available outside of lists and conversion tables.

There are a number of texts available on various of the non-Mandarin 'dialects' that are suitable for use, but are not listed here because it is believed that all programs should start with the standard language. At present, study of such forms as Cantonese and Amoy is limited to a very few of the larger universities.

Toward the end of the two or three years of study that have been outlined in Bodman's summary, the student will no longer be working with textbooks, and will be expected to make use of an increasingly wider variety of Chinese sources. For these he will have to depend on a wider variety of reference works than the Dictionary of Spoken Chinese (No. 19). He should also have used the less comprehensive but elegantly organized Concise Dictionary of Spoken Chinese (No. 28), and will have consulted Chao's comprehensive reference grammar, A Grammar of Spoken Chinese (No. 35, forthcoming). By this time he will know enough Chinese to be able to take advantage of the reinforcement to learning the writing system that is offered by the Chinese-Chinese dictionaries, and will have learned, or at
least become familiar with, more than one transcription system for Chinese, and perhaps more than one system for arranging Chinese characters in Chinese dictionaries. He will probably want to know the amazingly compact but comprehensive dictionary arranged according to the Four-Corner System, the Wang Yün-wu Tsung-ho Ts'e-tien (No. 29), and if his work is in earlier periods of Chinese will probably also want the Tz'u Hai (No. 30), which is written in a slightly more literary style, but gives full citation of sources. George A. Kennedy has prepared an informative and often amusing guide to the Tz'u Hai entitled ZH Guide, An Introduction to Sinology (No. 31). An excellent four-volume desk dictionary that is the authority for the pronunciation of Standard Mandarin is the Kuo Yü Tz'u Tien (No. 32).

There is no single dictionary that is fully adequate for students beyond their first year or two of language study who wish to translate Chinese materials into English. The preparation of yet another dictionary at this time is an unwise use of talent. The Giles Chinese-English Dictionary (No. 33) will be found useful for both classics and documentary style, and the Chinese-English Dictionary of Modern Communist Usage (No. 34) particularly useful for modern documents, especially those from Mainland China.

Taped Materials

Although the references indicate that tapes are available for some of these texts, it is in the preparation of taped lesson materials that the primitive state of Chinese language teaching becomes obvious. The taped programs presently available for the teaching of spoken Chinese are unsophisticated and of low technical quality. We need new ones. There are a number of reasons for this:

1) There are only a few teachers of Chinese who have the background and technical facility to prepare fully integrated programs in which taped exercises have a full teaching role.

2) There is a wide range of valid program goals which affect the time allocated to the separate skills of literacy and fluency.

3) The preparation of scripts for special exercises has frequently been assigned to careless or overworked teachers who did not understand the
potential utility of their contribution.

4) We in Chinese are just beginning to understand the value of concordancing techniques for vocabulary control and the control of grammatical density in the preparation of textbooks and supplementary exercises for textbooks.

5) Commercial publishers have come to recognize that they are expected by textbook buyers to supply (often minimally adequate) taped programs to supplement their textbooks. They expect to take a financial loss in the preparation of these supplementary materials. Texts for learning Chinese are nearly all supplied by university presses which are not prepared to sustain such losses on such a small sales volume.

The available tapes are for the most part unspecialized. They are recordings of the text of a particular textbook with no directions for using the tapes, no pauses for student imitation, and no confirming responses or other internal indication of how they might be used. These tapes can only be regarded as raw material for the skillful teacher to use in preparing language laboratory drills; and are not to be used without editing, selection, duplication or other adoption. Some few tapes, such as those prepared for the training of radio monitors, are so highly specialized that they are unsuitable for use in any other programs.

Many of the tapes now available were prepared before the professional recording equipment necessary for good fidelity was widely used, and as a result of this (and perhaps of poor copying techniques as well) most of them are represented by poor, garbled, low-fidelity copies.

Needs

A major need for the support and development of existing Chinese language programs is the development of a variety of carefully conceived and technically excellent language tapes that are integrated with classroom instruction.

Movies are often highly spoken of as important, but under-utilized teaching aids. Potentially, they offer an unusually good way to present real language spoken at normal speed in a range of culturally correct contexts. Movies on China in Mandarin are available from a number of distributors in the United States, some on free loan. They are 'under-
utilized' often because in most schools arrangements for showing movies are relatively inconvenient, sometimes requiring the teacher to make reservations long in advance, but partly because of the bulk and complexity of much of the movie projection equipment required. It is worth noting that most foreign language teachers, including Chinese language teachers, do not know how to use movie projection equipment well.

A more serious objection is that literacy training operates to the detriment of fluency and almost assures that a student with only two years of Chinese will not be able to understand the sound track of a movie made for a Chinese audience, and much of the effectiveness is lost.

One of the simple ways to adapt the film for the student's level of comprehension is to suppress the sound track of the film and play a coordinated recording of a simplified narrative that explains the action on the screen. This has been done only rarely, primarily because the films are loaned or rented rather than owned by the schools. Where they are owned, careful and time-consuming preparation of a film script for study outside the classroom is a good choice. Some excellent examples are the filmscripts for Wu Feng and Bisywe Hwangha prepared by Eugene Ching of the Ohio State University. These are accompanied by an introductory essay, with script in romanization and Chinese characters.

Overhead Projector

Another device that is more and more frequently used in the classroom is the overhead projector. It is easier to adapt to the classroom methods of individual teachers than is the movie projector; it is less bulky, and is inexpensive enough so that there is likely to be one readily available to the language teacher. Unfortunately, where there is a need to transfer written Chinese onto a transparency for more permanent use, there is often a need for other auxiliary equipment that may not be available in a smaller school: Thermofax and Xerox machines. The materials that might be adapted for use with the overhead projector are many, but again, there is so much diversity in program aims that this presentation technique is still under-utilized. Individual teachers are still not fully comfortable with the new media, and the sale of Chinese texts is still limited so that the high-overhead university presses do not feel they can afford the expense of
preparing these 'frills'. Well-planned and carefully executed sets of transparancies designed to accompany some widely-used texts would contribute considerably to Chinese language teaching skills in America.

Institutional Resources

In addition to the textbooks, reference works and language tapes that are generally available, some of the more important resources for the study of Chinese language and literature in America are those institutional resources 1) shared by the community of scholars throughout the country, and 2) that bring greatest benefit to particular regions of the country, or 3) resources of individual institutions that are particularly important to the Chinese language programs conducted there.

The most important of these resources is the totality of library holdings in Chinese language and literature in the United States and Canada; a total of 2,734,820 volumes (June, 1967). While there is obvious reason to consider each of the large collections of Oriental books as the holdings of a single institution, there is also good reason, as a result of the unique pattern of interlibrary activity, and the service orientation that characterizes American librarianship, to consider libraries as regional and national resources as well.

In June 1967 there were only 24 libraries in America with holdings of more than 25,000 volumes in Chinese. They are listed with their geographical location and the holdings of volumes in thousands.
### HOLDINGS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIES WITH OVER 25,000 VOLUMES IN CHINESE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Holdings to Nearest Thousand</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Library of Congress</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Harvard</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Princeton</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>California (Berkeley)</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>California (Los Angeles)</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Cornell</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Yale</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Washington (Seattle)</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>British Columbia</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Hoover</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Univ. Michigan (Ann Arbor)</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Toronto</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Claremont</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Brown</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Pittsburgh</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** 2,479

The remaining 256,000 volumes are spread throughout thirty other libraries.
All of the resources of the interlibrary loan and other cooperative facilities are important tools for the scholar whose skills are already developed, but the maintenance of these facilities is too expensive to indulge mere browsing. To make good use of the full resources of the nation in his own research, a scholar must first know which works he really needs.

For the developing younger scholar, who has not yet achieved control over the potential of the interlibrary loan system, or who may not be sure just what he wants, physical proximity to major collections will in itself constitute a major resource. He can visit a major collection and browse through a variety of materials that he knows from bibliographies and citations in his reading and decide which materials he will need to have loaned to his home library, and which should be duplicated for his own permanent collection.

For the student who is still not fully able to use the resources of a Chinese collection, the difficulties are serious, and he is almost completely dependent on his teachers, and particularly on the Librarian of the Chinese collection where he studies.

Librarians

Just as competent teachers of Chinese are getting more scarce and more overworked, so too are competent librarians in Chinese collections working at the limits of their capabilities. The personnel shortage here is perhaps less noticeable than the shortage of language teachers, but just as critical. Very few of the librarians who have responsibility for the development of Chinese collections have been trained for the level of responsibility they have been forced to assume. Some good Chinese libraries have been developed almost solely on the basis of the excellent series of reprints distributed by the Chinese Materials and Research Aids Service Center, directed by Robert Irick, and supported by the Association for Asian Studies. However, there is a real danger that the next generation of students will not have the talents of well-trained bibliographers to introduce them to specialized sources, and to maintain the collections as permanent assets.

The Library of Congress and a few other great institutional libraries
have succeeded in mediating the long tradition of oriental bibliographic scholarship so as to make it serve modern Western scholars. This has been accomplished almost solely through the efforts of a few dedicated professional librarians.

But this accommodation has not gone nearly far enough. We are not participating enough in the programs for library improvement that are already partially sponsored by federal funds. As Warren Tsuneishi has pointed out recently:

1) Chinese collections do not yet benefit from the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NPAC) which establishes overseas offices that work closely with bookdealers and national bibliographies and provides both books and catalog copy to the Library of Congress;

2) there has been no effective effort to get the ten-year backlog of locally cataloged titles of Chinese sources reported on Library of Congress printed cards so as to assure their inclusion in the National Union Catalog; and

3) there are still substantial gaps in the National Register of Microform Masters of Chinese materials.

It is important for us to plan now for the problems the libraries will have to face. Chinese collections in America are not yet staffed to take the next steps into full service that the scholars of the nation will need for efficient searches into an increasingly diverse range of available resources. These are the steps into 1) systematic analysis and annotation of the content of books and articles, and 2) the development of techniques for information retrieval for scholars who themselves lack bibliographic resources and techniques. Scholars, librarians, and scholar-librarians in Chinese need to develop a structure that will offer ready access to the range of philosophical, logical, and mathematical talent that is required to move more adequately into bibliographic information-retrieval techniques. Suitable preliminary models are: Key Word In Context (KWIC), the Human Relations Area Files Social Science Bibliographic Systems, the Xerox Corporation's DATRIX, and the proposed National Serials Data Program, now under study. It would be a mistake to wait for the development of optical read-in devices, or the fuller exploitation of coding systems such
as that developed by Prof. Carl Leban, or similar input techniques before going on with development of bibliographic controls.

Chinese librarianship has developed rapidly over the past two decades, but does not yet have the personnel or resources either to reduce the backlog of work, or to participate in the ongoing projects for bibliographic controls that will keep us up to date. Chinese librarians are still less able to get far enough ahead of the job to be sure that they will be able to help tomorrow's scholar even as much as they help today's.

**Language Laboratories**

In considering institutional resources, the language laboratory must be considered as separate from the taped language program which it transmits to the student because it is the plan for the language laboratory and its functions that puts a ceiling on its effectiveness for teaching. Some types of language laboratories are designed with such a low frequency response that the distinctions in certain sounds cannot be transmitted (for example, exercises designed to distinguish sounds like the initial sounds in English "sin" and "thin" may not be used with such laboratories). The circuitry in others is so designed that there is no opportunity for a teacher to listen to a student's response and make appropriate corrections. This leaves no way for the teacher to help. Chinese language teachers share with their colleagues in language teaching the responsibility for defining the teaching task that a complex machine such as a language laboratory must perform, and then preparing specifications for the manufacturer. Too often we have been so far behind in our teaching techniques as to allow purchasing agents and salesmen to saddle us with equipment that limits our teaching potential.

**Overseas Language Centers**

There are four centers for Chinese language instruction in Taiwan and Hong Kong that we make such broad use of that they must be considered as national assets. They are:

1) The Inter-University Center, directed from Stanford University,
2) the Taiwan Language Institute, directed by a group of representatives from Protestant missionary groups,
3) the Chabanal Language Institute, directed by a group of Jesuits, and
4) The New Asia Yale-in-China Language Center in Hong Kong, affiliated with both New Asia College, and Yale-in-China.

All of these institutions train their own teachers, and prepare a variety of specialized materials for the use of their own students. They offer the invaluable experience of regular formal language instruction conducted in Chinese surroundings.

American universities send students to one or more of these institutions, but transporting a student (and sometimes his or her family) to one of these institutions, and maintaining him there for the length of time necessary for acculturation so that the student can begin to learn Chinese productively is an expensive undertaking. This opportunity is rarely available to the unsponsored student, but sponsorship is usually reserved only for the committed graduate student who has demonstrated that he has the ability to learn Chinese and has at the same time proven his competence in an academic discipline.

These institutions are staffed by full and part-time language teachers who are usually a little less well-qualified and a little less skillful as teachers than their colleagues in America. There are two reasons for this lower level of skill:
1) The best of these teachers are regularly invited to take up teaching posts in America. We skim the cream.
2) The teachers in the Orient are out of touch with advances in teaching technology.

A situation is developing in which teachers with a lower level of skills are working with our most promising students at a time when the students have their most significant exposure to Chinese culture.

We do ourselves a permanent disservice by not helping to upgrade the staffs of these overseas institutions on which we depend both for future staffing needs and present teaching capabilities. Enlightened self-interest requires that we encourage temporary interchange of teaching personnel so as to help the teachers in overseas institutions to greater competence.
SELECTED LIST OF MATERIALS
FOR CHINESE

(The basic patterns of Peking colloquial speech are systematically presented with abundant illustrative sentences and dialogues within a vocabulary of 500 words. The stress on model sentences is further enhanced by generalized structural patterns and grammatical notes. A complete revision with students' workbook and teachers' manual has been completed.) [For this revision, see item 27.]

(Explanation of the pronunciation of romanized Chinese, and the tonal system, with extensive drill exercises.)

(This series of dialogues in daily life situations reviews in new settings the basic patterns of speech met in Speak Chinese and extends their use. The 500-word vocabulary of Speak Chinese is assumed, and 800 new words are added.)

(The physiography and economy of China are treated in simple conversational style, providing materials for classroom conversation at a more advanced level than Chinese Dialogues, and introducing an additional vocabulary of 700 words and many common place names.)

(These two volumes of annotated selections from Chinese newspaper materials provide a graduated approach to reading the undiluted newspaper. Selections illustrate the traditional style and the more colloquial style now used on
the mainland.)

(Covers the first 300 characters, using them first in sentences and then in stories for assimilative reading.)
FLASH CARDS to aid in the learning of the first 300 characters. 2x2 inches. $1.00.

(300 additional characters, to a total of 600, are worked into narrative reading materials.)

(400 more characters, to a grand total of 1000 including expository as well as narrative selections.)

Tapes from IFEL.
(A well-known folktale has been retold within the narrow limits of a 300-character vocabulary, to be used after Lesson 15 or following the completion of *Read Chinese, Book I.* 48-line drawings illustrate the story.)

(A supplementary reader to follow *Read Chinese, Book III.* Twelve lectures on the Chinese social structure, language and linguistics, economics, government and politics, history and literature.)

(A supplementary reader at the 600-character level, describing Chinese culture and customs.)
13. Fenn, Henry C. *A Sketch of Chinese History*. (Mirror Series A-10)  
   New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1952. 183 pp. $3.00. (History)  
   (This elementary narrative of China's story from early times to the 19th century is planned to introduce the social studies vocabulary needed to begin talking about current events.)

   New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1952. 99 pp. $1.50. (History)  
   (A transcription of the text of A-10 into characters, prepared for supplementary reading at the 1000-character level.)

   2 volumes. New Haven: Yale University, 1967. 304 pp.; 400 pp. each, cloth $6.00; paper cover $2.75.  
   Vol. 1: Test and vocabulary in romanized and character versions.  
   Vol. 2: Supplementary exercises and drills.

The following six listings are reference materials in the Yale Series.

   New Haven: Yale University, 1963. 270 pp. $3.50. (Newspapers)  
   (A completely revised edition of the original version published in 1953. The most important new feature is that all the Chinese items to be included in the book appear first of all in a general list or glossary arranged according to a convenient system of stroke counting and stroke order.)

   (Characters which appear similar to the beginner are so grouped that they may be easily compared and distinctions noted.)

17. Wang, Fred. *Introduction to Chinese Cursive Script*. (Mirror Series A-28) New Haven: Yale University, IFEL, 1958. 270 pp. $5.00 (Writing system)  
   (The first 300 characters introduced in *Read Chinese*, written in cursive form, have been analyzed and presented systematically to teach the student an approach which he may apply to other characters. Two-color process makes the key components of a cursive character stand out. Flash cards are available to accompany this text, giving the standard form on one side of the card and the cursive on the other.)

(English-Chinese vocabulary of approximately 5000 words; Chinese-English vocabulary of approximately 4000 terms. Characters are given for identification purposes in the Chinese-English section.)


(Compiled by the staff of Yale's Institute of Far Eastern Languages under a contract with the U. S. Office of Education, this new dictionary is a lexical and grammatical guide to the modern Chinese spoken. It stresses identification of the grammatical and syntactic functions of the words listed, which it indicates both with identifying symbols and sentence-length examples. Because of these features, and thanks to its coverage of the modern spoken language, it will be a major tool for advancing the learning of Chinese in this country. It will include some 10,000 entries, with examples of usage, and will be the first such aid published since the smaller War Department dictionary of 1945, of which it is the authorized revision and expansion. Entries include both romanization and Chinese characters, making it possible for the work to serve the student well into his study of written colloquial texts. The Yale romanization of Chinese is used with cross-reference making it possible also to locate forms directly using the official Mainland romanization.)

[Other reference works are added at the end of the textbook listings]


(Reader)

(Planned by the same author: Readings in Spoken Chinese. Recordings from Linguaphone.)


(An introduction to spoken Chinese (Peking dialect) designed for use at
both the high school and college levels. An extensive section on the sounds of Chinese is followed by a series of twenty-four lessons, some devoted to review. Based on a vocabulary of about 600 items, the lessons include dialogues, a great variety of drill material on pronunciation and grammar, and extensive notes and explanations. The Chinese material is given in the pinyin romanization, with an introduction to Chinese characters in lessons 25-26. Appendices include a comparative transcription table (pinyin, Yale, Wade-Giles) supplementary vocabulary, a study guide, a glossary, and an index.)


(A character version of the author's Beginning Chinese (Yale Linguistic Series, 1), which presents the same material in the pinyin romanization. The text contains 494 characters, from nineteen to thirty-three characters per lesson. The new characters occurring in each lesson are first presented in large size, then in smaller size. Also included are a stroke order chart and other summary charts of characters.)


[Closely correlated with the author's Beginning Chinese and Character Text for Beginning Chinese, this reader is based on a new approach which not only takes into account the advantages of the oral-aural method but gets the student more quickly into material that he is likely to encounter in actual written Chinese. Unique features are the emphasis on compounds and their extensive use in various types of exercises. The 1,200 combinations are based on 403 characters; in all, the book contains 120,000 characters of running text. Exercises include illustrative sentences with English translations, dialogues, narratives, typical everyday reading matter, and brief passages from outstanding literary works. There are supplementary lessons in simplified characters; summary charts, in which the characters are arranged by lesson, number of strokes, and radical; and a complete pinyin index.]
(A continuation of the author's *Beginning Chinese.* This volume, like its predecessor, deals with spoken Chinese and is intended for use at both the high school and college levels. The book presents dialogues on everyday topics together with analysis of anticipated points of difficulty for the student and numerous sentences illustrating the usage of all new words and grammar. The Chinese material is given in the *pin yin* romanization. The work was developed under the contract with the U. S. Office of Education. Accompanying tape recordings and a teacher’s manual available from the Institute of Far Eastern Studies, Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey.)

[A parallel character version of *Intermediate Chinese.*]

[A sequel to *Beginning Chinese Reader,* this work is closely correlated with the author's *Beginning Chinese,* *Advanced Chinese,* and the character versions of these two texts. It contains 400 new characters, some 2,500 compounds, and about 200,000 characters of running text. All compounds appear in illustrative sentences, in dialogues, and in narrative or expository form. Supplementary lessons, summary charts, indexes, and other aids follow the general pattern of those in *Beginning Chinese Reader.*]

[Designed to be used after either *Beginning* or *Intermediate Chinese,* this work is based on recordings of twenty lectures on academic topics in *pin yin* romanization. The new material in each of the twenty main lessons is presented in illustrative sentences and dialogues between student and teacher. Additional material includes grammar drills, review exercises,
questions, recapitulations of the lectures, and notes, plus 45 illustrations, a combined glossary, and an index.]


[This character version of Advanced Chinese contains also pinyin transcriptions of infrequently used characters at each occurrence.]

25b. DeFrancis, John. **Advanced Chinese Reader.** [Forthcoming.]


[Following are addenda to Bodman's excellent list. For the titles in Chinese, sometimes no edition or printing is listed, because these works exist in a number of editions and printings on different quality papers, and a range of prices is given because they vary so widely from dealer to dealer.]


[A thorough and expanded revision of Speak Chinese (1948), following two decades of classroom use. The twenty-four lessons of the earlier text have been regrouped into twenty, with the original vocabulary of 750 items increased to 850. In addition, a Student's Workbook, containing supplementary exercises, and a Teacher's Manual have been appended.]

[This dictionary is arranged according to the Chinese radical system but has an alphabetic index to the characters, and conversion tables from Wade-Giles to National Romanization. An elegant and concise system of annotation of entries gives data on grammatical function, stylistic class, and the pronunciation in non-Mandarin dialects. There is an excellent introduction to Chinese National Romanization and the pronunciation of Chinese.]


[This amazingly compact dictionary of characters and phrases is arranged according to the Four-Corner system developed by Mr. Wang. Pronunciation is indicated in the National Romanization, in the National Phonetic Script, and by the inclusion of an homonymous character. The definitions, both for single characters and for compounds are clear, compact and simply written. For users not familiar with the Four-Corner system, there is an index at the back arranged according to total stroke count.]

30. Shu Hsin-Ch'eng, comp. *Tz'u Hai*. Orig. Pub. Shanghai: Chung Hua Book Co., 1937. Now available in a variety of editions and paginations from U. S. $15.00 to $100.00.

[This dictionary is arranged according to the traditional radical system. Entries for both single characters and phrases are full, but written in a semi-literary style. Citation and quotation of sources is an excellent feature of this dictionary.]


[This is a carefully developed informative and often amusing introduction to the *Tz'u Hai* (and to other Sinological literature along the way). Every serious student of pre-modern Chinese should expect to be familiar with its contents.]

32. *Kuo-yü Ts'e-tien*. Compiled by a special commission under the auspices of the Ministry of Education of the Chinese Government. Compilers preface dated 1943. Shanghai and Taipei: Commercial Press. Various bindings and paginations. $15.00 - $25.00
[This is an excellent desk dictionary that is the accepted reference for the pronunciation of Standard Mandarin. Pronunciation is indicated in National Romanization and National Phonetic Symbols. The definitions are simply written in good vernacular style, and sources are listed, many from vernacular literature, but without the extensive quotation of sources. There is an index arranged according to the Phonetic symbols, and one arranged according to the radical system. There are also lists of terms from western languages and Sanskrit with Chinese transliterations, chemical elements, measurements, Chinese emperors (with reign titles), and a western calendar.]


[An encyclopedic dictionary arranged alphabetically according to the Wade-Giles romanization, for which it is the standard. Translations for diplomatic terms for the Ch'ing period are also standard. Gives a variety of botanical names, rhyme characters and information on non-Mandarin pronunciation. Appendices include family names, tables of the Chinese dynasties (with reign titles), calendrical tables, and a radical index.]


[This is a translation of a Chinese-German dictionary prepared in 1959 by the German Department of the Peking Institute of Foreign Languages, and published by Xerography, preserving the original form and sequence of the abbreviated Chinese characters. It is arranged according to the pinyin system of romanization, but appends an index arranged according to radicals and strokes and includes a chronological table of the Chinese dynasties, a list of the transliterations of the names of non-Chinese place names and their capitals, a table of chemical elements, and a comprehensive conversion table for the Wade-Giles system. This is an invaluable source for standard translations of items in modern Mainland usage.]
(This is the long-awaited definitive reference grammar of spoken Chinese.)

Notes
2. Ibid., pp. 21-23.
4. Ibid., pp. 92,3.