Click to prove you're human

Branch of Sino-Tibetan languages Not to be confused with Semitic languages. For the sociolinguistic treatment of Chinese, see Varieties of Chinese. For other languages spoken in China, see Languages of China. SiniticChineseGeographicdistributionEast Asia, Southeast Asia, Central Asia, North AsiaEthnicitySinitic peoplesLinguistic classificationSino-TibetanSiniticProto-languageProto-SiniticSubdivisions Chinese Macro-Bai (?) Language codesISO 639-5zhxGlottologsini1245 (Sinitic)macr1275 (Macro-Bai)Map of Sinitic languages in China The Sinitic languages[a] (simplified Chinese: 汉语族; traditional Chinese: 漢語族; pinyin: Hànyǔ zú), often synonymous with the Chinese languages, are a group of East Asian analytic languages that constitute a major branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family. It is frequently proposed that there is a primary split between the Sinitic languages and the rest of the family (the Tibeto-Burman languages). This view is rejected by some researchers[4] but has found phylogenetic support among others.[5][6] The Macro-Bai languages, whose classification is difficult, may be an offshoot of Old Chinese and thus Sinitic;[7] otherwise, Sinitic is defined only by the many varieties of Chinese unified by a shared historical background, and usage of the term "Sinitic" may reflect the linguistic view that Chinese constitutes a family of distinct languages, rather than variants of a single language.[b] Over 91% of the Chinese population speaks a Sinitic language, of whom about three-quarters speak a Mandarin variety.[9] Estimates of the number of global speakers of Sinitic branches as of 2018–2019, both native and non-native, are listed below:[10] Note that the numbers are uncertain due to uncertainty in the population estimates of China. Branch Speakers pct. Mandarin 1,118,584,040 73.50% Yue 85,576,570 5.62% Wu 81,817,790 5.38% Min 75,633,810 4.97% Jin 47,100,000 3.09% Hakka 44,065,190 2.90% Xiang 37,400,000 2.46% Gan 22,200,000 1.46% Huizhou 5,380,000 0.35% Pinghua 4,130,000 0.27% Dungan 56,300 0.004% Total 1,521,943,700 100% Further information: List of varieties of Chinese L1 speakers of Chinese and other Sino-Tibetan languages according to Ethnologue Dialectologist Jerry Norman estimated that there are hundreds of mutually unintelligible Sinitic languages.[11] They form a dialect continuum in which differences generally become more pronounced as distances increase, though there are also some sharp boundaries.[12] The Sinitic languages can be divided into Macro-Bai languages and Chinese languages, and the following is one of many potential ways of subdividing these languages. Some varieties, such as Shaozhou Tuhua, are hard to classify and thus are not included in the following briefs. This is a language family first proposed by linguist Zhengzhang Shangfang,[13] and was expanded to include Longjia and Luren.[14][15] It likely split off from the rest of Sinitic during the Old Chinese period.[16] The languages included are all considered minority languages in China and are spoken in the Southwest.[17][18] The languages are: Bai Cai-Long: Caijia, Longjia†, Luren† All other Sinitic languages henceforth would be considered Chinese. The Chinese branch of the family is classified into at least seven main families. These families are classified based on five main evolutionary criteria:[9] The evolution of the historical fully muddy (全浊; 全濁; quánzhuó) initials The distribution of rimes across the four tone qualities, as conditioned by voicing and aspiration of initials The evolution of the checked (入; rù) tone category The loss or retention of coda position plosives and nasals The palatalisation of the jiàn initial (見母; jiànmǔ) in front of high vowels The varieties within one family may not be mutually intelligible with each other. For instance, Wenzhounese and Ningbonese are not highly mutually intelligible. The Language Atlas of China identifies ten groups:[19] Mandarin Jin Yue Hakka Min Wu Hui Gan Xiang Pinghua and Tuhua with Jin, Hui, Pinghua, and Tuhua not part of the seven traditional groups. Varieties of Mandarin are used in the Western Regions, the Southwest, Huguang, Inner Mongolia, Central Plains and the Northeast,[19] by around three-quarters of the Sinitic-speaking population.[10] Historically, the prestige variety has always been Mandarin, which is still reflected today in Standard Chinese.[20] Standard Chinese is now an official language of the Republic of China, People's Republic of China, Singapore and United Nations.[9] Re-population efforts, such as that of the Qing dynasty in the Southwest, tended to involve Mandarin speakers.[21] Classification of Mandarin lects has undergone several significant changes, though nowadays it is commonly divided as such, based on the distribution of the historical checked tone:[19] Northeastern Beijing (sometimes considered part of Northeastern)[22][23] Jiaoliao (sometimes "Peninsular") Jilu (sometimes "Northern") Central Plains (or "Zhongyuan") Lanyin (sometimes "Northwestern" and considered part of Central Plains) Jin (often considered a top-level group due to the Language Atlas of China) Southwestern (sometimes "Upper Yangtse") Jianghuai (or "Lower Yangtze", sometimes "Huai", "Southern" or "Southeastern")[20] as well as other lects, which do not neatly fall into these categories, such as Mandarin Junhua varieties. Varieties of Mandarin can be defined by their universally lost -m final, low number of tones, and smaller inventory of classifiers, among other features. Mandarin lects also often have rhotic erhua rimes, though the amount of its use may vary between lects.[9] Loss of checked tone is an often cited criterion for Mandarin languages, though lects such as Yangzhounese and Taiyuannese show otherwise. Mandarin Non-Mandarin Gloss Beijing Jinan Zhengzhou Xi'an Taiyuan Chengdu Nanjing Guangzhou Meizhou Xiamen Anyi 音 in iẽ iən iẽ iəŋ in in iɐm im im im 'sound' 心 ɕin ɕiẽ siən ɕiẽ ɕiəŋ ɕin sin sɐm sim sim ɕim 'heart' Northeastern Mandarin is spoken in Heilongjiang, Jilin, most of Liaoning and northeastern Inner Mongolia, whereas Beijing Mandarin is spoken in northern Hebei, most of Beijing, parts of Tianjin and Inner Mongolia.[19] The two families' most notable features are the heavy use of rhotic erhua and seemingly random distribution of the dark checked tone, and generally having four tones with the contours of high flat, rising, dipping, and falling. Tone contour of historically dark checked tone (陰入) characters Northeastern/Beijing Other Gloss Harbin Changchun Shenyang Beijing Heyuan Chaozhou Suzhou Hefei Wuhan 客 ˨˩˦ ˥˦ ˨˩˦ ˥˦ ˥ ˨˩ ˥˥ ˥ ˨˩˦ 'guest' 八 ˦˦ ˦˦ ˦˦ ˥˥ ˥ ˨˩ ˥˥ ˥ ˨˩˦ 'eight' 北 ˨˩˦ ˨˩˦ ˨˩˦ ˨˩˦ ˥ ˨˩ ˥˥ ˥ ˨˩˦ 'north' Northeastern Mandarin, especially in Heilongjiang, contains many loanwords from Russian.[24] Term Pronunciation Meaning Origin 卜留克 bǔliúkè 'rutabaga' брюква bryukva 馬神 mǎshén 'machine' машина mashina 巴籬子 bālízi 'jail' полиция politsiya Northeastern Mandarin lects can be divided into three main groups, namely Hafu (including Harbinnese and Changchunnese), Jishen (including Jilinnese and Shenyangnese), and Heisong. Notably, the extinct Taz language of Russia is also a Northeastern Mandarin language. Beijing is sometimes included in Northeastern Mandarin due to its distribution of the historical dark checked tone,[22][23] though is listed as its own group by others, often due to its more regular light checked tones.[19] Jilu Mandarin is spoken in southern Hebei and western Shandong,[19] and is often represented with Jinannese.[25] Notable cities that use Jilu Mandarin lects include Cangzhou, Shijiazhuang, Jinan and Baoding.[26][27] Characteristically Jilu Mandarin features include merging the dark checked into the dark level tone, the light checked into light level or departing based on the manner of articulation of the initial, and vowel breaking in tong rime series' (通攝) checked-tone words, among other features. Jilu Mandarin can be classified into Baotang, Shiji, Canghui and Zhangli.[28] Zhangli is of note due to its preservation of a separate checked tone. Distribution of Jiaoliao Mandarin varieties Jiaoliao Mandarin is spoken in the Jiaodong and Liaodong Peninsulae, which includes the cities of Dalian and Qingdao, as well as several prefectures along the China-Korea border.[19] Like Jilu Mandarin, its light checked tone is merged into light level or departing based on the manner of articulation of the initial, though its dark checked is merged into the rising. Its rì initial (日母) terms are pronounced with a null initial (apart from open zhǐ rime series (止攝開口) finals), unlike the /ʐ/ of Northern and Beijing Mandarin.[29] Based on, for example, the pronunciation of the palatalized jiàn initial (見母),[19] Jiaoliao Mandarin can be divided into Qingzhou, Denglian and Gaihuan areas.[28] Yantai Weihai Qingdao Dalian Gloss 交 ciau ciau tɕiɔ tɕiɔ 'to hand in' 見 cian cian tɕiã tɕiɛ̃ 'to see' Central Plains Mandarin is spoken in the Central Plains of Henan, southwestern Shanxi, southern Shandong and northern Jiangsu, as well as most of Shaanxi, southern Ningxia and Gansu and southern Xinjiang, in famous cities such as Kaifeng, Zhengzhou, Luoyang, Xuzhou, Xi'an, Xining and Lanzhou.[30][31][32] Central Plains Mandarin lects merge the historical checked tones with a lesser muddy (次濁) and clear (清) initial together with the rising tone, and those with a fully muddy (全濁) initial are merged with the light level tone.[19] Lanyin Mandarin, spoken in northern Ningxia, parts of Gansu, and northern Xinjiang, is sometimes grouped with Central Plains Mandarin due to its merged lesser light and dark checked tones, though it is realised as a departing tone. Subdivision of Central Plains Mandarin is not fully agreed upon, though one possible subdivision sees 13 divisions, namely Xuhuai, Zhengkai, Luosong, Nanlu, Yanhe, Shangfu, Xinbeng, Luoxiang, Fenhe, Guanzhong, Qinlong, Longzhong and Nanjiang.[33] Lanyin Mandarin, on the other hand, is divided as Jincheng, Yinwu, Hexi, and Beijiang. The Dungan language is a collection of Central Plains Mandarin varieties spoken in the former Soviet Union. Distribution of Jin varieties Jin is spoken in most of Shanxi, western Hebei, northern Shaanxi, northern Henan and central Inner Mongolia,[19] often represented by Taiyuannese.[25] It was first proposed as a lect separate from the rest of Mandarin by Li Rong, where it was proposed as lects in and around Shanxi with a checked tone, though this stance is not without disagreement.[34][35] Jin varieties also often has disyllabic words derived from syllable splitting (分音詞), through the infixation of /(u)əʔ l/.[9] 笨pəŋᵓ→薄pəʔ˳愣ləŋᵓ笨 {} 薄 愣pəŋᵓ → pəʔ˳ ləŋᵓ'stupid' 滾ᶜkʊŋ→骨kuəʔ˳攏ᶜlʊŋ滾 {} 骨 攏ᶜkʊŋ → kuəʔ˳ ᶜlʊŋ'to roll' As per the Language Atlas by Li, Jin is divided into Dabao, Zhanghu, Wutai, Lüliang, Bingzhou, Shangdang, Hanxin, and Zhiyan branches.[19] Spoken in Yunnan, Guizhou, northern Guangxi, most of Sichuan, southern Gansu and Shaanxi, Chongqing, most of Hubei and bordering parts of Hunan, as well as Kokang of Myanmar and parts of northern Thailand, Southwestern Mandarin speakers take up the most area and population of all Mandarinic language groups, and would be the eighth most spoken language in the world if separated from the rest of Mandarin.[19] Southwestern Mandarinic tends to not have retroflex consonants, and merges all checked tone categories together. Except for Minchi, which has a standalone checked category, the checked tone is merged with another category. Representative lects include Wuhannese and Sichuanese, and sometimes Kunmingnese.[25] Southwestern Mandarin tends to be split into Chuanqian, Xishu, Chuanxi, Yunnan, Huguang and Guiliu branches. Minchi is sometimes separated as a remnant of Old Shu.[36] Distribution of Huai varieties Huai is spoken in central Anhui, northern Jiangxi, far western and eastern Hubei and most of Jiangsu.[19] Due to its preservation of a checked tone, some linguists believe that Huai ought to be treated as a top-level group, like Jin. Representative lects tend to be Nanjingnese, Hefeinese and Yangzhounese.[25] The Huai of Nanjing has likely served as a national prestige during the Ming and Qing periods,[37] though not all linguists support this viewpoint.[38] The Language Atlas divides Huai into Tongtai, Huangxiao, and Hongchao areas, with the latter further split into Ninglu and Huaiyang. Tongtai, being geographically located furthest west, has the most significant Wu influence, such as in its distribution of historical voiced plosive series.[19][39][40] Tongtai Non-Tongtai Nantong Taizhou Yangzhou Hangzhou Fuzhou Huizhou 地 tʰi tʰi ti di tei ti 病 pʰeŋ pʰiŋ pin biŋ paŋ piaŋ Distribution of Yue varieties (including Pinghua) Yue Chinese is spoken by around 84 million people,[10] in western Guangdong, eastern Guangxi, Hong Kong, Macau and parts of Hainan, as well as overseas communities such as Kuala Lumpur and Vancouver.[19] Famous lects such as Cantonese and Taishanese belong to this family.[9] Yue Chinese lects generally possess long-short distinctions in their vowels, which is reflected in their almost universally split dark-checked and often split light-checked tones. They generally also tend to preserve all three checked plosive finals and three nasal finals. The status of Pinghua is uncertain, and some believe its two groups, Northern and Southern, should be listed under Yue,[41] though some reject this standpoint.[19] Checked tone contours in Yue lects Tone Dark Light Short Long Short Long Examples 北 八 入 白 Guangzhou ˥ ˧ ˨ Hong Kong ˥ ˧ ˨ Dongguan ˦ ˦˨˦ ˨ Shiqi ˥ ˨ Taishan ˥ ˧ ˨ Bobai ˥ ˧ ˨ Yulin ˥ ˧ ˨ ˨ Yue is generally split into Cantonese (which itself contains Yuehai, Xiangshan, and Guanbao), Siyi, Gaoyang, Qinlian, Wuhua, Goulou (which includes Luoguang), Yongxun and the two Pinghua branches.[19] Siyi is generally agreed to be the most divergent, and Goulou is believed to be the one which is closest related to Pinghua.[41] Hakka Chinese is a direct result of several migration waves from Northern China to the South,[42] and is spoken in eastern Guangdong, parts of Taiwan, western Fujian, Hong Kong, southern Jiangxi, as well as scattered points in the rest of Guangdong, Hunan, Guangxi and Hainan, along with overseas communities such as in West Kalimantan and Bangka Belitung Islands in Indonesia, by an estimated total of 44 million people.[19][10] Some believe that Hakka is closely related to other groups, such as Gan, Yue, or Tongtai.[43][44][45] Hakka varieties generally have no voiced plosive initials and preserve the historical rì initial (日母) as an n-like sound.[19][46] Realization of the historical rì initial in Hakka Meizhou Changting Hsinchu Hong Kong Yudu 人 ɲin neŋ ɲin ŋgin niẽ 日 ɲit ni ɲit ŋgit nie Hakka can be divided into Yuetai, Hailu, Yuebei, Yuexi, Tingzhou, Ninglong, Yuxin and Tonggui.[19] Meizhounese is often used as the representative variety of Hakka.[25] Distribution of Min varieties in mainland China, Hainan and Taiwan Min Chinese is a direct descendant of Old Chinese, and is spoken in Chaoshan and Zhanjiang of Guangdong, Hainan, Taiwan, most of Fujian and parts of Jiangxi and Zhejiang, by around 76 million people.[10] Due to significant amounts of migration, many people in Southeast Asia and Hong Kong are also able of speaking Min varieties. Lects such as Teoswa, Hainanese, Hokkien (incl. Taiwanese) and Hokchiu are all Min varieties.[19] Since Min descended from Old Chinese rather than Middle Chinese, it has some features that would be out of place in other varieties. For instance, some words with the cheng initial (澄母) are not affricates in Min. This, interestingly, has led to many languages, such as Occitan, Inuktitut, Latin, Māori and Telugu, loaning the Sinitic word for 'tea' (茶) with a plosive. Min varieties also have a very large number of words with literary pronunciations.[9] Selection of reflexes of the cheng initial Min Non-Min Fuzhou Quanzhou Chaozhou Putian Jian'ou Haikou Leizhou Lanzhou Guiyang Changsha 茶 ta te te tɒ ta ʔdɛ te tʂʰa tsʰa tsa 陳 tiŋ tan tʰiŋ tɛŋ teiŋ ʔdaŋ taŋ tʂʰən tsʰən tsən Min can primarily be split into Coastal and Inland Min varieties. The former contains the Southern Min branches of Quanzhang (Hokkien), Chaoshan (Teoswa), Datian and Zhongshan, the Eastern Min branches of Houguan and Funing, Qionglei Min, as well as Puxian Min, whereas the latter includes Northern, Central and Shaojiang Min. Shaojiang Min acts as a transitional area between Min, Gan, and Hakka.[20][34] Distribution of Wu varieties Wu Chinese is spoken in most of Zhejiang, Shanghai, southern Jiangsu, parts of southern Anhui and eastern Jiangxi by around 82 million people.[19][10][47] Many large cities in the Yangtze Delta, such as Suzhou, Changzhou, Ningbo and Hangzhou, use a Wu variety. Wu varieties generally have a fricative initial in their negators, a three-way plosive distinction, as well as a checked coda preserved as a glottal stop, except for Oujiang lects, where it has become vowel length, and Xuanzhou.[47][40] An example of a tripartite division of plosives Shanghai Suzhou Changzhou Shaoxing Ningbo Taizhou Wenzhou Jinhua Lishui Quzhou 通 tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰoŋ tʰɔŋ tʰaŋ 東 toŋ toŋ toŋ toŋ toŋ toŋ toŋ toŋ tɔŋ taŋ 同 doŋ doŋ doŋ doŋ doŋ doŋ doŋ doŋ dɔŋ daŋ Shanghainese, Suzhounese and Wenzhounese are usually used as representatives of Wu.[25] Wu Chinese varieties generally have a massive number of vowels, which rivals even North Germanic languages.[48][49] The Dondac variety has been observed to have 20 phonemic monophthongal vowels, according to one analysis.[50] Qian Nairong divides Wu into Taihu (or Northern Wu), Taizhou, Oujiang, Chuqu and Wuzhou. Northern Wu is further divided into Piling, Suhujia, Tiaoxi, Linshao, Yongjiang, and Hangzhou, though Hangzhou's classification is unclear.[40][47] Huizhou Chinese is spoken in western Hangzhou, southern Anhui and parts of Jingdezhen, by around 5 million people.[19][10] It is identified as a top-level group by the Language Atlas, though some linguists believe in other theories, such as it being a Gan-influenced Wu variety, due to an identifiable basis of Old Wu features.[9][51][52][53] Hui varieties are phonologically diverse, and some features are shared with Wu, such as the simplification of diphthongs.[54] Hui can be divided into Jishe, Xiuyi, Qiwu, Jingzhan and Yanzhou branches, with Tunxinese and Jixinese being representatives. Gan Chinese is spoken in northern and central Jiangxi, parts of Hebei and Anhui and eastern Hunan, by 22 million people,[19][10] sometimes believed to be related to Hakka.[43][44] Gan varieties tend to not palatalize terms with the jian initial (見母) and have an f-like initial in closed xiao and xia initial (合口曉匣兩母) terms, among other features.[55] Pronunciation of terms with a xia or xiao initial and closed medial in Gan Nanchang Yichun Ji'an Fuzhou Yingtan 灰 ɸii fi fei fai fɛi 胡 ɸu fu fu fu fu Gan can also be divided into Northern and Southern groups. The Northern group was formed during the Tang dynasty, whereas the Southern group was developed based on Northern Gan.[9] The Language Atlas sees Gan divided into Changdu, Yiliu, Jicha, Fuguang, Yingyi, Datong, Dongsui, Huaiyue, and Leizi branches.[19] Nanchangnese is often chosen as the representative.[25] Shaojiang Min is identified to be influenced or even closely related to Fuguang Gan.[56] Distribution of Xiang varieties in Hunan and Guangxi Xiang Chinese is spoken in central and western Hunan and nearby parts of Guangxi and Guizhou by an estimated 37 million people.[19][10] Due to migrations, Xiang can be split into New and Old Xiang groups, with Old Xiang having fewer Mandarin-influenced features.[57][9] Xiang varieties have universally lost their checked codas, but the majority of them still have a unique preserved checked tone contour. Most also have a three-way plosive distinction, like Wu varieties.[19] One way of dividing Xiang varieties sees five distinct families, namely Changyi, Hengzhou, Louzhao, Chenxu, and Yongzhou.[58] Changshanese and one of Shuangfengnese or Loudinese are usually taken as Xiang representatives.[25] After applying the linguistic comparative method to the database of comparative linguistic data developed by Laurent Sagart in 2019 to identify sound correspondences and establish cognates, phylogenetic methods are used to infer relationships among these languages and estimate the age of their origin and homeland.[59] The traditional, dialectological classification of Chinese languages is based on the evolution of the sound categories of Middle Chinese. Little comparative work has been done (the usual way of reconstructing the relationships between languages), and little is known about mutual intelligibility. Even within the dialectological classification, details are disputed, such as the establishment in the 1980s of three new top-level groups: Huizhou, Jin and Pinghua, although Pinghua is itself a pair of languages and Huizhou maybe half a dozen.[60][61] Like Bai, the Min languages are commonly thought to have split off directly from Old Chinese.[62] The evidence for this split is that all Sinitic languages apart from the Min group can fit into the structure of the Qieyun, a 7th-century rime dictionary.[63] However, this view is not universally accepted. Like many other language families, Sinitic languages have had problems with classification. The following are a few examples. Traditionally, the lect of urban Hangzhou and New Xiang of eastern Hunan are not considered Mandarin.[19] However, linguists such as Richard VanNess Simmons and Zhou Zhenhe have observed that these two varieties possess more qualifying features of Mandarin languages.[40][64] For instance, the vowels of the second division of the jia (假) initial is often raised and backed in Wu and Xiang, while they are not in Hangzhounese and New Xiang. Traditionally Mandarin Traditionally Wu Traditionally Xiang Gloss Beijing Nanjing Nantong Shanghai Suzhou Wenzhou Hangzhou Changsha Shuangfeng 花 xua xuɑ xuo ho ho kʰo hua fa xo 'flower' 瓜 kua kuɑ kuo ko ko ko kua kua ko 'melon' 下 ɕia ɕiɑ xo ɦo ɦo ɦo ia xa ɣo 'down' Nantongnese has heavy Wu influence, which has led to it also having raised and backed vowels. Danzhounese and Maihua are both traditionally considered Yue lects.[19] Recent research, however, has noted that these are both are more likely unclassified.[65] Maihua, for example, may be a Yue-Hakka-Hainanese Min mixed language.[66] Dongjiang Bendihua (東江本地話) is spoken in and around Huizhou and Heyuan. Its classification has always been unclear, though the most common standpoint is that it is considered Hakka.[19][67] The variety spoken in the Ganyu District of Lianyungang (贛榆話) is listed as a variety of Central Plains Mandarin in the Language Atlas of China,[19] though its tonal distribution is more similar to Peninsular Mandarin varieties.[68] Jerry Norman classified the traditional seven dialect groups into three larger groups: Northern (Mandarin), Central (Wu, Gan, and Xiang), and Southern (Hakka, Yue, and Min). He argued that the Southern Group is derived from a standard used in the Yangtze valley during the Han dynasty (206 BC – 220 AD), which he called Old Southern Chinese, while the Central group was transitional between the Northern and Southern groups.[69] Some dialect boundaries, such as between Wu and Min, are particularly abrupt, while others, such as between Mandarin and Xiang or between Min and Hakka, are much less clearly defined.[12] Scholars account for the transitional nature of the central varieties in terms of wave models. Iwata argues that innovations have been transmitted from the north across the Huai River to the Lower Yangtze Mandarin area and from there southeast to the Wu area and westwards along the Yangtze River valley and thence to southwestern areas, leaving the hills of the southeast largely untouched.[70] A 2007 study compared fifteen major urban dialects on the objective criteria of lexical similarity and regularity of sound correspondences, and subjective criteria of intelligibility and similarity. Most of these criteria show a top-level split with Northern, New Xiang, and Gan in one group and Min (samples at Fuzhou, Xiamen, Chaozhou), Hakka, and Yue in the other group. The exception was phonological regularity, where the one Gan dialect (Nanchang Gan) was in the Southern group and very close to Meixian Hakka, and the deepest phonological difference was between Wenzhounese (the southernmost Wu dialect) and all other dialects.[71] The study did not find clear splits within the Northern and Central areas:[71] Changsha (New Xiang) was always within the Mandarin group. No Old Xiang dialect was in the sample. Taiyuan (Jin or Shanxi) and Hankou (Wuhan, Hubei) were subjectively perceived as relatively different from other Northern dialects but were very close in mutual intelligibility. Objectively, Taiyuan had substantial phonological divergence but little lexical divergence. Chengdu (Sichuan) was somewhat divergent lexically but very little on the other measures. The two Wu dialects (Wenzhou and Suzhou) occupied an intermediate position, closer to the Northern/New Xiang/Gan group in lexical similarity and strongly closer in subjective intelligibility but closer to Min/Hakka/Yue in phonological regularity and subjective similarity, except that Wenzhou was farthest from all other dialects in phonological regularity. The two Wu dialects were close to each other in lexical similarity and subjective similarity but not in mutual intelligibility, where Suzhou was closer to Northern/Xiang/Gan than to Wenzhou.[71] In the Southern subgroup, Hakka and Yue grouped closely together on the three lexical and subjective measures but not in phonological regularity. The Min dialects showed high divergence, with Min Fuzhou (Eastern Min) grouped only weakly with the Southern Min dialects of Xiamen and Chaozhou on the two objective criteria and was slightly closer to Hakka and Yue on the subjective criteria.[71] The following section will be dedicated to comparing non-Bai and non-Cai–Long Sinitic languages. Though all stem from Old Chinese, they have all developed differences with each other. An example of Hokkien written exclusively in the Latin alphabet. Typographically, the vast majority of Sinitic languages use Sinographs. However, some varieties, such as Dungan and Hokkien, have alternative scripts, namely Cyrillic and Latin alphabets. Even between varieties which use Sinographs, characters are repurposed or invented to cover for the difference in vocabulary. Examples include 靚; 'pretty' in Yue,[72] ; 'I', 'me' in Hakka,[46] 即; 'this' in Hokkien,[73] 勦; 'to not want' in Wu,[48] 莫; 'do not' in Xiang, and 嘎; 'ill-tempered' in Mandarin.[74][24] Note that both traditional and simplified characters can be used to write any lect. Phonologically speaking, though all Sinitic languages possess tones, their contours and the total number of tones vary wildly, from Shanghainese, which can be analysed to have only two tones,[48] to Bobainese, which has ten.[75] Sinitic languages also vary wildly in their phonological inventories and phonotactics. Take for instance /mlɤŋ/ (門兒; 'door (diminutive)') seen in Pingdingnese,[20] or /tʃɦʮʷəi/ (水; 'water') of Xuanzhounese,[76] which both show syllables which do not follow the (single) consonant-glide-vowel-consonant syllable structure of more well-known lects. Tone sandhi is also a feature which not all lects share. Cantonese, for instance, only has a very weak system,[77] whereas Wu varieties not only have complex, intricate systems, which affect almost all syllables, but also uses it to mark for grammatical part of speech.[48][49] Take for instance, this simplified analysis of Suzhounese tone sandhi:[78] Unchecked Tone Sandhi chain length →↓ 1st char tone cat 2 char 3 char 4 char dark level (1) ˦ ˥ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˥ light level (2) ˨ ˨ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˨ ˧ ˦ ˦ rising (3) ˥ ˩ ˥ ˩ ˩ ˥ ˩ ˩ ˩ dark departing (5) ˥ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˦ ˥ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˦ light departing (6) ˨ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˦ ˨ ˩ ˩ ˩ Checked tone sandhi chain length → 2 char 3 char 4 char 2nd chartone cat 1st chardarkness level (1, 2) dark (7) ˦ ˨ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ light (8) ˨ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ rising (3) dark (7) ˥ ˩ ˥ ˩ ˩ light (8) ˨ ˩ ˨ ˩ ˩ ˩ departing (5, 6) dark (7) ˥ ˦ ˨ ˥ ˦ ˨ ˥ ˦ ˨ ˦ light (8) ˨ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˨ ˦ ˨ ˦ checked (7, 8) dark (7, 8) dark (7) ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ light (8) ˨ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ ˦ Disregarding phonology, grammar is the feature of Sinitic languages which differ the most. The majority of Sinitic languages do not possess tenses, though exceptions include Northern Wu lects such as Shanghainese and Suzhounese, though it is largely breaking down in Shanghainese due to Mandarin influence.[49][79] Sinitic languages generally also have no case marking, though lects such as Linxianese and Hengshannese do possess case particles, with the latter expressing it through tone change.[80][81] Sinitic languages generally have SVO word order and possess classifiers. Verb usage may be different between Sinitic languages. Notice the double verb marking seen in lects such as Beijingese, in these sentences meaning "today I go to Guangzhou":[82] Beijingese:今 天Jīntiāntoday我wǒ1sg到dàoarrive廣 州GuǎngzhōuGuangzhou去qùgo(pinyin){今 天} 我 到 {廣 州} 去{Jīntiān} wǒ dào {Guǎngzhōu} qùtoday 1sg arrive Guangzhou go Wuxinese:今 阿cin1-a1today我ngeu41sg廣 州kuaon3-cieu1Guangzhou去chi5go(Wugniu){今 阿} 我 {廣 州} 去{cin1-a1} ngeu4 {kuaon3-cieu1} chi5today 1sg Guangzhou go Sinitic languages tend to vary greatly in how they mark indirect objects. The area which varies tends to be the placement of the indirect and direct objects.[9][20] Mandarinic, Xiang, Hui, and Min languages often place the indirect object (IO) before the direct object (DO). Some lects have switched to IO-DO structure due to Mandarin influence, such as Nanchangese and Shanghainese, though Shanghainese also has the alternative word order. Beijingese:他tā3SG給gěigive了lePERF我wǒ1SG一yīone盒héCL糖。tángsweets他 給 了 我 一 盒 糖。tā gěi le wǒ yī hé táng3SG give PERF 1SG one CL sweets"He gave me a box of sweets." Taiyuanese:給kei53give我ɣə531SG一iəʔ2one本pəŋ53CL書。su11book給 我 一 本 書。kei53 ɣə53 iəʔ2 pəŋ53 su11give 1SG one CL book"Give me a book." Changshanese:媽 媽ma33 mama誒，eiSPEC把pa41give我ŋo411SG兩lian41two塊kʰuai41CL錢tɕiẽ13money咯。loSPEC{媽 媽} 誒， 把 我 兩 塊 錢 咯。{ma33 ma} ei pa41 ŋo41 lian41 kʰuai41 tɕiẽ13 loma SPEC give 1SG two CL money SPEC"Mama, give me two dollars please." Nanchangese:你 人ᶜn len2SG.POL接꜀tɕialend了lePERF佢ᶜtɕie3SG三꜀santhree隻tsaʔ꜀CL鍋。꜀wopot{你 人} 接 了 佢 三 隻 鍋。{ᶜn len} ꜀tɕia le ᶜtɕie ꜀san tsaʔ꜀ ꜀wo2SG.POL lend PERF 3SG three CL pot"You lent him three pots." On the other hand, Gan, Wu, Hakka, and Yue languages tend to place the DO in front of the IO. Yichunnese:我ŋo341SG得tɛ42⁻33give本pun42CL書ɕy34book你。ɲi342SG我 得 本 書 你。ŋo34 tɛ42⁻33 pun42 ɕy34 ɲi341SG give CL book 2SG"I give a book to you." Shanghainese (Wugniu):撥peqgive對teCL鞋 子gha - tsyshoe我。ngu1SG撥 對 {鞋 子} 我。peq te {gha - tsy} ngugive CL shoe 1SG"Give me a pair of shoes." Yining Pinghua:分fən34give個ko33CL梨 子lɐi31 tsə53pear你。nə532SG分 個 {梨 子} 你。fən34 ko33 {lɐi31 tsə53} nə53give CL pear 2SG"I'll give you a pear." Hong Kong Hakka (Lau's Romanization):[83]分bíngive塊kuàiCL麪 包mèn báubread。ngâi1SG分 塊 {麪 包} 。bín kuài {mèn báu} ngāigive CL bread 1SG"Give me a piece of bread." Like other East Asian languages such as Japanese and Korean, Sinitic languages have a system of classifers, however, use of classifiers vary greatly in features such as definiteness.[20] In Cantonese, for instance, they can be used to mark possession, which is rare in Sinitic while common in Southeast Asia.[9] 我ngo51SG本bun2CL書syu1book我 本 書ngo5 bun2 syu11SG CL book'my book' 個 and 隻 are the most common generic classifiers cross-linguistically.[9] As previously mentioned, Mandarinic languages tend to have fewer classifiers whereas the Southern non-Mandarinic varieties tend to have more.[20] Sinitic languages can vary greatly in their system of demonstratives.[20] Standard Mandarin and other Northeastern varieties have a two-way system: 這; zhè (proximal) and 那; nà (distal), but this is not the only system found in Sinitic languages. Wuhannese has a neutral demonstrative, which can be used regardless of the distance to the deictic center.[84][85] Similar systems are found in Northern Wu lects such as Suzhounese and Ningbonese.[49][20] [c]nɤ35DEM是sɿ35COP生sən55unripe的tiP , [c]nɤ35DEM是sɿ35COP熟səu213ripe的tiP[c] 是 生 的 ， [c] 是 熟 的nɤ35 sɿ35 sən55 ti {} nɤ35 sɿ35 səu213 tiDEM COP unripe P {} DEM COP ripe P In the above sentence, /nɤ^{35}/ can be translated as both 'this' and 'that'. Though Wuhannese has this system of a one-term neutral system, it also has a two-way proximal-distal system. This is the same for most other lects with a one-term system. Even within two-way systems, which is the most common system, terms could have developed to mean the opposite distance from the deictic center. Cantonese 嗰; go^2 (distal) and Shanghainese 搿; geq (proximal) are both etymologically from 個, for instance.[72][48] Many Sinitic languages have three-way systems, but the three distances are not always the same ones. For instance, whereas Guangshan Mandarin has a person-oriented proximal, medial, and distal system, Xinyu Gan has a distance-oriented close, proximal, and distal system. Gan especially has many varieties with a three-way system, sometimes even marked with tone and vowel length rather than just changing the term used.[20][86] A small number of varieties possess even four- or five-term demonstrative systems. Take for instance the following:[20] Dongxiang Zhangshu Close ꜀ko kọ꜄ Proximal ꜀ko ko꜄ Distal ꜀e ᶜhɛ Yonder ꜀e ᶜhɛ̣ These two lects use tone change and vowel length respectively to distinguish between the four demonstratives.

^ From Late Latin Sīnae, 'the Chinese', probably from Arabic Ṣīn 'China', from the Chinese dynastic name Qín. (OED). In 1982, Paul K. Benedict proposed a subgroup of Sino-Tibetan called "Sinitic" comprising Bai and Chinese.[1] The precise affiliation of Bai remains uncertain[2] and the term Sinitic is usually used as a synonym for Chinese, especially when viewed as a language family rather than as a language.[3] ^ See Enfield (2003:69) and Hannas (1997) for examples. The Chinese terms often translated as 'language' and 'dialect' do not correspond well to those translations. These are 語言; yǔyán, corresponding to macrolanguage or language cluster, which is used for Chinese itself; 方言; fāngyán, which separates mutually unintelligible languages within a yǔyán; and 土語; tǔyǔ or 土話; tǔhuà, which corresponds better to the familiar Western linguistic use of 'dialect'.[8] ^ a b This term was not assigned a character. ^ Wang (2005), p. 107. ^ Wang (2005), p. 122. ^ Mair (1991), p. 3. ^ van Driem (2001), p. 351. ^ Zhang, Menghan; Yan, Shi; Pan, Wuyun; Jin, Li (2019). "Phylogenetic evidence for Sino-Tibetan origin in northern China in the Late Neolithic". Nature. 569 (7754): 112–115. Bibcode:2019Natur.569..112Z. doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1153-z. ISSN 1476-4687. PMID 31019300. S2CID 129946000. ^ Sagart et al. (2019). ^ van Driem (2001:403) states "Bái ... may form a constituent of Sinitic, albeit one heavily influenced by Lolo–Burmese." ^ Bradley (2012), p. 1. ^ a b c d e f g h i j k l m Chan, Sin-Wai; Chappell, Hilary; Li, Lan (2017). "Mandarin and other Sinitic languages". Routledge Encyclopedia of the Chinese language. Oxford: Routledge. pp. 605–628. ^ a b c d e f g h i "Chinese". ^ Norman (2003), p. 72. ^ a b Norman (1988), pp. 189–190. ^ Zhengzhang, Shangfang (2010). 蔡家话白语关系及词根比较. 研究之乐 (in Chinese) (2). Shanghai Educational Publishing House: 389–400. ^ 貴州省民族識別工作隊語言組 (1984). 蔡家的語言 (in Chinese). ^ 貴州省民族識別工作隊 (1984). 南龍人（南京-龍家）族別問題調查報告. ^ Gong, Xun (6 November 2015). "How Old is the Chinese in Bái?". Paris. {{cite journal}}: Cite journal requires |journal= (help) ^ 貴州省志 民族志. Guiyang: 貴州民族出版社. 2002. ^ Xu, Lin; Zhao, Yansun (1984). 白语简志 (in Chinese). 民族印刷廠. ^ a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z aa ab ac ad ae Li, Rong (2012). 中國語言地圖集. ^ a b c d e f g h i j k Chappell, Hilary M. (2015). Diversity in Sinitic Languages. Oxford University Press. ISBN 9780198723790. ^ Tsung, Linda (2014). Language Power and Hierarchy: Multilingual Education in China. Bloomsbury Publishing. ^ a b Lin, Tao (1987). "北京官话区的划分". 方言 (3): 166–172. ISSN 0257-0203. ^ a b Zhang, Shifang (2010). 北京官话语音研究. Beijing Language and Culture University Press. ISBN 978-7-5619-2775-5. ^ a b Yin, Shichao (1997). 哈爾濱方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ^ a b c d e f g h 北京大學中國語言文學系 (1995). 漢語方言詞彙. 语文出版社. ^ Wu, Jizhang; Tang, Jianxiong; Chen, Shujing (2005). 河北省志 方言志. 方志出版社. ^ Qian, Zengyi (2002). "山東方言研究" (3). {{cite journal}}: Cite journal requires |journal= (help) ^ a b Qian, Zengyi (2010). 漢語官话方言研究. 齊魯書社. ^ Luo, Futeng (1997). 牟平方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ^ He, Wei (June 1993). 洛陽方言研究. 社會科學文獻出版社. ^ Su, Xiaoqing; Lü, Yongwei (December 1996). 徐州方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ISBN 7534328837. ^ Zhang, Chengcai (December 1994). 西寧方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ISBN 7534322936. ^ He, Wei. 中原官話分區. Beijing: 中國社會科學院語言研究所. ^ a b Hou, Jing (2002). 現代漢語方言概論. 上海教育出版社. p. 46. ^ Wang, Futang (1998). 漢語方言語音的演變和層次. Beijing: 語文研究. ^ Zhou, Jixu (2012). "南路話和湖廣話的語音特點". 語言研究 (3). ^ 漢語方言學大詞典. 廣東教育出版社. 2017. p. 150. ISBN 9787554816332. ^ Zeng, Xiaoyu (2014). "《西儒耳目資》音系基礎非南京方言補證". 語言科學 (4). ^ Tao, Guoliang. 南通方言詞典. Nanjing: 江蘇人民出版社. ^ a b c d Richard VanNess Simmons (1999). Chinese Dialect Classification: A comparative approach to Harngjou, Old Jintarn, and Common Northern Wu. John Benjamins Publishing Co. ^ a b Lin, Yi (2016). "廣西的粵方言". 欽州學院學報. 31 (6): 38–42. ^ "The Hakka People > Historical Background". edu.ocac.gov.tw. Archived from the original on 2019-09-09. Retrieved 2010-06-11. ^ a b Peng, Xinyi (2010). 江西客贛語的特殊音韻現象與結構變遷. 國立中興大學中國文學研究所. ^ a b Lu, Guoyao (2003). 魯國堯語言學論文集·客、贛、通泰方言源於南朝通語說. 江蘇教育出版社. pp. 123–135. ISBN 7534354994. ^ Sagart, Lawrence (March 2011). Chinese dialects classified on shared innovations. ^ a b Huang, Xuezhen (December 1995). 梅縣方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ISBN 7534325064. ^ a b c Qian, Nairong (1992). 當代吳語研究. 上海教育出版社. ^ a b c d e Qian, Nairong (2007). 上海話大詞典. 上海教育出版社. ^ a b c d Ye, Changling (1993). 蘇州方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ^ "奉贤金汇学校首开"傷傣话"课(图)". 人民網. Archived from the original on 2022-07-22. Retrieved 2022-07-22. ^ Li, Rulong (2001). 漢語方言學. Beijing: 高等教育出版社. p. 17. ^ Zhengzhang, Shangfang (1986). "皖南方言的分區（稿）". 方言 (1). ^ Zhang, Guangyu (1999). "東南方言關係綜論". 方言 (1). ^ Meng, Qinghui (2005). 徽州方言. Beijing: 安徽人民出版社. ^ Sun, Yizhi; Chen, Changyi; Xu, Yangchun (2001). 江西贛方言語音的特點. ^ Chen, Zhangtai. 閩語研究. ^ Song, Diwu; Cao, Shuji. 中國移民史 第五卷：名師其. ^ Bao, Houxing; Chen, Hui (2005). 湘語的分區（稿）. ^ Sagart et al. (2019), pp. 10319–10320. ^ Kurpaska (2010), pp. 41–53, 55–56. ^ Yan (2006), pp. 9–18, 61–69, 222. ^ Mei (1970), p. ?. ^ Pulleyblank (1984), p. 3. ^ Zhou, Zhenhe; You, Rujie (1986). Fāngyán yǔ zhōngguó wénhuà 方言与中国文化 [Dialects and Chinese culture]. Shanghai Renmin Chubanshe. ^ Kurpaska (2010), p. 73. ^ Jiang, Ouyang & Zou (2007) ^ Liu, Ruoyun (1991). 惠州方言志. ^ Liu, Chuanxian (2001). 贛榆方言志. Beijing: 中华书局. ^ Norman (1988), pp. 182–183. ^ Iwata (2010), pp. 102–108. ^ a b c d Tang & Van Heuven (2007), p. 1025. ^ a b Bai, Wanru (1998). 廣州方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社出版. ISBN 9787534334344. ^ Li, Rong (1993). 廈門方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社出版. ISBN 9787534319952. ^ Bao, Houxing (December 1998). 長沙方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社出版. ISBN 9787534319983. ^ Xie, Jianyou (2007). 廣西漢語方言研究. 廣西人民出版社. ^ Shen, Ming (2016). 安徽宣城（雁翅）方言. 中國社會科學出版社. ^ Zheng, Ding'ou (1997). 香港粵語詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ISBN 9787534329425. ^ Wang, Ping (August 1996). 蘇州方言語音研究. 華中理工大學出版社. ISBN 7560911315. ^ Qian, Nairong (錢乃榮) (2010). 《從滬語便商所見的老上海話時態》 (Tenses and Aspects? Old Shanghainese as Found in the Book Huyu Bian Shang). Shanghai: The Chinese University of Hong Kong Press. ^ Zhang, Qiang (2021). "臨夏方言格標記「哈［XA^{43}］」探究". 淮南師範學院學報. 23 (2). Guangzhou. ^ Liu, Juan; Peng, Zerun (July 2019). "衡山方言人稱代詞領格變調現象的實質". 湘潭大學學報（哲學社會科學版）. 43 (4). ^ Liu, Danqing (2001). 吳語的句法類型特點. ^ Lau, Chun-Fat (November 2021). 香港客家話研究. Hong Kong: 中華教育. ISBN 9789888760046. ^ Zhu, Jiansong (1992). 武漢方言研究. ^ Zhu, Jiansong (May 1995). 武漢方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社. ISBN 7534323290. ^ Wei, Gangqiang (1995). 黎川方言詞典. 江蘇教育出版社.

Sagart, Laurent; Jacques, Guillaume; Lai, Yunfan; Ryder, Robin; Thouzeau, Valentin; Greenhill, Simon J.; List, Johann-Mattis (2019), "Dated language phylogenies shed light on the history of Sino-Tibetan", Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 116 (21): 10317–10322, doi:10.1073/pnas.1817972116, PMC 6534992, PMID 31061123. "Origin of Sino-Tibetan language family revealed by new research". ScienceDaily (Press release). May 6, 2019. Bradley, David (2012), "Languages and Language Families in China", in Rint Sybesma (ed.), Encyclopedia of Chinese Language and Linguistics., Brill Enfield, N. J. (2003), Linguistics Epidemiology: Semantics and Language Contact in Mainland Southeast Asia, Psychology Press, ISBN 0415297435 Hannas, W. (1997), Asia's Orthographic Dilemma, University of Hawaii Press, ISBN 082481892X Iwata, Ray (2010), "Chinese Geolinguistics: History, Current Trend and Theoretical Issues", Dialectologia, Special issue I: 97–121. Jiang, Huo 江荻; Ouyang, Jueya 欧阳觉亚; Zou, Heyan 邹嘉彦 (2007), "Hǎinán Shěng Sānyà Shì Màihuà yīnxì" 海南省三亚市迈话音系, Fāngyán 方言 (in Chinese), 2007 (1): 23–34. Kurpaska, Maria (2010), Chinese Language(s): A Look Through the Prism of "The Great Dictionary of Modern Chinese Dialects", Walter de Gruyter, ISBN 978-3-11-021914-2 Mair, Victor H. (1991), "What Is a Chinese 'Dialect/Topolect'? Reflections on Some Key Sino-English Linguistic terms" (PDF), Sino-Platonic Papers, 29: 1–31. Mei, Tsu-lin (1970), "Tones and prosody in Middle Chinese and the origin of the rising tone", Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies, 30: 86–110, doi:10.2307/2718766, JSTOR 2718766 Norman, Jerry (1988), Chinese, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, ISBN 978-0-521-29653-3. Norman, Jerry (2003), "The Chinese dialects: Phonology", in Thurgood, Graham; LaPolla, Randy J. (eds.), The Sino-Tibetan languages, Routledge, pp. 72–83, ISBN 978-0-7007-1129-1 Pulleyblank, Edwin G. (1984), Middle Chinese: A study in Historical Phonology, Vancouver: University of British Columbia Press, ISBN 978-0-7748-0192-8 Tang, Chaoju; Van Heuven, Vincent J. (2007), "Predicting mutual intelligibility in chinese dialects from subjects from subjective and objective linguistic similarity" (PDF), Interlingüística, 17: 1019–1028. Thurgood, Graham (2003), "The subgroup of the Tibeto-Burman languages: The interaction between language contact, change, and inheritance", in Thurgood, Graham; LaPolla, Randy J. (eds.), The Sino-Tibetan languages, Routledge, pp. 3–21, ISBN 978-0-7007-1129-1 van Driem, George (2001), Languages of the Himalayas: An Ethnolinguistic Handbook of the Greater Himalayan Region, Brill, ISBN 90-04-10390-2 Wang, Feng (2005), "On the genetic position of the Bai language", Cahiers de Linguistique Asie Orientale, 34 (1): 101–127, doi:10.3406/clao.2005.1728. Yan, Margaret Mian (2006), Introduction to Chinese Dialectology, LINCOM Europa, ISBN 978-3-89586-629-6 Retrieved from " With Free Chinese Workbooks Get Started Want to learn Chinese? At ChineseClass101, you'll learn real Chinese with real lessons made by real teachers. And, guess what? As a member, You also get FREE resources like our best Chinese workbooks. So you can practice and get more Chinese study in. How? Just sign up for a Free Lifetime Account and you can access all of our beginner Chinese workbooks below. They're yours to download, print, and use as much as you want. These are writing practice workbooks. So, if you're concerned that you'll need to go looking for Chinese workbook answers… no worries. Just click on the download icons above to download each workbook. Then print them out. And practice writing out Chinese words and phrases on the inside. If you're a beginner… Then you should start with the alphabet and download our alphabet workbook. Most schools take a week to teach you the alphabet. But here, you'll master it all in an hour or less. Just practice writing out the letters inside the book. Once you're done with the alphabet, move on to our Chinese lessons and the other Chinese PDF workbooks. Part 1 — Learn: In the first part, you'll get the Chinese words and their meanings. Your job is to just read through, get acquainted, and write them out in the provided space. Part 2 — Practice: In the second part, you get the Chinese words and phrases without translations. Your job is to write the English translation here. You can glance at part one for answers if you don't yet remember the meanings. Part 3 — Test: In the 3rd part, you get just the translation. Your job is to try and remember the Chinese word and write it out on the provided line. Try not to look at the answers. By the end, you'll remember Chinese better because you've practiced and have been tested. You can also print out several copies of the Chinese workbook PDFs for extra practice. Practicing and "using" the language is the fastest way to improve. You'll easily memorize Chinese thanks to the practice. You'll be able to speak and understand more Chinese, as a result. You want to learn Chinese, right? Well, the best way to learn Chinese and use it confidently… is through practice. You can't just just listen to Chinese and hope it sticks. You'll still need to produce the language, whether through speaking or writing. And practicing using Chinese is what will make Chinese feel natural to you… and take you to fluency. That's where these workbooks come in. With these workbooks, you'll master must-know words, phrases, and grammar rules. And, you'll get to practice using these words — so that they get stuck in your head for good. The goal of our workbooks is three-fold: Teach you new words, phrases, expressions, and grammar rules. Let you practice writing them out. And test you on how well you remember the words and phrases. And best of all? They're free for ChineseClass101 members. So, download these workbooks, print them out and start practicing Chinese. If you're an existing ChineseClass101 user, you already have access! Just log in and download. If not, to get free access to our Chinese workbook online collection above, you must sign up for a Free Lifetime Account at ChineseClass101. 2 The subject line is "Activate Your Chinese Account and Get Your Free Bonus!" 3 Once you activate your account, you'll be asked to set a password. 4 Or, look for the download link in the confirmation email. New to ChineseClass101? Welcome! ChineseClass101 is the fastest, easiest, and most fun way to learn Chinese. You learn Chinese with fun audio/video lessons made by real teachers. Just press play on a lesson, absorb a conversation and start speaking in minutes. We'll guide you from lesson 1, to 2, to 3… until fluency. Online Chinese Learning Program 16+ Years of Teaching Languages (Since 2005) Teaching 34 Languages with our Time-tested System Over 2+ Billion Lessons Downloaded to Date New Free Lessons Added Weekly These Chinese workbook PDFs are a free bonus for our members and anyone interested in Chinese study. So, if you're interested, sign up for a FREE Lifetime Account today. On this page, you will discover Mandarin Chinese learning course study materials for the absolute beginners (Level 1). All books, in the form of downloadable eBooks (pdf format), are suitable for self-learning Mandarin Chinese. Plenty of English, vocabulary, and Pinyin has been provided throughout the Level 1 books. Some books are purposely too simple, some a bit difficult. However, all books are suitable for the beginners. Even if you are an advanced level student of Mandarin Chinese, you should give a try to these books and test your Mandarin abilities. Don't forget to check out Level 2 course materials.Super Saver Deal! Grab all books of Level 1 Course to learn Mandarin Chinese. Download all books (pdf) for beginners and save more than 50%. The course includes Chinese characters, words, vocabulary, poems, conversations, and much more. Highly recommended for the Chinese learning students.Super Saver Deal – All Books (Level 1).$59.99 Original price was: $59.99.$19.99Current price is: $19.99.Add to cart Learn over 30 must-know and most frequently used Mandarin Chinese characters with pinyin and English. Example sentences with pinyin and English has been provided for you to better understand the characters. A short paragraph has been provided for you to read and learn using the characters.30 Must-Know Chinese Characters for Beginners.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart 100 Must-Know Chinese Words for Beginners.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn to read and understand must-know Chinese sentences (学习简单的汉语句子). The book provides you 50 simple sentences in the form of questions and answers. The vocabulary has been provided before the main text. Each of the words and sentences are explained with pinyin and English. The book is suitable for HSK All Levels.Learn 50 Simple Chinese Sentences.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart This book is designed to help Mandarin Chinese language students learn counting numbers (1, 2, 3…) in Chinese (学数数). In this book, you will learn counting 1 to 1,000 (学习从一数到一千). The Arabic numerals, their corresponding Chinese characters and pinyin have been provided in a tabular format. The book is suitable for HSK All Level students.Learn Counting Numbers In Chinese.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn Chinese Loanwords (外来词), some of the easiest Chinese words for the beginners to learn. The book provides you over 200 loanwords in the form of name of all countries in the world (世界上所有国家的名称). Simplified characters, Pinyin and English has been provided for all loanwords. A quiz with answer is included to test your learning.Chinese Loanwords – Names Of All Countries In The World.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Here is a simple conversation between David (大卫, an American guy, and Xiao Li (小丽), a Chinese girl. They randomly met at a bus stop in Suzhou (苏州), a city in Jiangsu province). Xiao Li is from Xuzhou (徐州), another city in Jiangsu. David, a California native, is new to China. He works in Suzhou. Xiao Li is a 3rd year undergraduate student (大三).Daily Conversation (Part 1)$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn must-know greetings (问候语) in Mandarin Chinese while reading a Chinese story. I have prepared a simple story for you to understand how to use the greetings. The story, divided in two parts, narrates a young lion's beautiful day (小狮子美好的一天). The list of the greetings has been provided at the beginning of the book. Then, the young lion's story follows. A comprehensive list of vocabulary with pinyin and English has been included before each of part of the story. Pinyin of the main text has been provided and the English interpretation has been intentionally excluded. Read the story with a peaceful mind — you will be able to understand everything with some effort and patience.Learn Common Chinese Greetings.$3.99 Original price was: $3.99.$2.99Current price is: $2.99.Add to cart Learning Chinese songs (学习中文歌曲) can be a great way to learn Mandarin Chinese language and culture. In particular, the songs are easy to remember as you can listen them again and again. Hence, they are a great tool to improve Chinese listening skills. Presenting a very famous Chinese song "Come, Let's Dance." The book includes comprehensive vocabulary, and the line-by-line interpretation of the song in English. The pinyin has been provided for your reference. The video links of the songs are included in the file.Learn Chinese Song – Come, Let's Dance.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn one of the most acclaimed poems of Du Fu (杜甫, 712-770), a poet of China's Tang Dynasty (唐朝). The poem is so beautifully written that even Li Bai appreciated the poem when Du Fu presented to him. A must learn poem for all Mandarin Chinese enthusiasts. The book includes the main poem, pinyin, line by line interpretation of the poem in English, interpretation in Chinese, comprehensive vocabulary, and detailed appreciation of the poem in English.Chinese Poem – Gazing Mount Tai (Wang Yue) by Du Fu.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn a very famous Chinese poem, Thoughts On A Quiet Night (Jing Ye Si , 静夜思), written by Tang Dynasty poet Li Bai (李白). A beautiful poem written in simple words, and hence, easy to understand. This poem is a must for all Mandarin Chinese students. Everyone in China knows this poem.Chinese Poem – Thoughts On A Quiet Night (Jing Ye Si) by Li Bai$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart The eBook, Chinese Idioms, provides you numerous must know Chinese idioms. All idioms are explained with pinyin and English. In order to understand how to use these idioms, separate Chinese texts have been provided for reading practice (阅读课文). Pinyin of the Chinese text has been provided after the main text. The English translation of the Chinese text has been excluded so that you put extra efforts to understand the Chinese language and improve your vocabulary. Further, an extensive list of words (vocabulary) of the Chinese text has been included before the main text.Chinese Idioms (汉语成语) eBook for Level 1 students.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Li Bai (李白, 699-762 AD) was a poet during the reign of China's Tang Dynasty (唐朝) that ruled China from 618 to 907. He wrote numerous poems during his lifetime. In particular, two of his poems are certainly not to give a miss: Thoughts in a quiet night (静夜思), and Gift to Wang Lun (赠汪伦). There is hardly anyone in China who doesn't know Li Bai. In fact, unlike many Chinese poets, he was very famous during his lifetime. Presenting a simple biography of Li Bai for Level 1 students of Mandarin Chinese. The eBook includes simplified Chinese characters. Extensive vocabulary had been provided before the main text. English interpretation is purposely excluded. Take your time and decipher the beauty of reading Chinese text.Biography of Li Bai for Level 1 Students.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Confucian Philosophy – In-depth Analysis of a Confucian Phrase. $2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn Administrative Divisions of China (中国行政区划), including the names of Chinese provinces (省份), municipalities (直辖市), and autonomous regions (自治区). The list of the Chinese provincial capital cities (省会) is included in the book. Further, since each Chinese province has at least 1 short name (简称), the short names has been included in the book. Well, the short names of the provinces have huge cultural significance in China. For example, the short name of Jiangsu province is Su (苏), hence the number plate of all buses in Jiangsu contains the character (苏). In fact, in all Chinese provinces, the number plates include the short name of the province where the vehicle was registered.China's Administrative Divisions.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Reading Chinese News Update on Covid-19 Situation.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart This is a Chinese reading practice book. The book introduces you to the planets of the Solar System (太阳系八大行星简介). The whole book is broadly divided into two parts. Each part contains vocabulary, simplified Chinese text and pinyin. The English interpretation is intentionally excluded. You need to read and understand the Chinese text. Since the vocabulary is comprehensive, the book is suitable for students of all HSK level. Don't rush while reading the book. If you can read the book without much difficulty, you are already beyond Level 1.A Brief Introduction to the Planets in the Solar System.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn most commonly used

vegetables in China. The book provides you a basic introduction (蔬菜简介) to the vegetables. The book is divided into two parts. Each part is preceded by a list of important words. The vocabulary is available before the main text composed of simplified Chinese characters. Pinyin is given after the main text and English is excluded from the main text so that you will learn reading Chinese. You need to read the text and understand the meaning.Introduction to Vegetables$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn most commonly produced fruits in China. The book provides you a basic introduction (水果简介) to the fruits. The book is divided into two parts. Each part is preceded by a list of important words. The vocabulary is available before the main text composed of simplified Chinese characters. Pinyin is given after the main text and English is excluded from the main text so that you will learn reading Chinese. You need to read the text and understand the meaning.Introduction to Fruits.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Learn Chinese characters while solving simple Chinese character puzzles (找汉字识字游戏). The eBook provides you puzzles in the form of 9*9 grids. Pinyin and English interpretation have been provided for each of the characters expected to be found in the grid. There are 25 puzzles in the book. Solutions are available after the puzzles.Chinese Character Search Puzzles (Level 1-2) – Part 1.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Chinese Character Search Puzzles (Level 1-2) – Part 1.$2.99 Original price was: $2.99.$1.99Current price is: $1.99.Add to cart Reconstructed ancestor of the Sino-Tibetan languages Proto-Sino-TibetanPST, Proto-Trans-HimalayanReconstruction ofSino-Tibetan languagesLower-order reconstructions Proto-Sinitic (see Old Chinese) Proto-Tibeto-Burman Proto-Sino-Tibetan (PST) is the linguistic reconstruction of the Sino-Tibetan proto-language and the common ancestor of all languages in it, including the Sinitic languages, the Tibetic languages, Yi, Bai, Burmese, Karen, Tangut, and Naga. Paul K. Benedict (1972) placed a particular emphasis on Old Chinese, Classical Tibetan, Jingpho, Written Burmese, Garo, and Mizo in his discussion of Proto-Sino-Tibetan.[1] While Proto-Sino-Tibetan is commonly considered to have two direct descendants, Proto-Sinitic and Proto-Tibeto-Burman,[2] in recent years several scholars have argued that this was not well-substantiated,[3] and have taken to calling the group "Trans-Himalayan".[4] In this case, Proto-Tibeto-Burman may be considered as equivalent to Proto-Sino-Tibetan if Sinitic is indeed not the first branch to split from Proto-Sino-Tibetan.[5] Reconstructed features include prefixes such as the causative s-, the intransitive m-, the miscellaneous b-, d-, g-, and r-, suffixes -s, -t, and -n, and a set of conditioning factors that resulted in the development of tone in most languages of the family.[6] The existence of such elaborate system of inflectional changes in Proto-Sino-Tibetan makes the language distinctive from some of its modern descendants, such as the Sinitic languages, which have mostly or completely become analytic. Proto-Sino-Tibetan, like Old Chinese, also included numerous consonant clusters, and was not a tonal language. The table below shows consonant phonemes reconstructed by Benedict.[1][page needed] Plosive Fricative Sonorant Voiceless Voiced Voiceless Voiced Nasal Other Labial p b m w Dental t d s z n r Palatal c ʒ y Lateral l Velar k g h ŋ The reconstruction by Peiros & Starostin suggests a much more complex consonant inventory.[7] The phonemes in brackets are reconstructions that are considered dubious. Plosive/Affricate Fricative Sonorant Unaspirated Aspirated Voiceless Voiced Voiceless Voiced Voiceless Voiced Oral Nasal Labial p b m pʰ (bʰ) w Dental t d n tʰ (dʰ) r Alveolar c ʒ cʰ (ʒʰ) s Palatal ć ʒ́ ń ćʰ ʒ́ʰ ś y Lateral (ƛ) l Velar k g ŋ kʰ (gʰ) x ɣ Uvular (q) (ɢ) (qʰ) (ɢʰ) (χ) Laryngeal ʔ The following tables show the reconstruction of Proto-Sino-Tibetan phonemes by Nathan Hill (2019).[8] Consonants Labial Coronal Palatal Velar Labiovelar Uvular Labiouvular Glottal Nasal *m *n *ŋ *ŋʷ Plosive voiced *b *d *g *ɢ *ɢʷ voiceless *p *t *k *kʷ *q *ʔ Affricate voiced *dz voiceless *ts Fricatives *(s)[a] Approximant *l *j[b] Rhotic *r[c] ^ The sibilant correspondences are simply presented according to their proto-Burmish outcomes, as no patterns could be found by Hill.[9] ^ This consonant can only exist as a coda. ^ This phonetic nature of this rhotic is unknown. The consonants /p t k q ʔ m n ŋ l r j/ can take coda position, as well as the cluster /rl/. While Hill does not reconstruct /j/ as an initial consonant due to Baxter and Sagart's Old Chinese reconstruction lacking such a phoneme, he mentions that Jacques and Schuessler suggest a /j/ initial for some Old Chinese words due to potential Tibetan or Rgyalrongic cognates.[10] Vowels Front Central Back Close i u Mid e ə o Open a Hill also claims that his reconstruction is incomplete, as it does not account for Tibetic palatalization, proto-Burmish preglottalization, Sinitic aspirates, and the Sinitic type A and B distinction of syllables. The sound correspondences cited by Hill (2019) are as follows. Hill bases his correspondences to Old Chinese off of the Baxter-Sagart reconstruction, and thus that reconstruction will be used in the following correspondence tables. Note that many cognate sets with /p t k b d g/ initials between Old Chinese, Tibetan and Burmese agree in every phoneme in a given word except for whether an initial consonant is voiced or not. Jacques explains these discrepancies as at least partially triggered by pre-syllables that were lost or decayed on the way to Chinese, Tibetan and Burmese.[11] Expected initial correspondences in Hill (2019) Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese Tibetan Written Burmese *p- *p- p- p- *t- *t- t- t- *k- *k- k- k- *kʷ- *kʷ- k- ? *b- *b- b- p- *d- *d- d- t- *g- *g- g- g- *q- *q- k(h)- (lost) *ɢ- *ɢ- g- ? *ɢʷ- *ɢʷ- g- w- *ts- *ts- ts(h)- ch- *dz- *dz- (d)z- c- Vowel correspondences of vowels in Hill (2019) Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese Tibetan Written Burmese *a *a a o[a] a *e *e e i[b] a[c] a[d] *i *i i i *o *o o wa[e] *u *u u u o[f] *uw *u u ui uiw[g] *ə *ə a a *əw *o u u *əj *əj a ~ e i ^ After rounded dorsal consonants. ^ Before velar consonants. ^ Before dental or liquid consonants. ^ Before velar, dental or liquid consonants. In Proto-Burmish, pre-velar *i (from *e and *i) were still both distinct from *a. ^ o in Old Burmese. ^ Before velars. Did not merge with inherited *o > Old Burmese o > Written Burmese wa. ^ In Old Burmese. Final correspondences according to Hill (2019) Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese Tibetan Written Burmese *-p *-p -b -p *-t *-t -d -t *-k *-k -g -k *-kə *-k (lost)[a] (lost) *-q *-ʔ -g -k *-ʔ *-ʔ (lost) (lost) *-m *-m -m -m *-n *-n -n -n -ñ(ñ)[b] *-ŋ *-ŋ -ng -ng *-l *-j -l (lost)[c] *-r *-r -r (lost) *-rl *-r -l (lost)[c] ^ Except after *a, where this final instead surfaces as -' (transliterated ḥ by Hill). ^ After *e or *i. ^ a b Unless after *u; in this case the final surfaces as -y. In Gong Huangcheng's reconstruction of the Proto-Sino-Tibetan language, the finals *-p, *-t, *-k, *-m, *-n, and *-ŋ in Proto-Sino-Tibetan remained in Proto-Sinitic and Proto-Tibeto-Burman. However, in Old Chinese, the finals *-k and *-ŋ that came after the close vowel *-i- underwent an irregular change of *-k＞*-t and *-ŋ ＞*-n. In Proto-Tibeto-Burman, *-kw and *-ŋw underwent a sound change to become *-k and *-ŋ respectively, while in Old Chinese those finals remained until Middle Chinese, where the finals underwent the same sound change. [12] Furthermore, in Proto-Tibeto-Burman, the finals *-g, *-gw, and *-d underwent the following changes: *-d＞*-y *-gw＞*-w *-g＞*-w when it follows the vowel *-u- *-g＞*-∅ when it follows the vowel *a and *-a-. Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese (Li Fang-Kuei) Proto-Tibeto-Burman *-p *-jəp 汲 *kjəp *ka·p 泣 *khrjəp *krap 立 *(g-)rjəp *g-ryap *-jap 接 *tsjap *tsyap *-jup 入 *njəp *nup~ *nip *-t *-iat 八 *priat *b-r-gyat 殺 *r-siat *g-sat *-uat 脫 *hluat *g-lwat *-jit 一 *·jit *it *-k *-ək 翼 *lək *lak *-jək 織 *tjək *tak 息 *sjək *sak 食 *N-ljək *(m-)lyak 飼 *s-ljəks *(s-)lyak *-ik 節 *tsik＞*tsit *tsik 縊 *·iks, *·jiks *ik *-jik 蝨 *srjik＞*srjit *s-rik *-juk 曲 *khjuk *guk~kuk *-kw *-əkw 毒 *dəkw *duk~*tuk *-jəkw 腹 *phjəkw, *bjəkw *pu·k~*buk 六 *drjəkw *d-ruk Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese (Li Fang-Kuei) Proto-Tibeto-Burman *-m *-əm 含 *gəm *gam 頷 *gəm *gam *-jəm 飲 *·jəmx *am 尋 *ljəm *la[·]m *-jim 坅 *khjamx “pit” *kim *-um 三 *səm *g-sum *-jum 尋 *ljəm *lum *-n *-an 乾 *kan *kan *-jin 辛 *sjin *m-sin *-ng *-jəng 夢 *mjəngs *mang 蒸 *tjəng *tang *-jang 紡 *phjangx *pang 涼 *grjang *grang 迎 *ngrjang *ngang *-ing 盈 *bling *bling~pling *-jing 年 *ning＞*nin *ning 名 *mjing *r-ming 甥 *srjing *sring 薪 *sjing＞*sjin *sing 仁 *njing＞*njin *s-ning *-ngw *-jəngw 躬 *kjəngw *gung Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese (Li Fang-Kuei) Proto-Tibeto-Burman *-b *-əb 柔 *njəb＞*njəgw *nəw *-d *-əd *smjədx *məy *-ad 簸 *padx/s *pwa·y 太 *tads *tay 蜾 *kwadx *kwa·y 我 *ngadx *ngay 移 *lad *lay *-id 四 *sjids *b-liy *-jid 妣 *pjidx *piy 畀 *sbjids *biy 几 *krjidx *kriy 屎 *skhljidx *kliy 死 *sjidx *siy *-g *-əg 母 *məgx *ma *-jəg 負 *bjəgx *ba, *bak 子 *tsjəgx *tsa 慈 *dzjəg *m-dza 孳 *dzjəgs *za 耳 *njəgx *r-na~*g-na 牛 *ngwjəg *ngwa *-ag 補 *pagx *pa 苦 *khagx *ka 吾 *ngag *nga 五 *ngagx *l-nga~*b-nga 狐 *gwag *gwa *-jag 斧 *pjagx *r-pwa 夫 *pjag *(p)wa 父 *bjagx *pa 無 *mjag *ma 魚 *ngjag *ngya 咀 *dzjag *dza 汝 *njagx *na *-ug 口 *khugx *kuw 寇 *khugs *r-kuw *-jug 霧 *m(r)jugs *(r-)muw 軀 *khjug *(s-)kuw 乳 *njugx *nuw *-gw *-əgw 寶 *pəgwx *puw 抱 *bəgwx *buw *-jəgw 鳩 *kjəgw *kuw 九 *kjəgwx *d-kuw 舅 *gjəgwx *kuw *-agw 豪 *gagw *m/s-gaw 號 *gagws *gaw 熬 *ngagw *r-ngaw 臊 *sagw *sa·w *-jagw 飄/漂 *phjagw *pyaw Proto-Sino-Tibetan Old Chinese (Li Fang-Kuei) Proto-Tibeto-Burman *-l *-al 肝 *kan *m-kal *-ul 本 *pən *bul~*pul *-jul 銀 *ngjən *(d)-ngul 閩 *mjən *s-brul *-jal 疲 *brjal *bal *-il 洒 *silx *(m-)s(y)il *-r *-ar 播 *s-bars *bwar 皤 *bar, *par *pwa:r *-jar 販 *pjans *par 鮮 *sjan *sar *-uar 酸 *suan *swa·r *-jur 飛 *pjər *pur~*pir Words which do not have reliable Sinitic parallels are accompanied by a (TB). English Reconstruction by Old Chinese (Baxter-Sagart)[a][13] I. Peiros & S. Starostin J. Matisoff Person (in general) *mǐ *mi 民 *mi[ŋ] Male *pǎ *pʷa 父 *p(r)aʔ Female *məw *mow 母 *mˤoʔ (or məʔ) Name (of a person) *miəŋ *miŋ 名 *C.meŋ English Reconstruction by Old Chinese (Baxter-Sagart)[a] I. Peiros & S. Starostin J. Matisoff Earth *ƛǎy *ley ~ *ləy 地 *[l]ˤej-s Stone *ƛɨāŋ ~ *ƛɨāk *luŋ ~ *luk 琭 *[r]ˤok Sand *srāy *sa 沙 *sˤraj Fire *mēyH *mey 火 *[qʷʰ]ˤəjʔ[i] Smoke *gʰiw *kəw 熏 *qʰu[n] Water *tujʔ *t(w)i(y) 水 *s.turʔ Rain *(r-)qʰʷăH *rwa ~ *wa 雨 *C.ɢʷ(r)aʔ Sun *nǐy *nəy 日 *C.nik Moon (TB) *(s-)lăH *la N/A[ii] Star *(s-)q(ʰ)ār *kar 扈 *m-qˤaʔ[iii] Night *yăH *ya 夜 *[ɢ]Ak-s Tree *sĭŋ *siŋ ~ *sik 薪 *[s]i[n] Leaf *lăp *lap 葉 *l[a]p Plant root *bʰūl *bul ~ *pul 本 *C.pˤə[n]ʔ ^ See also the dialectal □ /*m̥əjʔ/ and 燬 /*m̥ajʔ/. ^ Chinese 月 /*[ŋ]ʷat/ is a descendant of another PST word, *s-ŋʷ(j)a-t. ^ Unclear. The more common word is 星 /*s-tsʰˤeŋ/, which is possibly related to 清 /*tsʰeŋ/, in turn from PST *(t)s(j)aŋ. English Reconstruction by Old Chinese (Baxter-Sagart)[a] I. Peiros & S. Starostin J. Matisoff Black, dark (TB) *nək *nak 黑 *m̥ˤək[i] White wār *hwār 皤 *[b]ˤar[ii] Big *tayH *tay 大 *lˤa[t]-s Cold *(k-)rǎŋ ~ *(k-)rǎk *glak ~ *glaŋ ~ *graŋ 涼 *C.raŋ Warm *lɨm *lim ~ *lum 融 *luŋ Long (TB) *rĭŋ *riŋ N/A New *cʰăr *sar 鮮 *s[a]r ^ It is possible that *s-nak is a descendant of *s-maŋ ~ s-mak (whence OC /*m̥ˤək/). ^ The more commonly used 白 /*bˤrak/ might be a derivation of it. English Reconstruction by Old Chinese (Baxter-Sagart)[a] I. Peiros & S. Starostin J. Matisoff To eat *ʒʰa *dzya 咀 *dzaʔ To drink *dʰɨn ~ *dʰɨŋ *daŋ ~ *doŋ To bite/chew *wā *wa To die *sǐy(H) *səy 死 *sijʔ To know, to think *siəH *syey 悉 *[s]i[t] To hear (TB) *tʰa(s) *ta N/A To sleep *mǐyH *mwəy 寐 *mi[t]-s To stand *ryəp *r(y)ap 立 *k.rəp To sit *tūŋ ~ *tūk *duŋ ~ *duk ~ *tuŋ ~ *tuk 住 *dro(ʔ)-s Give *pǐy *bəy 畀 *pi[k]-s Number Reconstruction by Old Chinese (Baxter-Sagart)[a] Old Tibetan[14] Old Burmese[14] I. Peiros & S. Starostin J. Matisoff 1 *dyiək *dik ~ *t(y)ik ~ *t(y)ak 一 *ʔi[t], 隻 *tek gcig ac, tac 2 *nǐy *ni 二 *ni[j]-s gnyis nhac < *nhik 3 *sɨm *sum 三 *s.rum gsum sumḥ 4 *lǐy *ləy 四 *s.li[j]-s bzhi liy 5 *ŋāH *ŋa 五 *C.ŋˤaʔ lnga ṅāḥ 6 *rūk *ruk 六 *k.ruk drug khrok < *khruk 7 *(s-)nǐt *ni 七 *[tsʰ]i[t] N/A[i] khu-nac 8 *ryēt *gyat ~ *ryat ~ *rit 八 *pˤret brgyad rhac < rhyat 9 *kwɨH *gəw ~ *kəw 九 *[k]uʔ dgu kuiḥ 10 *k(ʰ)ĭp *g(y)ip 十 *t.[g]əp N/A[ii] kip 100 *(p-)ryā *gya 百 *pˤrak brgya ryā ^ Tibetan bdun has unknown origins, likely used to avoid confusion with the similar-sounding "two". ^ Tibetan bcu is a descendant of another PST root, *tsjaj. ^ a b c d e For Old Chinese notations in the Baxter–Sagart system: Parentheses "()" indicate uncertain presence; Square brackets "[]" indicate uncertain identity, e.g. *[t] as coda may in fact be *-t or *-p; Angle brackets "" indicate infix; Hyphen "-" indicates morpheme boundary; Period "." indicates syllable boundary. Proto-Tibeto-Burman language For a list of words relating to Proto-Sino-Tibetan language, see the Proto-Sino-Tibetan language category of words in Wiktionary, the free dictionary.

^ a b Benedict, Paul K. (1972), Sino-Tibetan: A Conspectus (PDF), Cambridge University Press, ISBN 978-0-521-08175-7. ^ Sagart, Laurent; Jacques, Guillaume; Lai, Yunfan; Ryder, Robin J.; Thouzeau, Valentin; Greenhill, Simon J.; List, Johann-Mattis (6 May 2019). "Dated language phylogenies shed light on the ancestry of Sino-Tibetan". Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 116 (21): 10317–10322. Bibcode:2019PNAS..11610317S. doi:10.1073/pnas.1817972116. PMC 6534992. PMID 31061123. ^ Orlandi, Georg (2021). "Once again on the history and validity of the Sino-Tibetan bifurcate model". Journal of Language Relationship. 19 (4): 263–292. ^ Hill 2019. ^ van Driem, George (2007). "The diversity of the Tibeto-Burman language family and the linguistic ancestry of Chinese". Bulletin of Chinese Linguistics. 1 (2): 211–270. doi:10.1163/2405478X-90000023. ^ Egerod, Søren Christian. "Sino-Tibetan languages - Linguistic characteristics". Encyclopædia Britannica Online. Retrieved 10 July 2019. ^ Peiros, Ilia; Starostin, S.A. (1996). A comparative vocabulary of five Sino-Tibetan languages. Parkville, VIC: Univ. of Melbourne, Dept. of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. ISBN 9780732513504. ^ Hill 2019, p. 211. ^ Hill 2019, p. 234-235. ^ Hill 2019, p. 216. ^ Jacques, Guillaume (April 16, 2021). "Review of Hill (2019): The Historical Phonology of Tibetan, Burmese, and Chinese" (PDF). Journal of Historical Linguistics. 11 (1): 143–158. doi:10.1075/jhl.20001.jac. ISSN 2210-2116. Retrieved January 30, 2025. ^ Gong Huangcheng (龔煌城) (2003). 從原始漢藏語到上古漢語以及原始藏緬語的韻母演變 [Final changes from Proto-Sino-Tibetan to Old Chinese and Proto-Tibeto-Burman] (PDF). 古今通塞：漢語的歷史與發展. 第屆國際漢學會議論文集語言組 (in Chinese). pp. 187–223. Archived from the original (PDF) on 2020-11-03. Retrieved 22 October 2023. ^ Baxter, William H.; Sagart, Laurent. "The Baxter-Sagart reconstruction of Old Chinese". The Baxter-Sagart reconstruction of Old Chinese. Retrieved 10 August 2022. ^ a b Hill (2012). Hill, Nathan W. (2012), "The six vowel hypothesis of Old Chinese in comparative context", Bulletin of Chinese Linguistics, 6 (2): 1–69, doi:10.1163/2405478x-90000100. Hill, Nathan W. (2019). The Historical Phonology of Tibetan, Burmese, and Chinese. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/9781316550939. ISBN 978-1-316-55093-9. Matisoff, James A. (2003), Handbook of Proto-Tibeto-Burman: System and Philosophy of Sino-Tibetan Reconstruction, Berkeley: University of California Press, ISBN 978-0-520-09843-5. Retrieved from "