Innovations in Teaching and Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language

Applied Chinese Language Studies III

Edited by
Dian HUANG
Minjie XING

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Selected Papers from the British Chinese Language Teaching Society
2009, 2010 and 2011 International Symposiums

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Preface

The first volume of Collection of Papers by the British Chinese Language Teaching Society (BCLTS) was published in 2006 following the initiative of Dr Boping YUAN of Cambridge University. Then the Committee of BCLTS decided to select the papers presented at its annual conference and publish them biannually. Therefore the second volume of Collection of Papers was edited by Dr George X ZHANG of School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) and was published in 2008. The present paper collection is the third volume which is compiled into two parts. The first part contains the selected papers from *the 7th BCLTS International Symposium "Chinese Language Teaching and Learning: Theories and Practices"* at the University of Sheffield in 2009 *and the 8th BCLTS International Symposium "Pedagogy and the Chinese Foreign Language Classroom: Theory & Practice"* at the University of Cardiff in 2010. The second part contains the selected paper from *the 9th BCLTS International Symposium on Innovations in Teaching and Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language* at University of Edinburgh in 2011.

Many teachers made contributions to the publication of the 3rd volume of Collection of Papers. Special thanks should go to Sinolingua London Ltd. and its managing director Ms Jing RU and Ms Ranran DU for their sponsorship to the publication, to Dr Boping YUAN, the editor of the 1st volume for his ideas and for the editing guidelines, to Dr George ZHANG, the editor of the 2nd volume for his advices, to each member of BCLTS Executive Committee for their suggestions and consideration at the stage of selecting the papers, special thanks to Ms Linda LI and Dr Minjie XING for their liaison and coordination during the editing of the Collection of Papers.

Dian HUANG

Minjie XING

Contents

Part 2

Introduction

The first part of the third volume of Collection of Papers of BCLTS contains the papers by the Chinese teachers and researchers from the educational institutions in the United Kingdom, Singapore and Taiwan. The topics cover the latest issues of research and classroom practices on teaching and learning Chinese as a second/foreign language.

One of the issues that confronts most teachers is how to help complete beginners enter into the Chinese language world, feeling and understanding the Chinese language, remembering it and staying in the language for further Chinese studies. The second issue which becomes more salient in recent years is that more and more students who choose to learn Chinese in the British universities are not genuine beginners. They have pre-knowledge in one or two skills in using Chinese but have not attained enough four language skills to immerse with the groups at a higher level. Bearing these issues in mind, we organised the papers in the order of being from the topics on teaching and learning Chinese at beginner's level, progressing to higher student levels, then moving to the teaching and assessment of English native speakers learning Chinese; finally to younger learners in secondary schools which gives an insight to the British university teachers into how the non-beginners learned their Chinese before entering universities.

The first two articles draw attention to the thorny problems of learning Chinese characters. Dr Guo Zhiyan discusses the findings from an online research, based on a shorter version of Shen's (2005) questionnaires. She finally identifies the most commonly used learning strategies in tackling the problems of learning Chinese characters at beginner's level. Dr Lu Rugang reviews "character recognition and usage of words" issues in several Chinese textbooks along the line of the principle on triangle relations among shape, sound and meaning of Chinese characters. He comes out with the suggestions on the activities to improve character recognition and usage of words in future textbook design and development.

The third and fourth articles deal with the practical classroom teaching and learning activities. Addressing the importance of enhancing beginner's memory of Chinese linguistic items according to Boers

and Lindstromberg's (2006) model, Ms Huang Dian defines the approaches to visualize Chinese grammar and uses Chinese phonological patterns to motivate students entering Chinese. Ms Pang Zhaoxia presents various practical and effective classroom activities which can stimulate interactions among students in the classroom. She describes in details the contents of tasks and procedures of conducting the tasks at the preliminary levels, but the types of the activities can be extended to higher levels.

With the focus on improving communicative competence of continuing students, Miss Wang Dongshuo and Dr. Xing Minjie conduct their research on how to train successful language learners, using ethnographic methods. They explore the impact of the supervised activities outside the classroom between Chinese native speaker and non-native speakers on increasing learner's language proficiency and on inspiring student's continuation of learning Chinese.

The next two papers analyse the issues related to native English speakers learning Chinese. Dr Xu Shejiao lists and discusses the error types of producing Chinese by native English speaking learners at both preliminary and higher levels. Signalling out the major problems caused by the influence of English, Dr Xu increases teacher's awareness to solve these problems in lesson preparations. Associate Prof. Chen Liyu, associate Prof. Yang Geying and Zhang Jiezhi illustrate their research on English native speakers learning Chinese and propose how to design online Chinese teaching materials catering for the needs of English native speakers in order to fulfil the requirements of A1 and A2 in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages. In their paper, they observe the vocabulary and topics involving Chinese language teaching, learning and assessment under the CEFR. They also give the clear introduction of the first set of the Chinese learning online materials in Taiwan designed within the requirements of CEFR. Their paper gives a good reference to university teachers who are asked to present the Chinese curriculum in line with the CEFR by their home institutes.

As mentioned above, the numbers of the students who have pre-knowledge of Chinese but continue to learn Chinese at British universities are increasing. Teachers sometimes find it hard to balance their needs with those of the rest of the groups. The last two papers concentrate on the speaking assessment and speaking materials for secondary-school education, whose findings offer insights into how to help higher level students. Ms Hu Xiangqing, Dr. Hu Yuebao and Ms Lin Jihua present the speaking test items and marking criteria for "Functional Speaking Competency Test" based on their research on students at secondary schools in Singapore. Dr Zhong Guo Rong makes comparison among the teaching materials for speaking from mainland China, Singapore and Taiwan, illustrates the features of each set of materials and argues that priority should be given to teaching the language over introducing the culture in designing communicative teaching material in order to develop the speaking skill.

We wish the first part of this volume could provide the teachers of Chinese language the new information and ideas of development on teaching Chinese as a second/foreign language in Britain, in Singapore and in Taiwan during the last two years.

<div align="right">Dian HUANG, Zhiyan GUO</div>

Character Learning Strategies
among Beginners of Chinese: A Preliminary Study

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Introduction

The Chinese script is different from the Romanized scripts of European languages, in that it is made up of numbers of characters. Each character is constructed by radicals and strokes. Although strokes are the smallest unit of the writing systems, they seldom carry any meaning separately on their own. Each radical is formed by a number of strokes. There are certain patterns in the position of radicals, but how each stroke should position within a character is of a less clear pattern. There are two types of characters in terms of their physical structure, single element characters and compound characters. One Chinese word can be constituted by one or two characters, and sometimes by three or four characters. The difficulties lie in the fact that unlike alphabetical languages where a word's pronunciation derives more directly from its orthography, the relationship between pronunciation and orthographic form of the Chinese character is rather opaque, and therefore, it is harder to establish the link between pronunciation and print. In Chinese, there are only about 420 different syllables, or 1200 including four tones (Wang and Higgins, 2008), so there are words which have the same alphabetical spelling and tones, but can only be discriminated by its characters. In order to cope with the literary tasks such as reading local newspapers in China and participating more fully into life in China, native Chinese with a college education in Chinese have 3500 to 4000 words (Wang and Higgins, 2008).

Due to the differences in the Chinese script from that of European languages, learning Chinese, especially learning to read and write in Chinese characters has been perceived as 'bottle neck'

among learners of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL), as Luo (2007) claimed that remembering characters were reported to be the most difficult part of character learning for CFL learners. Beginners of Chinese, in particular, can be so intimidated by the Chinese scripts as not to progress into higher level of learning. Guder (2007) summarized the special features of the Chinese writing system as 'Third dimension' as opposed to linguistic and cultural elements as the first and second dimensions of learning. For this reason, learning Chinese is different from learning other foreign languages; in other words, learning to read and write in Chinese scripts requires particular attentions of learners, especially native speakers of European languages who have never experienced characters in learning their mother tongue and other languages. This dimension of learning Chinese is of vital importance in that it is the carrier of the linguistic and cultural dimensions, without the knowledge of which, the learning of Chinese may appear rootless. Therefore, to become literate in Chinese is the premise for further learning. In other words, it is inevitable to read and write characters in learning Chinese. As a matter of fact, the regularities exist in Chinese characters per se, which makes the learning still very manageable. With the increasing number of CFL learners in each sector of education throughout the world, specialists and practitioners have been endeavouring to tackle this difficulty and led to many successful cases.

Strategy use in teaching and learning Chinese characters

By the strategy use among language learners, we should draw largely from the studies on English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL), the exploration of which started in the mid 1970s (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). Oxford (1990) defined learning strategy as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p.8), and constructed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) based on the six categories she summarized. Due to the focus of this study on learning Chinese characters (which have little to do with listening and speaking Chinese), I chose the three most relevant ones: cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are specifically related to learning activities, i.e. the actual process of the language in learners' brain, such as attention, perception, memorization, resourcing (Oxford, 1990, Grenfell & Macaro, 2007); Meta-cognitive strategies refer to those processes of knowing about learning (O'Malley *et al,* 1985), and how students manage their own learning, such as selective attention, monitoring, evaluation, planning, preview, review and self-assessment (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); social/affective strategies acknowledges the importance of interacting with others and the involvement of students' feeling in language learning (Oxford, 1990). Even in EFL studies, it has been found that the more successful students tend to exert more metacognitive strategies on their learning (O'Malley *et*

al, 1985), and that there appears less research in social/affective strategies than in cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. However, the social/ affective should not be excluded since language learning was 'an adventure of the whole person, nor just a cognitive or metacogntive exercise' (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995, p. 18).

The practitioners have been investigating how to teach Chinese character effectively. Different models have been proposed of teaching Chinese characters to CFL learners, for example, Jiang (2007) claimed that CFL learners should aim to be able to recognize more characters than they can write. In terms of the number of characters that these learners should learn to write, Ding (2007) investigated that there are only around 922 Chinese characters which CFL learners should learn to both read and write, implying that the rest of over 2000 characters can be for reading only or not learning at all. While the feasibility of these proposals was yet to be established, practitioners came to divert their attention to how characters are learned, as Zhang and Li (2010) claimed that the cognitive process of CFL learners deserves sufficient attention.

Studies on learning characters revealed the relationship between phonology & character recognition. Perfetti & Zhang (1995) hypothesizd that characters' phonological information contributes to character recognition. Weekes, *et al* (1998) found that phonological processes are activated automatically in recognizing compound characters. In terms of morphographic processing versus character recognition, Taft and Zhu (1999) set up the interactive-activation model which stated that characters are recognized through activating the information about their component radicals. With the insights into how characters are generally processed in learners' brain, scholars have been endeavouring to look into specific learning strategies in processing Chinese characters. Hayes (1988) based his experiments on subjects of Chinese learners, figured out the types of subjects' errors made among phonological, graphic and semantic distracters, and concluded that the learners used both visual and graphic strategies to encode Chinese characters in a lexical context. However, this study did not base itself in actual classroom or daily learning, and thus may have ignored the multiple factors intermingling in the process of recognising Chinese characters.

Through his 5-week summer immersion programme, McGinnis (1999, cited in Shen 2005) found that beginners of Chinese tend to deploy the rote repetition learning and creation of mnemonics such as idiosyncratic stories in remembering particular characters, whereas orthographic knowledge was not preferred among those beginners. Also getting data from daily classroom of English-speaking first-year college CFL students, Ke (1998), after analysing students' self-evaluation of their own studies, pointed out that radical knowledge appeared more useful than creating stories among his students. Tseng's (2000, cited in Shen 2005) adopted the instrument of self-report among German-speaking college students at both beginning and advanced levels of Chinese, and found out 15 kinds of learning

strategies such as repeated writing, flash cards, decomposing compound characters into radicals/ smaller components, but this study did not analyse why and how the choices of strategies are affected. As a study involving a large number of participants, Shen (2005) investigated the strategy use of 95 university students from beginning to advanced levels of Chinese, through three surveys within one year and factor analysis, and found that students of all levels depend on orthographic knowledge in learning characters although the beginners' ability in this respect appear limited and therefore not very useful. Although the students in her study used both cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, there seems no mention of how the participants deploy social/affective strategies in their learning processes.

From the review so far, it is suggested that among the limited number of studies on how characters are learned, more attention should be paid to beginner students. According to Luo (2007), even in the curriculum design of the students who learn Chinese as a major, or as a foreign language, the beginning stage (first year) does not set up particular hours to learn Chinese characters, rather, the character learning was mixed with learning other skills such as listening, speaking in Chinese. This means that when students first come across Chinese characters, they may have been forced to leap to a higher level of character learning, without the stairs properly being set up in between. In other words, students may not have laid a solid foundation for their future learning of Chinese characters at the beginning stage.

The Current Study

With the aim of gaining a clearer understanding of how beginners learn Chinese characters, I conducted the current study among 36 beginner students who learned Chinese as a foreign language. I adapted Shen's (2005) questionnaire into a relatively short online (using quia) survey consisting of 39 questions: 3 bio-data questions, 33 statements and 3 free-response questions. The adaptation was mainly based on these students' knowledge of Chinese characters and the practical consideration that it did not take more than 20 minutes to complete the survey. Apart from the six questions that required their own responses, the students were asked to provide the Likert-scale rating between 1: never true of me and 5: always true of me for the 33 statements which covered most of the strategies that they possibly used in their process of learning Chinese characters during the academic year. In other words, they were asked to rate the frequency with which they used a particular strategy, rather than only indicating if they used it or not. The formal request for completing the online survey was made at the end of the year when these students were about to finish their first year of learning Chinese as their optional module: 69 contact hours. Prior to the request, I emailed them the consent letter which

stated the purpose of the study. On the voluntary basis thirty-six undergraduate students completed the questionnaire. They were from different countries but all with English as their instructional language. Apart from the online survey, another part of data came from the students' self-report which was provided in their answers to the three free response questions, and also in their individual discussion with their teacher about their character learning, when they summarised and evaluated their ways of learning Chinese characters with examples of their successes.

As a teacher and researcher, I had other purposes of carrying out this study, such as raising the awareness of different learning strategies among beginners of Chinese and providing implicit instructions to those less successful learners in Chinese characters, gaining insights into the most effective approach to teaching these strategies. Specifically, the study aims to answer the following two questions:

What are the strategies that these beginners of Chinese use?

Is there any strategy pattern among these beginners in terms of learning strategies?

Results

The data analysis was approached in both quantitative and qualitative methods by inputting their rating to each of the 33 statements into SPSS and coding the students' self-report. The sample size of the study allowed the use of the SPSS to carry out the analysis for students' answers. The descriptive analysis demonstrated that Reliability is 0.707 (Table 1), which means that the data obtained in this study can be relied on. That is, the descriptive analysis can be validly used to gain insights into the strategy use by these beginner students.

Table 1: Reliability & Scale ALL VARIABLES

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.707	33

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	34	94.4
	Excluded[a]	2	5.6
	Total	36	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

The descriptive data also answered the research questions. A series of strategies were identified among these beginners of Chinese and these strategies can be further categorised into three types:

cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective. According to the data shown in Table 2, among the 33 strategies, 21 strategies can be taken as more commonly used strategies with the mean 3-5, and 12 strategies with the mean 2-3 as less commonly used strategies. The strategies with the mean of higher than 4 indicated that they were used most frequently. They are listed below:

Say the character to myself as I write it repeatedly;

Try to recognize the radicals (components) that I have already learned;

Look in the textbook or dictionary to check a character's (or word's) meaning or pronunciation when I am not sure of them.

The strategy with the lowest mean still exceeded 2 (> 2): *Discuss with other students the methods of memorizing characters.* The descriptive statistics demonstrated that the statements of strategies were highly relevant to these students' character learning; and that the students' use of social/affective strategies appears less frequent than their use of cognitive strategies.

Table 2: Use of strategies among the beginners of Chinese

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q4 Listen carefully to the pronunciation and tone of the character and associate them with pinyin.	3.5833	1.05221
Q5 Repeat the character several times aloud or silently to myself in order to remember its pronunciation, shape and meaning.	3.8611	1.15022
Q6 Try to use the character in a sentence orally.	3.2500	1.07902
Q7 Try to associate the sound of the character with its shape and meaning.	3.1667	1.40408
Q8 Feel that I remember the character better if I know how to pronounce it first.	3.6111	1.45951
Q9 Look carefully at the stroke order in writing a character, and try to visualize it.	3.3056	1.11661
Q10 Find it more useful to demonstrate stroke orders by computer animation than manually.	3.0278	1.44393
Q11 Do not find useful the demonstration of a stroke order in any way to remember the character.	2.3611	1.15022
Q12 Listen carefully to the explanation of how the sound or meaning of the character is derived.	3.6111	.90326
Q13 Try to recognize the radicals (components) that I have already learned.	4.0278	.99960
Q14 Observe what radicals are in a character and try to make sense of why certain phonetic and/or semantic (meaning) components are there.	3.6389	1.04616
Q15 Try to make a story of the radicals/components in a character.	2.8611	1.12511

Q16 Associate the new character with previously learned radicals to find connections among sound, shape and meaning.	3.8056	1.03701
Q17 Say the character (or word) to myself as I write it repeatedly.	4.1111	.88730
Q18 Say the character (or word) over and over again to myself, trying to picture what the character looks like in my mind.	3.4571	1.19663
Q19 Write the character many times in the air, visualising it in my mind.	2.8889	1.36858
Q20 Write a character many times, covering the one previously done to avoid the pure copying.	3.5833	1.27335
Q21 Use my imagination to associate a character with a picture/image, as if each character is a picture.	2.8611	1.04616
Q22 Group the characters/words with similar shapes/appearances, similar sound, or similar meaning.	3.0857	1.14716
Q23 Classify characters/words into different categories according to their shared radicals.	2.6944	1.03701
Q24 Make my own flashcards and flip through them many times to familirize myself with sound, shape and meaning, then I write down many times of those I don't remember.	2.5833	1.46141
Q25 Discuss with other students the methods of memorizing characters.	2.0833	1.07902
Q26 Memorize the characters (or words), then have someone (friends, language partner, etc.) quiz me.	2.6111	1.27117
Q27 Quiz myself during the memorization; for example, given the sound, I try to think of the character's shape and meaning.	3.4722	1.15847
Q28 Memorize the shape of the character first, then the pronunciation.	2.3889	1.12828
Q29 Make sentences or phrases with the new characters, and/or write the sentences down.	3.0278	1.23024
Q30 Find the teacher's worksheets about characters more useful than the workbook exercises.	3.4444	.87650
Q31 Convert the character (or words) to my native language and find an equivalent in meaning.	3.0556	1.28607
Q32 Ask others (e.g. teacher, classmates, language partner, friend) and remember better, when I don't know what a character or word means and/or how to pronounce it.	3.2778	1.18590
Q33 Look in the textbook or dictionary to check a character's (or word's) meaning or pronunciation when I am not sure of them.	4.0556	1.04045
Q34 Plan my time to preview the new characters before learning the lesson in class.	2.1389	.99003
Q35 Plan my time to review the characters/words regularly.	2.9444	.95452
Q36 Review characters only before exams.	2.8611	1.29069

In order to determine the factors underpinning the strategy use among these beginners of Chinese, a factor analysis was conducted, using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation Method.

Table 3 with KMO & Bartlette's Test showed that the Sig. of : .000 indicated that the factor analysis can be used in this study.

Table 3: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.102
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	852.537
	df	528
	Sig.	.000

Table 4: Heavily Loaded Components/Factors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.701	17.275	17.275
2	3.587	10.869	28.144
3	3.098	9.389	37.534

Table 5: Rotated Component (Factor) Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
Q4	-.277	.118	.677
Q5	.024	.050	.757
Q6	.366	.127	.352
Q7	.171	-.201	.470
Q8	-.122	-.026	.426
Q9	.137	-.045	.557
Q10	.131	.389	.235
Q11	.061	-.581	-.330
Q12	.306	.126	.533
Q13	-.226	.569	.028
Q14	-.058	.771	.168
Q15	-.123	.391	.232
Q16	.099	.831	-.012
Q17	.461	.110	.354
Q18	.580	.235	.176

Q19	.121	.604	-.150
Q20	.315	.441	-.118
Q21	.149	.441	.269
Q22	.089	.435	-.161
Q23	.098	.592	-.252
Q24	.498	-.137	-.054
Q25	.714	.167	-.066
Q26	.665	.014	-.400
Q27	.657	.140	.068
Q28	.546	.499	.225
Q29	.465	.151	-.183
Q30	.040	.054	-.013
Q31	-.508	.151	-.083
Q32	.163	-.190	.044
Q33	.432	-.217	.238
Q34	.698	.171	.133
Q35	.559	-.061	.317
Q36	-.384	-.007	-.523

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Altogether three heavily loaded factors were extracted from all the strategies used by the beginner learners of Chinese in this study. Table 4 and 5 showed the total variance explained by these three factors and the rotated component matrix, in which I chose those values higher than 0.5 to interpret these factors.

Factor 1 explains 17% variances and represents 7 strategy items (Q18, 25, 26, 27, 28, 34, 35). It can be mainly related to three processes of character learning: applying phonological knowledge, planning their character learning by preview and review, and learning characters through interacting with others. Factor 2 is heavily loaded in 5 strategy items (13,14,16,19,23) and explains 10% variances. It is suggested that these beginners of Chinese learn characters through the orthographic knowledge, with awareness of the important role of radicals and repeated writing. Factor 3 explains 7% of variances and represents 4 strategy items (4,5,9,12). It further suggests that the students depend on the assistance of phonological processing in memorizing characters, getting more aware of the phonetic-semantic way of constructing characters.

From the students' self-report, it has also been found that they used other resources than the textbook, including self-made flash cards, their own mini-dictionary containing the words to be learned, other recommended reference books such as the one which associated character learning with making up stories around certain characters, listening to the CD accompanying the textbook, the online resources such as the ones with computer animation of characters, online dictionaries, online chatting in Chinese through QQ or Skype or by typing in pinyin to get to choose from a list of characters. This suggested that the students not just adopted the traditional way of learning through reading paper-prints, but also deployed the information and digital technology to make a good use of websites and online materials.

In the students' response to what the most interesting way is of learning Chinese characters during the year of study, there were three themes emerging. The most highly regarded was contextualizing character learning through reading exercises and writing on paper or typing in pinyin to choose from a list of characters, listening and making up dialogues including role-play, online chatting with native or non-native speakers of Chinese, the second most frequently cited was making up stories, even silly stories in order to remember characters; and the almost equally frequently mentioned strategy was learning and recognizing radicals.

Discussion

This group of CFL beginners were found to use a series of strategies to tackle the learning of characters and these strategies can be categorised into cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective strategies. Specifically, the most frequently used were repeated writing with the aid of pronunciation, recognition of the radicals already learned, and looking up dictionaries for unknown characters; among these three strategies, the one relating to the repeated writing appears to be consistent with McGinnis' (1999, cited in Shen 2005) study where rote repetition were most frequently used among his 29 English-speaking students during their five week summer immersion programme. The use of radicals in learning new characters appears to support Ke's (1998), Everson (2007) and Shen's (2005) finding that the orthographic knowledge was largely applied in character learning.

Meanwhile, the learners made use of their social group such as language partners or classmates in learning characters, though not as frequently as they do with cognitive strategies. This suggests that while cognitive strategies were taken as most often adopted, social/affective strategies were already in place of these students' character learning processes. In terms of frequency of use, meta-cognitive strategies stood between cognitive and social/affective strategies of learning characters, such

as planned review and preview. It seems certain that the students, in spite of being at the beginning stage of their Chinese learning, have adopted not just cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, but also social/affective strategies, which other previous studies did not seem to reveal much about.

The relative more use of the social/affective strategy among these beginners of Chinese than in the previous studies may have been caused by three reasons. First, due to the fact that native Chinese speaking students took up the largest population of international students on campus of the University, it was quite easy for these learners to find someone of similar age to practise their Chinese with. Also one student society had an exchange scheme to establish language partnership between native and non-native speakers. Via this scheme, some of the beginners of Chinese in my study had native speakers for practice outside class. Second, the substantial use of communication technology such as online synchronous chatting tools allowed the learners to interact with people throughout the world in the target language. Even the online social networking tools such as Facebook enabled the learners to receive quicker response from their language partners, which further encouraged the use of social strategy in their Chinese learning. Third, the use of pair/group work in learning characters in class may also have led to the habit that the students shared their strategies with their mates, which in a sense also promoted the social learning.

Beginners in this study used cognitive, meta-cognitive and social strategies in their first year study of Chinese. It should be noted that, while beginners of Chinese adopted certain numbers of strategies in their process of learning Chinese characters, the use of these strategies may not be intact and stable for a long time. Rather, they are likely to change with time and situations of learning. Also, although their strategy use may have been influenced by their prior learning experience of their first language or other languages (Kellerman, 1991, cited in Grenfell & Macaro, 2007), the formation of beginners' strategies is largely affected by how they are taught. Teacher's instruction and classroom ethos have great impacts on their strategy use. Although as a teacher, I did not deliberately deliver any session on strategies of learning Chinese characters, the weekly Chinese lessons may well have fostered the learners' understanding of the intrinsic features of characters. Therefore, the students' use of orthographic knowledge in their learning of Chinese characters may well stem from their classroom learning.

This group of students were found to use the radical knowledge and story-making almost equally frequently in their character learning. This seems to suggest that learning of Chinese characters can be affected by human memory, in that the regularity of remembering or not remembering certain characters may not appear formal and linear. Although making up stories as scientific method or a formal strategy may be criticised by scholars and experts in Chinese characters, this strategy was used actually by this group of beginners. This can be suggested that although our teaching should not focus on this strategy, its use among students themselves should not be forbidden and ignored.

The findings of this study can also feedback further into our teaching practice. For these beginners who have never learned Chinese before, it can be a good idea to integrate strategy teaching into language classroom for CFL students, as Oxford (1990) pointed out that strategy training succeeded best when it is woven into regular class activities on a normal basis. Also strategy training is very necessary as it not only can provide instruction to those less successful learners, but also can encourage students to use new strategies beyond their normal stylistic boundaries, by informing learners overtly that particular behaviours or strategies are likely to be helpful and teaching them how to use them and how to transfer it to new situations of learning.

Even when it is not possible to set up a separate course for learning Chinese characters, within the contact hours of involving the development of multiple skills, certain amount of time should be set aside to explain the orthographic knowledge of characters. This practice gained support from Shen's (2005) study, where she found that through instructor-guided elaboration, students were able to develop a consistent awareness of various orthographic principles of Chinese characters, and apply these principles when learning new characters. For example, teachers can create more exercises on characters as part of revisions, e.g. putting together the characters which look very similar to each other, and encouraging students to pick up the differences between them, grouping characters with the same radicals or grouping homophones. This may help students establish orthographic system as early as possible in their character learning process.

While teachers can explain radicals in details, help students associate with the previously learned radicals/characters, teachers should encourage more social learning, for example, to help form language partnership (e.g. study group), elicit more discussions on strategy use among learners themselves within class hours and set up online discussion via voice tools, e.g. Wimba Voice Conference. In addition, character writing should be guided in class without assumption that they can write themselves, i.e. certain class time needs to be allocated to writing and explaining new characters as well as revising the old ones, rather than leaving everything related to writing characters at students' disposal outside classroom; also, guidance towards the Chinese writing system appears essential for those who had only experienced phonetic scripts in their language learning.

Concluding remarks

Due to the small scale of this study and the size of data, it was not possible to look into the choice of learning strategies, e.g. if engineering students are more likely to use analytical strategies than humanities students in learning Chinese characters. The questionnaire can be designed with more focus

on the features of Chinese characters themselves, so that the later interpretation may become more reliable. This study can be taken as a preliminary study, the next stage will be exploring the effectiveness of the strategies, the relation between strategies of learning characters and students' general learning style and how these strategies can be associated with students existing culturally inculcated values. Future research may also be directed to investigate how individuals of different personalities and learning styles affect their use of strategies and differences in the strategy use in recognizing characters of various semantic and phonetic combinations.

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"识字用词"原则与对外汉语教学材料编写

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引言

在非汉字文化圈的对外汉语教学中，由于汉语的"语"与"文"的特殊关系，汉字教学成了对外汉语教学的瓶颈。在实际的课堂教学和教材设计中，对应该如何处理"语"与"文"的关系一直存在着两个基本分歧：即"字本位"与"词本位"的分歧，"认写同步"与"认写分流"的分歧。对这两个基本分歧的认识直接关系到课程大纲、教材和教学方法的设计和操作。本文以相关的汉字教学研究为参考，提出对外汉语教学的"识字用词"这一"中庸"性原则，并以作者所编的网上课外汉语学习材料为实例，阐述该原则对对外汉语教学的指导意义。

本文拟从以下三方面展开讨论：第一部分简要阐述"识字用词"原则的基本理据。第二部分说明"识字用词"原则的基本内容。第三部分用三个课外练习为实例，具体分析"识字用词"原则在对外汉语教学中的应用对教学材料的设计及学习要求的直接影响。文章最后简要论述该原则应用于实际教学材料编写时所需要注意的问题。

1. "识字用词"原则的理据

作为对外汉语教学的一个重要组成部分，汉语教学材料的设计和编写涉及到教学理念、教学大纲、教学法、汉语语言与文化特征等众多因素。语言材料如何设计、怎么编写不仅直接关系到学生语言知识的培养和语言技能的习得，而且还关系到学生文化意识的提高和学习策略的运用。国内的对外汉语教学研究，尤其是自上世纪 80 年代以来，通过借鉴引进和融合开拓，在教学模式和教学方法上的研究已著有成效。在对外汉语教学界，人们普遍认为汉语的"文字"

与"语言"的关系跟西方语言的"文字"与"语言"截然不同，对外汉语教学模式的建立与教学方法的创新应该从汉语和汉字本身的特点出发，而不应该生搬硬套西方的语言教学法（徐通锵，1994；李大遂，2000；王宁，2006；赵金铭，2008）。汉语与西方语言在"文字"与"语言"关系上的差异是本文提出对外汉语教学材料编写中应遵循"识字用词"原则的重要理据。

汉语与西方语言在"文字"与"语言"关系上的差异归根结底是"表意"与"表音"之间的差异。英语、法语、西班牙语等印欧语系语言，其文字属于表音语言，是用一系列的声音符号表达概念或者交际目的（Ellis, 2003），即文字的功能是以音达义，"而表音文字的形体和意义之间没有任何关联"（周小兵，2009, p.94）。与表音文字不同，汉字是由象形文字发展而来的表意文字，其符号系统不仅"图画性"和"理据性"（周小兵，同上）很强，而且"从中国传统语言文字学理论说来，汉字是形音义三位一体的文字"（李大遂，2009, p.99）。并且汉字的形音义三要素是有表里之分的，"形为表，音、义为里，其中义为终极之里"（李大遂，同上）。换而言之，汉字是由形及音之义的表意符号系统。"跟表音文字相比，作为表意文字的汉字，它的特殊性很明显。汉字的基本单位是单字，每个字都有字形和字音，绝大多数汉字都有字义"（施春宏，2009, p.270）。

笔者曾从当代多模态符号学理论的视角出发，分析表音文字与表意文字之间的差异，指出表音文字属于"单模态符号"而汉字属于"双模态符号"（Lu, 2009, p.125）。汉语语言文字与西方语言文字在符号模态上的差异进一步导致了识字 (literacy) 途径的差异。表音文字是以"音"作为"单模态符号"的，符号的解码过程，即识字过程，为"字—音—义"。因此，表音文字的识字教学着重于理解和内化"拼写形式—读音音素"(grapheme-phoneme) 的对应关系。而汉语语言文字是形、音结合的"双模态符号"，汉字符号的解码过程为"字—形与音—义"，因此，汉语的识字教学既要理解和内化"字形—语素"(grapheme-morpheme) 的对应关系，又要掌握"音—义"的对应关系。就对外汉语教学来说，汉字的双模态特征既是汉字的优点也是汉字的缺点。汉字的这种优缺点并存的现象可以用图一的练习来说明：

请选择下列"汉字"的词义和读音：

薲		焣		沴	
词义：		**词义：**		**词义：**	
a) 一种草	b) 一种树	a) 用火炖	b) 用水泡	a) 用水洗	b) 用手捞
c) 一种虫	d) 不知道	c) 用石垫	d) 不知道	c) 用火烫	d) 不知道
读音：		**读音：**		**读音：**	
a) zhī	b) zěn	a) kán	b) chěn	a) liǎng	b) liáng
c) sín	d) 不知道	c) tí	d) 不知道	c) liàng	d) 不知道

图一：词义与读音选择

　　尽管谁也不认识以上三个杜撰的"汉字"，但学习者只要掌握了基本的汉字结构和偏旁知识，就会在三个字的词义选项中都选 a) 而在读音选项中都选 d)。可见，汉字的优势在于"可以绕过读音，直接由形及义"（Hoosain, 1991, p.12），即由视觉模态符号直接表意；而汉字的劣势在于没法直接从书写符号判断字的读音。虽然绝大多数汉字是形声字，但大多数形声字仍然不能直接根据声旁读音。也就是说，汉语的声音模态与书写符号基本上是分离的，即汉语的"语""文"分离现象。正因为汉语存在这种"语"与"文"的特殊关系，汉字教学成了对外汉语教学的瓶颈。

　　在对外汉语的起步教学中，编写教学材料时如何解开汉字教学这一瓶颈，目前存在三种基本途径。第一种是"走捷径"（the easy way），即撇开汉字，直接用拼音编写，其典型教材是由 Willians 和 Wu 编写的 "*Chinese The Easy Way*"。第二种是"走实用途径"（the practical way），即起始阶段拼音与汉字并用，等学会了最基础的汉语和汉字以后再直接用汉字，其典型教材是由刘珣主编的《新实用汉语课本》。第三种是走"步步登攀的途径"（in steps），即直接用汉字编写，一步一步地学中文，其典型教材是由张新生主编的《步步高中文》。除了以上三种基本途径以外，还存在一种被称为"双轨制"的汉语教材。双轨制教材的编写，从实质上讲，是同时采用了上面的第一种和第三种教材编写理念。

　　以上这些对外汉语教学材料的编写理念在实际应用过程中还牵涉到对外汉语教学的两个基本分歧，即"字本位"与"词本位"的分歧，"认写同步"与"认写分流"的分歧。前一个分歧是关于对外汉语教学和教材编写的基本语言单位是什么，后一个分歧是关于汉字应该怎么教学。在上世纪 60 年代和 70 年代，在西方结构语言学的启发下，丁声树、吕叔湘、朱德熙等学者在汉语语法的研究和教学中使用或者说引进了词素、语素、短语等新的语法单位并进行了著有成效的研究，逐渐形成了以词作为基本语法单位的词本位理论。该理论对对外汉语教学材料的编写，特别是以母语为印欧语系的成人为授课对象的汉语教学材料的编写，具有建设性的指导意义。因为词本位理论的建构是以西方结构语言学为基本框架的，从二语习得的正迁移理论角度讲，以词本位为编写原则的教学材料比较容易被母语为印欧语系的成人接受，从而可以提高汉语习得的效率。

　　但由于汉语的语与文的特殊关系，以结构语言学为基本框架的词本位理论并不完全适合对外汉语教学中的"中文"教学。换句话说，词本位理论用于"语文同步"的对外汉语教学时存在严重缺陷。词本位理论非但不能提高学习中文的效率，反而有可能增加学习者的学习负担，因为汉语的基础词汇量远远大于汉语的基础汉字量。更何况语言学界普遍认为汉语的最小独立文字单位是字，而汉语中究竟有没有现成的词这样一种语言单位在汉语界还存在不少质疑。因此，一些研究者，如赵元任、徐通锵、潘文国、吕必松等，从中国传统语言文字学角度出发，对词本位理论的缺陷进行了反思，并对汉字与汉语的教学与研究进行了积极的探讨。特别是徐通锵先生在上世纪 90 年代撰写了一系列的文章阐述和发展了"字本位"理论。该理论的提出为对外汉语教学材料的编写开拓了新思路。"探索对外汉语教学新体系的学者，多以'字本

位＇理论为指导"（李大遂，2009，p.104）。但在印欧语系里，语言的基本语言单位是词而不是字。以字本位为编写原则的教学材料，从二语习得的负迁移理论角度讲，会给母语为印欧语系的成人学习汉语增加难度，并且其实际教学效果如何还缺乏系统的实证性研究。有必要指出，词本位与字本位理论的研究切入点并不一致。前者聚焦于"语"而后者聚焦于"文"。由于汉语的语与文的特殊关系，这两种理论具有很强的互补性。但语毕竟有别于文，词本位毕竟不同于字本位。它们之间的分歧直接影响到对外汉语教学材料的编写。

对外汉语教学中的另一个基本分歧，"认写同步"与"认写分流"的分歧，所涉及的是汉字教学的认读与书写关系。"在汉字学习中，汉字的认读和书写是两项互相联系但又各不相同的任务"（江新，2007, p. 91）。在传统上，对外汉语教学中的识字教学主张认读和书写同步进行。但在实际教学过程中人们发现，对非汉字文化圈的学生来说，汉字学习要做到能读会写难度非常大。如果处理不好，认读与书写就会成为牵制学生提高汉语水平的两个套索。为了给非汉字文化圈学生的识字学习解套，一些研究者提出了"认写分流"的主张。宋连谊（2000）和江新（2007）还就"认写分流"的教学效果进行了实证性研究，一致认为"在写字量减少、书写要求降低的条件下，学习者的识字效果不是降低而是提高"（江新，2007, p.95）。并且江新的实证研究还发现，在教学时段和学生已有汉字知识基本相同的条件下，实行认写分流授课的学生，与实行认写同步授课的学生相比，认写分流授课的学生写字测试成绩不但不会下降反而会提高。这些实证性研究发现是本文提出对外汉语教学材料编写中应遵循"识字用词"原则的另一个重要理据。

综上所述，作为表意文字，汉语的语与文的关系有别于表音文字的语与文的关系。表音文字是以读音单模态符号表达词义的，而汉字是以字形视觉模态和读音声音模态来表达字义的，并且汉语的声音模态与书写符号基本上是分离的，因此汉字成了对外汉语教学的瓶颈。在对外汉语教学材料的编写中，由于编写者的编写理念各有不同，对如何解开汉字教学瓶颈存在三种基本途径和两个基本分歧。但到目前为止，对外汉语教学界就对外汉语教学中处理语与文的原则的争议并无定论。基于以上相关论述，本文提出在对外汉语教学中应该遵循"识字用词"原则。

2.“识字用词”原则的基本内容

本文所提出的"识字用词"原则是指在对外汉语教学中处理汉语的语言与文字这一特殊关系时应该遵循"以识字为手段，用词为目的"这样一个"中庸"性原则。首先，该原则承认汉语语言文字的基本单位是字而不是词；其次，该原则肯定汉语话语的基本单位是词而不是字；最后，该原则确认在对外汉语教学中识字的目的是为了学会汉语。下面具体说明该原则的基本内容。

识字

在中国传统语言文字学理论中，汉字是形、音、义结合的最小语言单位，而在现代汉语语法中，"语素是最小的音义结合体"（兰宾汉、邢向东，2006, p.207）。也就是说，一个形、音、义三位一体的汉字是一个语素，并且往往是一个独立语素，即一个词。因此，在"识字用词"原则中，识字是要求学生对所学汉字正确建立汉字的形、音、义"语素三角"关系。以汉字"妈"为例，其"语素三角"关系图示如下：
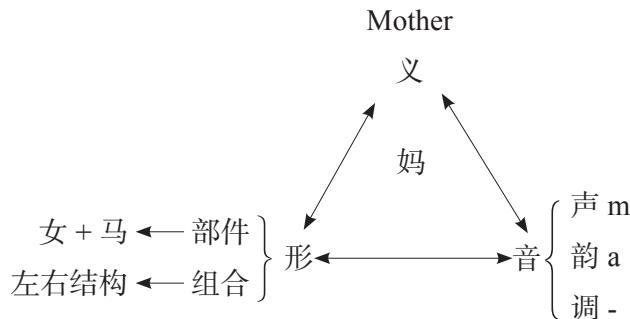
图二：汉字"妈"的语素三角

如图所示，在汉字形、音、义语素三角关系中，字形知识要求学生掌握汉字结构的"部件"与"组合"关系；字音知识要求学生掌握读音的声母、韵母和四声；字义知识则要求学生能在所学汉字与相关语言的词义之间建立联系。

用词

在"识字用词"原则中，用词要求学生做到"用词三会"，即会用所学汉字构词、遣词、造句。

在对外汉语教学中，学好汉语的关键之一是熟悉汉语"缀字成词"的语素合成方式，即构词方式。汉语词汇的主要特点是用数量不多的语素构成大量的合成词；并且这些数量不多的语素本身往往是使用频率高、分布范围广的单音节词，是汉语基础词汇的重要组成部分。在掌握这些基础词汇的同时，熟悉偏正、联合、支配、陈述、补充五大类复合构词手段，并着重理解偏正式构词手段。因为偏正式是汉语描述世界的主要认知方式，是汉语最主要、最活跃的构词和遣词手段。

从纯粹的语言角度讲，汉语难并不难在汉字和句法，而是难在词法。前面谈到的构词是词法的一部分，词法还包括词的变化和分类。构词着重的是掌握词的狭义，即词汇意义。在"用词三会"中，遣词强调的是掌握词的广义，即词的语法意义，是按照一定的规则组成词组短语，是字、词意义与句法结构的连结点，是外语汉语教学的主要内容之一，也是衡量一个学生汉语

水平高低的重要依据。

在"用词三会"中，造句则要求学生会用所学的词表达既符合句法结构又符合语用规则的完整意思。用词造句可以小到一个词，大到一个复句，甚至是一个句群。

从以上说明中可以看出，本文所提出的识字用词原则是指在对外汉语教学中要求学生既能正确建立汉字的形、音、义"语素三角"关系，又会以所学汉字作为语素来分析汉语的基本语言单位，即分析词的构成结构，也会按照一定的规则用词组成汉语词组短语，还会根据交际需要用词或词组表达完整的意思。

在用词三会中，对三会的掌握程度应该有所区别。对构词手段只要求有理论认识；对遣词既要有理论认识，又要有实践认识；而造句则是学习的目的，因为造句是指根据交际需要用词或词组表达完整的意思，即"以词达意"。

在本文所提出的识字用词原则中，"识字"要求高于普通意义上的"认字"要求。"识字"要求对所学汉字能"知根知底"；而"认字"往往只要求做到"似曾相识"。笔者认为，在对外汉语的识字教学中，对汉字的正确书写可以不作严格要求，因为书写纯粹是一种记录手段，跟汉语水平无关。更何况，随着现代科技的发展，笔仅仅作为一种记录工具，已经逐步被其它工具如计算机、手机等所替代，用笔正确书写汉字的必要性也因此而逐渐减少。

3. "识字用词"原则与教学材料实例分析

笔者在英国南安普敦大学的对外汉语教学中，根据所用教材《步步高中文》一到三册的每一课教学内容，用 Hotpotatoes 和 Learning Object Creator Tool 两个教学软件设计编写了一系列基于网络的课外学习材料。编写这些课外学习材料的目的和动机是：a) 为了填补教材的缺陷；b) 为了使课内课外的学习有机结合；c) 为了适合学生的学习习惯；d) 为了符合教学要求。编写的基本理念和原则是：a) 识字用词原则；b) 语言输入理论；c) 教育心理学的强化记忆理论。所编课外学习材料的主要内容有：a) 生词练习；b) 组句练习；c) 对话练习；d) 填空练习；e) 短文阅读练习。限于篇幅，本文无法对以上编写目的、编写原则、学习内容等展开具体讨论。本文只对"识字用词"原则与组句练习编写作举例讨论。

组句练习是对外汉语教学中经常采用的一种练习形式。该练习要求学生把所给文字组成符合汉语语法结构和逻辑的句子。但由于汉语的字与词的特殊关系，编写练习时是给出独立汉字还是独立词，会直接影响到练习的难度和学习效果。以笔者为《步步高中文》第二十一课编写的配套练习中的组句练习为例。该课的网上练习中共有六个组句练习。图三所示的是组句练习一的网页页面的一部分：

| 让 | 白比德 | 可是 | 他 | 喝 | 喝 | 。 | 啤酒 | ， | 很 | 医生 | 喜欢 | 不 |

图三：组句练习例一

该练习是用 Hotpotatoes 软件编写的。做练习时，学生只需要根据《步步高中文》第三册第二十一课所学过的重点句型，用鼠标把所给词语逐一拖到上面的横线中组成一句既符合语法结构又符合逻辑的句子。该句的答案为"白比德很喜欢喝啤酒，可是医生不让他喝。"所给的汉字都是已经学过并要求掌握的。前一个分句"白比德很喜欢喝啤酒"是在第一册中学过的句型，而后一个转折分句"可是医生不让他喝"是本课中的新句型。可见，该练习既符合二语习得中关于输入语言的可理解性和"i+1"的原则，又符合教育心理学中关于强化记忆的出现频率和感知显著性理论。并且，从图中可以看出，该练习是以"词本位"为编写原则的，与印欧语系语言以词达意的语言规则相一致，从二语习得的正迁移理论角度讲，有利于英国学生学习汉语时的目的语内化。

可是从本文提出的"识字用词"角度讲，图三的组句练习明显存在三个缺陷。首先，该练习没有充分体现出识字原则，特别是忽略了汉字"语素三角"关系中的字音成分。其次，该练习没有体现出汉语"缀字成词"的特点。最后的一个缺陷与前面的两个缺陷相关联，做练习时，学生的学习过程过于机械、被动，不利于语言生成能力的培养。为了弥补这些缺陷，笔者正在用 Learning Object Creator Tool 软件，重新编写配套练习。图四所示的是《步步高中文》第一册第三课的配套练习中的一个组句练习网页页面的一部分：

方 是 您 太 不 老 太 是 师 ？

图四：组句练习例二

与图三的组句练习相比，图四的组句练习有两点明显不同。第一、该练习要求学生打字输入答案而不是机械地用鼠标拖放所给词语。第二、该练习所给出的是独立汉字而不是词。在英国学习汉语的学生一般都是用拼音输入汉字的，在打字过程中，学生通过拼音和挑选所需字（或词）强化了所学汉字的"音—形—义"语素三角关系。并且，汉语语言文字的最小语言单位是字而不是词，词是根据语义缀字而成的；因此，所给的独立汉字往往可以自由组合成不同的词和句子。例如，图四中的这些汉字可以组合成"方老师是不是您太太？"、"您太太是不是方老师？"、"方太太您是不是老师？"、"方太太是不是您老师？"等多个不同的问句。学生通过缀字成词和遣词成句，增加了对汉语的字与句的内在关系的理解，强化了所学汉语的内化过程。可见，与图三中的组句练习相比，图四中的组句练习更能体现出本文所提出的识字用词原

则，也更能体现出汉语语言文字的特性。

但必须指出，图四的这种组句练习形式明显增加了学习难度。首先，"缀字成词"不符合英语为母语的学生已有的"以词达意"的语言习惯，从二语习得的负迁移理论上讲，增加了学生的学习负担。其次，这种潜在的多样组合有时候使汉语初学者有无可适从的感觉，因为对很多汉语初学者来说，用所给汉字进行缀字成词和遣词成句的难度高于二语习得的"i+1"原则。因此，在编写学习材料时，编写者在遵循识字用词原则的同时，还应该根据教学情况和学生的实际水平设计不同形式的识字用词练习。例如，可以用所给汉字做组词或组句翻译练习。图五是组词翻译练习的一部分。该练习要求学生用所给汉字翻译 doctor、elder sister、old people 等十个英语词或词组，答案要求打字输入，并且所给的汉字数多于练习所需的汉字数，以增加练习的辨字要求。从练习的难度上讲，因为有翻译原文的提示，图五这样的组词或组句翻译练习比图四的组句练习稍微容易一点儿。

先 中 英 生 国 们 他 医 人 姐 师 我 小 老 你 doctyor

图五：组词翻译练习

结语

在对外汉语教学中，如何处理汉语的语与文的关系，既是一个认识上的问题，也是一个实践上的问题。它直接关系到对外汉语如何教、怎么学。本文从汉语学习材料设计这一角度出发，提出了对外汉语教学的识字用词原则，并通过三个实例分析，对如何在实际教学中运用以识字为手段、用词为目的这一识字用词原则进行了初步探讨。当然，影响外语汉语教学的因素非常复杂。本文提出识字用词这一原则，只是试图对汉语学习材料设计过程中如何处理语与文的关系作一些实质性的思考，以向同行讨教。

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Linguistic motivation in teaching Chinese as a second language

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Introduction

Linguistic motivation focuses on the target language itself with presentation to learners the special and logical features of the language. The aim of the linguistic motivation teaching is to attract beginners of a foreign language by offering them an effective device to observe and to feel the target language for longer-term memory.

In my paper, I will use Boers and Lindstromberg's (2006) model to discuss Chinese linguistic motivation from perspectives of form-form motivation; form-meaning motivation and meaning-meaning motivation. I will also discuss the roles of linguistic motivation in teaching Chinese as a second language in elementary Chinese classroom. I will focus on teaching Chinese by encouraging students at beginner's level to discover Chinese phonological patterns and grammar structures The objective of the approach is to generate students' participation, to make Chinese more learnable and more memorable and to help beginners enter the Chinese language world with ease.

1. What is Linguistic Motivation?

Linguistic motivation isn't the same as the conventional term of motivation which refers to students' will and characteristics in completing a task. Linguistic motivation refers to language itself,

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such as the reasons why we say things "the way we do; why it is that certain expressions mean certain things, which is likely to involve deeper cognitive processing and leads to deeper learning and longer retention (Littlemore 2009).

Linguistic motivation involves cognitive processing (Littlemore 2009) to guide learners to explore the pattern and the meaning of the target language. The aims of the linguistic motivation research are:

- to use phonological patterns to help learners notice and remember the vocabulary items and usages

- to create image schemas to help learners remember sentence structure by visualizing grammar

Radden and Panther's (2004) proposal, and Boers and Lindstromberg's (2006) model of English linguistics motivation have made the great contribution to linguistic motivation research. The scholars claimed that motivated language can found in three forms:

- Form-form connection such as alliteration. The examples used in the model are: worm one's way and mushroom.

- Form-meaning connection such as iconicity. For example, students are guided to guess the meaning of a new word "stodgy food" via the given clues of "heavy / light" , "positive / negative"

- Meaning-meaning motivation such as polysemy. In Boers and Lindstromberg's view words can be categorised as "bounded" or "unbounded" and present the concept via graphs. For example:

Bounded is presented in an enclosed box	Unbounded is presented in radiate graph
A few people	Few people

2. Discussion on Chinese Linguistic Motivation

According to Boers and Lindstromberg's model, teaching Chinese can also be delivered through the three forms. By doing these, learning Chinese can become more manageable and can be retained in memory for a longer period. This can help a learner enter into the Chinese language world more easily at beginner's level.

2.1 Form-form connection in teaching listening and speaking

When Chinese phonological features of rhyme are presented in teaching, students can become more engaged in imitating and can remember the sounds better. Therefore learnability can be improved.

Example 1 - rhyme

我上网。"wǒ / wǎng"are rhymed

哥哥喝酒，弟弟踢球。" gēge / hē"；"dìdi / tī"，"jiǔ / qiú" share the same finals and are rhymed.

Example 2 – Connection between English and Chinese

保罗 Paul 跑去买包子，吃了包子，吃饱了。(Bǎoluó-pǎo-bāozi-bǎo)

朋友很酷，也很壮。("cool – 酷"，"strong – 壮")

In the above sentences, English names and English words are used as an aid to remember Chinese sounds and new words. We can see when the logical and natural connection of the sounds between English and Chinese are pointed out, beginners can remember the Chinese better at the beginning stage.

2.2 Form-meaning connection in teaching vocabulary through listening

If teachers can activate students' background knowledge to explore the meaning of Chinese, the students' curiosity for new things can encourage them to learn more Chinese beyond their linguistic level at the early stage.

Example 3:

Match the Chinese with the English when you hear them		Write Pinyin with tones of the verbs
a 吃三明治	1 drink (coffee)	
b 喝咖啡	2 eat (sandwich)	
c 听莫扎特	3 go to (Beijing)	
d 写卡片	4 listening to (Mozart)	
e 去北京	5 write (a card)	

Students can easily get the meanings of the verbs according to their existing knowledge of the objects, person and place. The aim of the exercise is to engage students with learning the new linguistic items more actively. As we can see that the exercise is meaningful for pronunciation practice, therefore some more able students can remember the verbs 吃、喝、听、写、去 in the first week by learning the Chinese in chunks, while the less able students can understand the verbs by listening.

Example 4:

Using onomatopoeia to interpret the meaning in order to achieve fun learning could be another active way to explore a new second language; even there is no unique onomatopoeia in the world.

哥哥渴了，他咕嘟咕嘟地喝可口可乐，小猫扑通扑通地跳，喵喵地叫"我也要。"哥哥哈哈地笑："没了。"小猫呜呜地哭，支吾支吾地说："你不好"。

In this listening passage, students are asked to guess the meaning of the verbs by decoding the onomatopoeia before each group of verbs as shown in the following:

咕嘟咕嘟 – walk, write, drink

扑通扑通 – jump, speak, sleep

喵喵 – a dog, a cat, a bird

哈哈 – cry, laugh, cough

呜呜 – cry, laugh, chew

支吾支吾 – say (mumble), laugh, cough

Onomatopoeia, in this exercise, are not part of the learning objectives but are used as the device to help learners decode the meaning of the verbs 喝、跳、叫、笑、哭、说 in the context.

2.3 Meaning-meaning connection in teaching grammar

Image is one of the ways that enables information to be stored in memory. The principal value of schemata is that they enable us to organise and understand new information (O'Mallet 1990, p24). By presenting Chinese grammar in graphs, learners can visualise the sentence pattern for better understanding and memory.

Example 5:

Teaching measure words 一件、一条
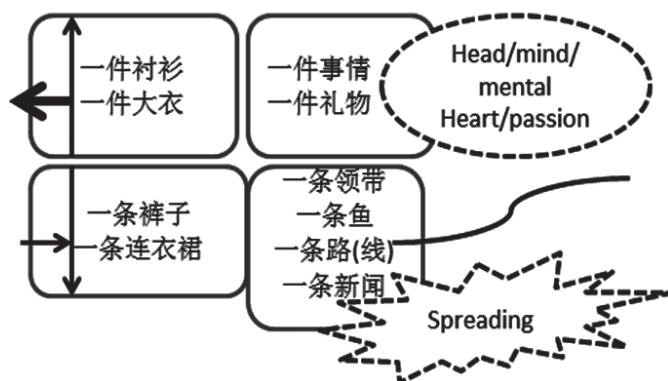
Apart from 一件 for top part of clothes shown by an up pointed arrow, 一条 for bottom part of clothes shown by a down pointed arrow, a left pointed dark arrow shows a heavy coat while the light right pointed arrow means a light dress.

事情，礼物 are quantified by 一件 is because they are involved with mind or head and passion or heart . Therefore they are in line with the concept of top clothes. 新闻 is quantified by 一条 because an issue has to be spread out to become a piece of news, otherwise it is 一件事情 .

Measure words 一幅、一双、一对

Accessories		Body parts / Something can be grasped by limbs living objects	
一副眼镜 一副手套 一副儿环	一双 鞋 / 袜	一双眼镜 一双脚 一双筷子	一对活宝 一对鸳鸯
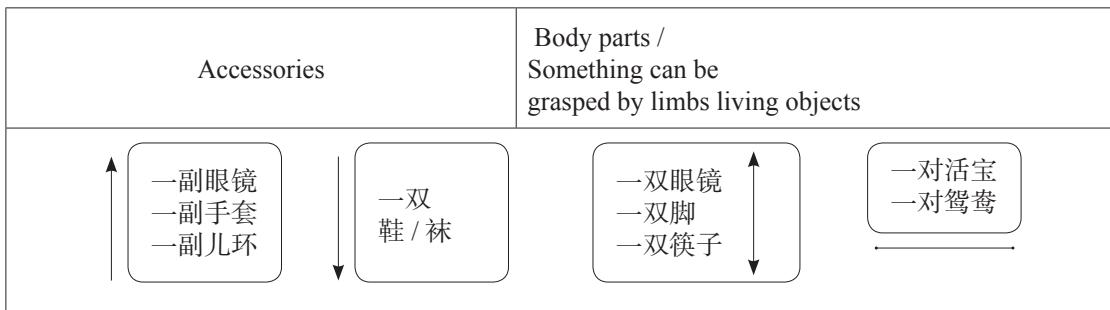
From the above diagrams, we can give students clear visual images that accessories for the top of the body are quantified by 一幅. 一双 is used to quantify accessories for the bottom, body parts and objects which can be grasped by limbs. 一对 is used to quantify a pair of identical living objects though gender can be opposite.

Example 6: grammar items "也" and "都"

"也" is translated as "also", "too" or "as well". Therefore many beginners tend to follow the English sentence order and place 也 after 是 or at the end of the sentence.

你是学生，他也是学生 V1, 也 V2 也 is a modifier of V2 which illustrates parallelism betweem V1 and V2 as shown in the horizontal bar. Therefore 也 must appear before the verb in order to modify the action.

As "都" means "all" in English, many beginners make mistake in placing 都 before the subject when say "all of us are students" in Chinese.

你们每一个人都是学生 你 们（每 一 个 人）is unbounded phrase as shown in the radiate graph. The function of the modifier 都 illustrates that every individual person performing the same task as shown in the shape.
我们每一个人也都是学生 "All of us are students as well." 也 is before 都 as shown in the graphs that right side of 也 box and the left side of 都 box have the equal heights , and 都 box points to the right which indicates everyone performing one kind of roles

These graphs offered the opportunity for beginners of Chinese to visualise the Chinese grammar structure and sentence patterns for comprehension. It is based on the cognitive theory that schema images can be retained in long-term memory while verbal language and written text are stored in short-term memory.

Conclusion:

Linguistic motivation in teaching Chinese as a second language is different from traditional teaching method by teaching the language with the aid of phonological patterns and with the aid of

graphs. In this way, learners can manage to understand more Chinese by listening and by looking at the language pattern. These drew more of the students' attention to observe the target language in the learning process. The ultimate goal of teaching Chinese via linguistic motivation is for easy recall of Chinese and for retaining Chinese in long-term memory.

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Enhance Students' Oral Competence

A Review of Study Pack Developed for Speaking-Skill Training at Elementary Level

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Introduction

One of the most difficult challenges in teaching Chinese is to find effective ways to help students improve their speaking skills. Large and mixed-ability classes, little exposure to the target language after school, intensive syllabus, very high expectations from the students, and etc. will inevitably form obstacles to achieve this goal. Questions such as how to motivate and engage students, how to keep students on track, how to create a lively, dynamic and productive atmosphere, and how to facilitate students to have a positive learning experience in speaking, have long been discussed and it seems that there is no one answer to all these questions.

This paper tries to examine and review a course material focused on speaking skill training developed by the author for first –year BA Chinese course at School of Oriental and Africa Studies, i.e. *Integrated Study Pack – Elementary Chinese Speaking Tasks* (the Pack hereafter), which in one way or another may address the questions raised above.

While there exists a considerable and valuable literature on materials regarding speaking skill trainings, this paper has a practical focus, i.e. to provide a review and reflection based on the teaching experience, classroom performance, and feedbacks from students in the hope that some of the techniques employed might be of interest to other Chinese language teachers, who would like to develop their own teaching materials or carry out experiments in the classroom. It is also the author's wish that this paper might stimulate discussions and exchange of views to promote good practice in the fields of Chinese language teaching and learning in general and the training of speaking skills in particular. The

paper includes the following five aspects:

1. Needs Analysis

The main textbook used for year-one BA students at SOAS has been considered, based on many years' practice, the best choice to suit the syllabus so far. However, it is noticeable that the textbook does not provide teachers and learners with sufficient resources for speaking practice. For years, course teachers had to make up for this in tutorial sessions using materials produced by each individual teacher in an ad hoc way, which, understandably, were unsystematic and uneconomic. The students' evaluation of this course had also strongly and consistently indicated that there was a need for further emphasis on the speaking skill training in order to achieve a better balance of students' language competence.

To address such an issue, from the 2008 academic year, the Chinese department decided to provide a one-hour session per week dedicated to speaking practice at Year One. A systematic, well-structured course material for this purpose is, thus, in need so as to facilitate a smooth delivery of the speaking session.

2. The Approach

The ultimate goal of teaching speaking skills is to promote communicative competence and enable learners to acquire the competence "as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about and with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes 2001). There was a temptation to set the objective of the Pack to be developed as task-based speaking materials. However, given the fact that the students are at beginner level, carrying out interactive tasks designed for real-life communication in the classroom could involve many unpredictable factors, especially the linguistic gap between students' current competency and what is needed to complete the task could be too big to make the learning process efficient and effective. This could run the risk of losing control of the classes and end up with learning new words, introducing new grammatical structures or explaining cultural norms, and etc. So the speaking activities in the Pack was designed to encourage students to speak using the target language at a level suitable to them so as to develop the speaking ability during the process of carrying out such speaking activities. The objective of the Pack was, therefore two-folded: i.e. using speaking to consolidate and digest the knowledge previously introduced; and at the same time to start the process

of developing speaking ability t. In this way, the confidence students may have in speaking would be built up and the competence in speaking would be achieved. Inevitably some of the designed tasks are structure-oriented and controlled or semi-controlled by the teacher. However, the author believes that these tasks serve as a bridge necessary to the real-life communication ability training at a later stage.

Bearing the above in mind, the author designed activities in the Pack with a balanced approach which combines language inputs in tutorial sessions with structured outputs and communicative outputs in speaking sessions. The activities were, thus, carefully arranged to make sure that students would have the basic linguistic knowledge to complete the tasks. The Pack, therefore, was systematic for students to follow and friendly for teachers to handle.

3. Examples

The Pack covers phonetics, vocabulary, sentence patterns, and discourse using a variety of techniques, such as question & answer, substitution, quiz, information gap, jigsaw, role play, translation, and etc. The following speaking activities are examples selected from the Pack, which students considered most useful based on the feedback collected at the end of the two academic years of 2008 and 2009. The vocabulary, grammar and sentence structures are carefully controlled to suit the proficiency levels at different stages.

3.1 Using Sight-Translations

請大家看英文說中文，兩個人一起做：

Challenge

My friend

I have an English friend. His name is John. His wife is Chinese. She is from Shanghai. They have 3 children: one son and two daughters. The son is 20 years old. He is a university student. The elder (da) daughter is 15 years old and she is in the secondary school (middle school). The younger (xiao) daughter is only two years old.

Because John's wife is from Shanghai, she can speak Shanghai dialect and can cook very delicious Shanghai food (the dishes she cooks are very delicious). She can also speak Mandarin. She can speak English, too.

As John is going to work in Beijing next year, he would like to start learning Chinese. He told me that although he is very busy with his work, and he has very little time, he still wants to learn. I think he is right. If you live and work in a foreign country, you should be able to speak the language.

(Example 1)

Challenge

My friend's father

My friend's father is a businessman. Although he is rich, he is not very healthy. This is because he both smokes and drinks. He often says that to do business in China, you have to be able to smoke and drink. Businessmen often go to restaurants to <u>discuss (tan2)</u> business. Sometimes one day, you have to have 6 or 7 meals. It seems that if you do not go there, they would think "Oh, he is not my friend". If you are not his/her friend, they would be reluctant to do business with you.

Therefore, his father is always busy, eating a lot, drinking a lot.

Before he couldn't drink a lot, now he can have ten glasses of beer. No problem. Before he was quite slim and quite handsome, now, he is very fat and ugly. When he was in the university, he often went to theatre, cinema and concerts, now he hasn't got any time to do what he would like to do. He often says that he has not got any time, and he is not interested in anything.

His mother is very worried about his health. But he often says "What can I do (no way out), they are all my friends".

Yesterday evening he said that he did not feel quite well (comfortable). My friend's mother said to his father: "From now on, you should not go to work by car, but go on foot. You must do Taijiquan for at least 30 minutes before breakfast and 30 minutes before you go to bed. When you eat at a restaurant with your friends, eat less meat, but more vegetables and fruit". His father said "Yes, yes, of course. You are always right. But I cannot go to work on foot. This is because if I do not use the car, you will use it. <u>In that case (na4)</u> you would be fat, I am afraid".

(Example 2)

3.2 Questions and Answers

Ask each other the same question in turn and answer it affirmatively or negatively, using the given information in English. You should give a full answer to each question:

你打算到哪兒去？怎麼去？		
to Beijing by air	to the town by tube	to London library by bus
to France by train	to Mr. Li's working unit by tram	to Japan on foot

(Example 3)

Read the questions in English and see if you can ask the questions in Chinese, then compare with the questions in Chinese. After this, give your answers to the questions:

English	What kind of drinks do you like? What kind of food do you like? Do you like Chinese food? Can you cook some Chinese food? What kind of food can you cook? Should you learn to cook some Chinese food? What are you going to eat this evening?
Chinese	你喜歡喝甚麼？ 你喜歡吃甚麼？ 你喜歡吃中國飯嗎？ 你會不會做中國飯？ 你會做甚麼飯？ 你應不應該學做一點兒中國飯？ 今天晚上你想吃甚麼飯？

(Example 4)

First ask the questions in A in Chinese and then compare with the same question in B. Then answer the questions:

A	B	C
What time did you have breakfast today?	今天你是幾點吃早飯的?	
How did you come to school today?	今天你是怎麼來學校的?	
Did you come here by bike?	你是騎自行車來 (這兒) 的嗎?	
Whom did you come to school with?	你是跟誰一起來的?	
Did you come to school yourself?	你是自己一個人來的嗎?	
When did you start to learn Chinese?	你是甚麼時候開始學中文的?	

(Example 5)

3.3 Vocabulary

Please read aloud the following and try to increase your speed as you progress:

> 話
> 普通話
> 說普通話
> 學說普通話
> 喜歡學說普通話
> 我們都喜歡學說普通話。
> 我們都很喜歡學說普通話。
> 王先生，王太太，王小姐都會說一點兒普通話。

(Example 6)

> 雞
> 一隻雞
> 一隻母雞
> 買一隻老母雞
> 媽媽想買一隻老母雞，做雞湯。

(Example 7)

3.4 Guided Discussions on selected topics

同學們，你們好!

下面老師給你們一些題目，也給你們一些有關的問題。請大家談一談。

Topic Card 話題：	難忘的旅行
有關的問題： 看一看 想一想 谈一谈	你是甚麼時候去的？去了甚麼地方？怎麼去的？跟誰去的？那裏的天氣怎樣？風景怎樣？吃的東西怎樣？碰到了甚麼有趣的人，看到了甚麼有意思的事情？你買了甚麼東西？為甚麼你覺得這次旅行難忘？

(Example 8)

Topic Card 話題：	我的學校
有關的問題： 看一看 想一想 谈一谈	學校在甚麼地方（城裏，城外，倫敦城中心）？學校大不大？學校裏邊都有甚麼（圖書館，書店，食堂，聽力室，學生休息室）？學校附近都有甚麼（公園，銀行，電影院，飯館兒，咖啡館兒，酒吧，歌舞廳，藝術館，旅行社）？交通方便不方便（公共汽車站，地鐵站，火車站）。對你的學校，你最喜歡的是甚麼？為甚麼？你覺得不太好的地方是甚麼？為甚麼？你覺得亞非學院怎樣？

(Example 9)

3.5 Information Gaps

You both have different information about the <u>same</u> student. Ask and answer questions to complete the form. The first form is for student A and the next one for B:

College form (for student A)

First name	John
Family name	
Nationality	British
Age	
Home town	London
Subject	
Languages	English, French, and a bit Chinese
Interests	
Brothers and sisters	Two elder sisters, one younger sister
Parents occupations	

(Example 10)

College form (for student B)

First name	
Family name	Harris
Nationality	
Age	19
Home town	
Subject	Chinese language
Languages	
Interests	Music, Shadow-boxing, cooking
Brothers and sisters	
Parents occupations	Father university teacher, mother middle school teacher

(Example 11)

4. My Reflections

Based on the performance in class and the feedback from students, it shows that those controlled or semi-controlled speaking activities illustrated by the above examples worked fairly well for students at beginner and elementary level. From learners' point of view, such activities enabled learners to produce specific language patterns with confidence. They did not experience too much frustration for expressions beyond their knowledge, thus, were engaged very well. The motivation of learning became stronger with their achievements made. From the teachers' point of view, speaking class can be well in control, and the role of teacher has become a facilitator and giving the so-called "individual attention" becomes implementable.

Such designed speaking practice made the teaching and learning process more productive

and effective. The drills on forms and structures became less boring. It, then, helped to improve long-term memory. However, such grammatical drills seemed to have long been underplayed in speaking classes. The feedback from students indicated that they like these activities, especially the translation activity called " Challenges" in the Pack. This result supports the argument that translation is an effective means in the process of foreign language learning (Cook, 2010). This makes the author wonder if the traditional practice such as imitation, repetition, translation, and etc. could be still given recognition as good pedagogic methods to promote foreign language acquisition, especially to serious learners at beginner or elementary levels. The application of the traditional practice should be distinguished from the practice of learning by rote or "pigeonisation". Completing tasks designed based

on traditional practice still involves much active thinking from the learners. Such trainings appeared essential for students to progress to the stage of involving more doing interactive tasks with real-life communication.

5. Concluding Remarks

The Pack developed appeared to have served the purpose of enhancing students' oral competence. It supported and was supported by the main textbook in such a way that most of the speaking activities designed were within the learners' proficiency level. The activities did not only motivate and facilitate students to speak Chinese but they could also be a source to help them reinforce and digest the contents previously learned. It appeared to be a material to learn to speak and also a material to speak to learn. The process of language learning involves transferring knowledge from short-term memory into long-term memory. This transition can be realized by joint efforts of the learners and the teachers using carefully and craftily designed teaching materials.

The author believes that no matter how inclusive a textbook is, it is just a framework, a tool in the hands of teachers. What is more important is what the teachers can do within the framework with the tool. Students need to see real and steady progress to achieve confidence, which plays an important part in their journey to success in second language acquisition. Creating realistic and interesting, useful and usable materials is a way to help them build up such confidence, and it is also one of the challenges teachers have to face all the time.

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Language Partnership between NS and NNS in Language Learning

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Learning a foreign language, to a great extent, depends upon constant practice and the practice with Native Speakers (NSs) is an advantage. Due to the lack of opportunities to practise and short of authentic communication with NSs, it is difficult for language learners to develop oral fluency and communicative competence in classroom situations. One of the possible ways to resolve this problem is to extend language practice beyond classroom. To prepare language learners linguistically as well as communicatively for using the language in real-life situations. This study creates a platform for language learners where NSs provide moment-by-moment scaffolding help. By arranging language partnership between NSs and language learners through joint social activities, the study explores whether such out-of-class activities have an effect on language learning and whether learners' language proficiency can be increased with NSs' scaffolding. The experiment took place in the academic year of 2009-2010 at the University of Manchester and the results of the experiment showed that the correlation between interaction with NS language partners and language learners' achievement varies, with more active learners attaining more gains. How to encourage less active students to be more engaged in the learning activities and make better use of the learning opportunities after class remains to be further explored. The methodology and procedure of this study can serve as a roadmap for instructors interested in adapting this pedagogy to their own language teaching.

1. Introduction:

Researches have suggested that successful language learners are more likely to actively search for

and create learning opportunities and to use opportunities inside and beyond the classroom (Cohen, 1998). Based on ethnomethodology (Heritage, 1984; Lave & Wenger, 1991), social construction (Kiraly, 2000) and sociocultural theory (Donato, 2000; Swain, 2000), this study uses ethnographic methods including the tutor's observation, records of interaction activities, and focus group interviews to explore the effect and efficiency of language learning via practising with NS language partners out of class.

2. Theoretical bases:

2.1 Ethno-methodology in interaction

Ethno-methodology is an approach to the study of social life that considers the nature and source of social order to be fundamentally empirical, locally accomplished, and thus grounded in real-world activity (Heritage, 1984). Interaction emerges from ethno-methodology's interests in the empirical study of social order, but asserts a fundamental role for interaction as 'the primordial site of human sociality' (Schegloff, 2006, p.70). In language learning, learners' linguistic, communicative, verbal and non-verbal tools are used to infer meanings and construct the meanings to be understood correctly. To predict and produce communications accordingly, the focus is on the talk-in-interaction and write-in-interaction.

The ethnographically-grounded dispositions and expectations about individuals' social worlds include knowledge of culture-specific communicative events or activity types and their typical goals and trajectories of actions by which the goals are realized. The culture-specific constellations of expectations and dispositions are social in that they are constructed together and shared by social group members as they navigate their way through their interactions with each other. They are cognitive in that they are represented in individuals' minds as context-specific specializations and, as such, they provide some security to members of socio-cultural groups in seeking common ground on which they can coordinate their actions and interpretations and maintain a mutual understanding of what is going on (Sanders, 2007).

In the language learning process, the individually-based socially shared dispositions and expectations can be met when working with competent members of the community in the accomplishment of their interactional activities. Language learning is taking place in such interactional activities.

Language is being learned and used among co-participants and within the community in the learning context. While the apprentice may be the one transformed most dramatically by increased participation in a productive process, it is the wider process that is the crucial precondition for this transformation. The larger community of apprentices practising, the more knowledge is transformed (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

It can be seen from the ethno-methodological point of view that in order to learn a language well, it is necessary to involve language learners in a community where they can interact with each other in various language-related activities.

2.2 Social constructivist theory

Social constructivism places crucial importance on the type and quality of the social-cultural interaction within a particular learning environment because it sees the situation itself as a major factor determining the boundaries, focus and impact of any given learning opportunity (Kiraly, 2000). By observing children working in collaboration with an adult, social constructivist theory emphasizes that it was by no means always the case that the adult was teaching them how to perform the task, but that the process of engagement with the adult enabled them to refine their thinking or their performance to make it more effective. Hence, the development of language and articulation of ideas are central to learning and development (Daniels, 1996).

According to social constructivist theory, social interaction is regarded as a prerequisite to learning and cognitive development. Knowledge is co-constructed and learning involves social interactions where learners are enabled to form and test hypothesis based on their pre-knowledge in problem solving by using the language as a communication tool. The current pedagogic discourse of language education informed by social constructivist theory addresses the way learners learn through social interactions. Language learners are encouraged to interact with proficient speakers of the target language or NSs in order to achieve some purposes or to complete some tasks, where there are opportunities for using the language outside the classroom (Springer and Collins, 2008). In addition to basic linguistic needs, language learners also hope to gain greater cultural awareness, and social interaction skills (Paper, 1990). The substance of learners' language knowledge is linked to and arises from learners' extended involvement in the regularly occurring interactional practices constituting their specific contexts of learning (Hall, 2009).

Confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests occur during meaning negotiation when dealing with unclear messages. The types of linguistic activities that occur in NS-

NNS (Non Native Speakers) conversations differ from those in other types of discourse, particularly with respect to the negotiation of meaning when there has been an actual or potential breakdown (Varonis and Gass, 1985). With the intervention of NSs, language learners can notice linguistic features and modify messages (Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D. & Linnell, J., 1996). NS language partners in an L2 environment not only provide comprehensible input, but also facilitate the language learner's output through meaning negotiation and error correction (Long, 1996). Language learners first rely on the assistance of experts to make error corrections (other-regulation) and eventually gain increased independence and become self-regulated, reconstructing their erroneous forms with little or no intervention (DiCamilla & Antón, 2004).

From a social constructivist perspective, there is a social aspect of reflective action, which is vital not only because it enhances collaboration and communication, but because it is a collective reflective action that characterizes a professional community (Kiraly, 2000). Scaffolding should start with minimal help and then gradually offer more specific assistance as needed. When two people's actions are closely coupled, the intentions of the more experienced partner can be transferred to the other one through action. Language learners and NSs are coupled by their communication as they work (through their avatars) toward a common goal.

Focusing on feedback within a communicative context contributes to language acquisition (Skehan, 2003). When learners engage in interaction, they receive input, feedback, and opportunities to produce modified output, all of which facilitate the development of learners' interlanguage (Long & Robinson, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Conscious noticing of linguistic forms is necessary in order for learning to take place (Schmidt, 2001). NSs and NNSs create affordable learning conditions to support both meaning-oriented communication and form-focus reflection (Lee, 2004).

Unlike in language classrooms where students are frequently asked to speak up, outside the classroom situation is different where language learners can decide when to initiate conversation, what to talk about, where to communicate and with whom to talk to etc. Each communication opportunity can be viewed as language learners' own choice. Given this opportunity, learners might have a global attitude that views speaking as a good way to practise and learn the language, without fearing the consequences of mistakes in a specific situation (MacIntyre, 2007). The positive communicative attitude might exist at such a broad level that it is rendered irrelevant in the face of rising feelings of anxiety at a particular moment in time.

It will be good for language learners to be in a learning environment where NSs can scaffold them in learning activities by directing attention to key aspects of the curricular tasks, simplifying the procedures, monitoring ongoing performance, and providing timely feedback.

2.3 Sociocultural theory

Socio-cultural theorists, such as Donato (2000) and Swain (2000) consider learning as located within the interaction of the learner and the immediate environment within which the target culture can be acquired. Language is an instance of socio-cultural behaviour that simultaneously results from and creates context and structure. Van Lier (2000) specifies the importance of contingency in collaborative interaction through the concept of 'inter-subjectivity'—that is, a shared social context for interaction where participants are immerged in the cultural activities.

Firth and Wagner (2007) consider language to be acquired and learned through social and cultural interactions. Because cognition often originates in social interactions, the construction of new knowledge is both a cognitive and a social process. It is in this whole-body participation within the meaning systems where consciousness is located and resources of linguistic forms and cultural features they hear and use are provided (Ninio & Snow, 1999).

Lee (2004) noted that scaffolding is a joint and reciprocal task that demands collaborative effort. To collaborate successfully, both the expert and the novice must maintain an intersubjectivity (a shared understanding among individuals who establish reciprocal and equal perspective to accomplish a joint activity through socially negotiated interaction) by means of which they establish common goals within a shared communicative context (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000).

Practising interactive strategies with other NNSs in a language classroom does not necessarily allow learners to develop a sense of what real-world interlocutors will tolerate, especially if the learners share the same first language and culture. In the domain of foreign language learning, there is a concern for students who study the language but remain reluctant to use it (MacIntyre and Doucette, 2010). Language teachers expect language students who are willing to seeks out L2 communication and to communicate when the opportunities arise, whether inside or outside the classroom. According to Clement *et al*. (2003), seeking opportunities to communicate would greatly increase the chances for inter-cultural contacts, L2 communication practice (Larsen-Freeman, 2007) and comprehensible input (Krashen, 2003). What is needed for language learning is the practice to use the language, particularly to use it in the real-life situations, socializing with NSs in the target language in order to fully acquire the language as well as the culture through the social interaction. Sociocultural theory highlights peer assistance and mutual scaffolding in collaborative interactions.

Based on the literature discussed above, two research questions are formed to explore whether out-of-class activities have an effect on language learning and whether learners' language proficiency can be increased with NSs' scaffolding.

3. The present study:

A language partnership project was designed and implemented at the University of Manchester in the academic year of 2009-2010. By arranging contacts with NSs outside the classroom, CFL (Chinese as a foreign language) learners had control over pace and content of communication. CFL students, together with their NS language partners, made purposeful decisions about what to include in the learning and ensure that the process is a systematic undertaking. Determining clear purposes also aided learners to take more responsibility for learning the target language and decide to use it as a way to increase learners' involvement in the learning process.

3.1 Setting up language partners between CFL learners and NSs:

The participants were 90 full time students in the University of Manchester: 45 were undergraduates majoring in CFL, including single and joint degree students and 45 were Chinese NSs, doing various degrees in this university, acting as language partners. The CFL students were in their second year with English as their first language and among whom 25 were male and 20 were female students. Prior to this study, all of the CFL students had studied Chinese for a year and passed the first-year exams. It is a requirement for them to pass the second-year's exam in order to go to China for the year-abroad program in their third year, otherwise they will have to stay in Manchester for another year until they pass the language exams. To find Chinese NSs as language partners, the Chinese language tutor, who is also the researcher of this project, approached the English tutors teaching English during the summer pre-sessional course. The majority of the summer course students were Chinese and the researcher got 45 volunteers acting as language partners with the help of the English tutors.

In the first week of the semester, the Chinese language tutor sent a message to NS volunteers, giving a brief instruction on how to give constructive feedback, how to plan for each meeting and how to summarize what CFL students learnt. Meanwhile, the tutor also sent a message to CFL learners explaining how to initiate conversations in the target language, cope with the difficulties in the interaction with NSs, improve their oral and written language proficiency with the help of NSs and how to reflect their own learning. From the second week of the semester, language partners started to work together and kept the tutor informed of their learning progress.

3.2 Language learning activities and tasks:

The following tasks were given to students as a reference, which means students could decide on the activities they preferred to do.

Week 1-2:   make initial contact with your language partner, introduce yourself and get to know each other, agree on specific time/venue/length/frequency for each meeting.

Week 3-4:   initiate your first activity with their language partner, e.g. go to see a film/ watch a DVD/read a picture book/ distinguish flowers/plants, write some calligraphy/ draw a painting/ do some Taiji/ sing a folk song.

Week 5-6:   go out for sightseeing with your language partner e.g. Lake District, Peak District, a park, have a picnic or cook a meal together.

Week 7-8:   explore the latest technology: computer, i-phone, mp4 or websites etc. which you think are helpful for your Chinese language learning, esp. which software or which website you think is helpful for your Chinese learning, e.g. online dictionary.

Week 9-10:   act as an expert of China in a particular area (e.g. introduce Chinese menu, wear a Chinese qipao, perform folk music/song/dance, make a special Chinese meal, play Chinese chess, practise Taiji or martial arts, or Yangge Dance.

Week 11-12: write a report on what you have done during the semester, summarizing how you have cooperated with your language partner and what achievements you have made and what problems you have encountered.

In the last week of the semester, all CFL students conducted a 5-minute oral presentation in class. They used photo gallery or video documentary to show the learning activities with their language partners. They presented their resource collections, emotional aspects in the learning process, feelings of discomfort and anxiety, and the joy of achievements after hard work. While doing these language learning activities, all CFL learners were working in a collaborative manner with their NS language partners.

3.3 Assessment:

The language partnership activities were set as a piece of coursework which counts for 10% of their total marks. Every other week, good examples were shown via Blackboard where students could share their experiences, and received an idea of how well other peers had done.

The artefacts that students produced such as videotapes or photo galleries were submitted at the end of the course, which were used as an evidence to show their efforts and the level of their perform-

ance. Attestations also came from teachers' observations and records of their activities which provided multiple perspectives on students' learning.

4. Data analysis and discussion:

4.1 Data from tutor's observation and records

The tutor kept a record of students' interactions by asking both CFL students and NS language partners the frequency and length of the meetings, the activities involved and the achievements they had gained. CFL students also kept writing learning diaries reflecting their own learning. The tutor checked her own recordings with students' diaries and meanwhile observed their classroom participations to monitor their learning progress. A summary of the interaction data is illustrated in Table 1.

Average number of meetings	45 (s) x 12 (w) = 540 (h)
Total meetings	1084 (h)
Minimum meeting length	12 (h)
Maximum meeting length	59 (h)

Table 1: description of corpus on language partner interaction

The average meeting for one hour per week is 540 hours for the group of 45 students throughout the semester of 12 weeks. However, 39 students had more than an hour per meeting and 9 students had one session of 4 or 5 hours, adding up the total meeting of 984 hours. The minimum meeting length is one hour per week and the maximum meeting length is 59 hours in total. Challenging sessions such as seeing a film and understanding the dialogues in the film took about for 3-5 hours on average. The figures show that the total meeting hours were doubled compared with the requirements with some sessions longer than others. This may indicate that students made great efforts in the activities or enjoyed the meetings, but need to be found out in the interviews.

4.2 Data from interviews

Based on the figures listed above and coupled with the tutor's observation records, two students with the most involvement in interaction activities, two students with the least and two students with the average involvement were selected for interviews.

The two students with the most involvement in interactions revealed extremely different views:

one of them Ali commented that "The suggestions from my language partner are critical, to the point and truthful". "I have learned to ask for verbal feedback from my language partner to help improve my essay. "Constantly working with my language partner improves my communication skills, as the feedback is verbal and well demonstrated". While the other student Josh revealed his inner world "My Chinese language level is low, so I am not confident with my speaking and writing. I have to check with my language partner before I submit my essay and before I do presentation in front of my classmates". They both met NS language with high frequency, but with different purposes. One intended to improve communication skills in the target language, while the other was for checking the linguistic forms.

The comments from the lowest interaction students are interesting: William explained that "My language partner's English is no good, and my Chinese is even worse, so we end up with talking in Japanese". Emily said "My language partner is very quiet. He does not say anything unless asked. I do not know what to ask because my Chinese is limited". This raises the question of NS language partners, who were voluntary-based and not trained nor paid and therefore we cannot expect them to act professionally. Perhaps an interview of volunteers before the project could have helped where we could have selected more articulate and mature volunteers to be language partners. Probably, encouraging our English-speaking students to assist with Chinese students' English might help, so that both sides could be benefitted.

The two students who had the average interaction seemed to have enjoyed the friendship and intercultural communication more. They expressed that "I will forever cherish my language partner and I hope we can be life-long friends". "I know more about Chinese culture by communicating with my Chinese friends". "My spoken Chinese has improved once I opened my mouth to my language partner and thereafter other Chinese people". "I think to communicate with Chinese people wherever possible is useful to improve my oral communication ability".

The above comments indicate that the NS language partners were offering scaffolding assistance to CFL learners and providing learning opportunities. The scaffolding assisted CFL learners in carrying out the tasks which CFL learners on their own might not be able to complete. Language partner interactive exchanges led students to becoming highly involved in the negotiation of meaning as well as linguistic forms. These comments illustrate the kind of engagement that the students were seeking to consolidate their knowledge, and the desire to develop a deeper understanding of the real messages that the language partner was sending.

4.3 Triangulation with exam results

Not all the interaction involvement corresponds with end-term achievement exam results. For

example, Josh did not get very high scores even though he had met his language partner with the highest frequency; while Ali (also with high frequency of interaction) got the highest scores. This might be explained by the common saying of how "Rome is not built in one day" and the interaction with NS language partner is not a 'cure-all-disease medicine'. Nevertheless, the overall scores for the whole group, triangulated with the tutor's observation and records show the pattern of those with more interaction improved steadily week by week and their result increasing rates were higher than those who had less interactions. This is encouraging in that interaction with NS language partners proved to be one of the ways to enhance students' language proficiency.

It is evident that CFL students and NS language partners were actively engaged in constructing discourses which resembled conversations. The verbal behaviour with NS language partners allowed CFL learners to engage in a sustained discourse, producing more natural responses. This reaffirmed the need for the language partners to be in tune with their aim and use of language as the interaction unfolded. What was more important was the appropriateness of language used in relation to the context of the moment and interactions that provided scaffolding for student learning and opportunities for negotiation of meaning (Westgage & Hughes, 1997). Interacting with language partners gave students an awareness of their own language needs, which in turn influenced the quality of their engagement in the language classes (Beck and Simpson, 1993).

5. Conclusion:

This study has explored the impact of out-of-class activities on CFL learning by setting up the language partnership between CFL students with NSs. The experiment results show that the correlation between interaction involvements with achievement results varies, with more active students gaining more increase in language proficiency. The NSs scaffold CFL learners not only in linguistic forms but also in intercultural communications by creating learning opportunities out-of-class, providing timely feedback, offering constructive instruction and making contributions to intercultural communications.

The pedagogical implication of this study is that NS and NNS partnership can be used as an ongoing and interactive activity that constantly involves learners in the learning process. Well-designed language partnership scheme can offer students the opportunity to practise the target language after class. Learners can also contribute to planning, implementing and assessing progress themselves and this consequently promotes the student's responsibility and ownership of learning.

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The role of mother tongue in Chinese language learning

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Abstract

Learning a new language is like learning a new habit; adult beginners usually rely heavily on their existing knowledge and experiences of their mother tongues to understand and approach a new language. However, over reliance on their mother tongues will lead to making syntactic and lexical errors. This paper tries to explore to what extent the mother tongue can interfere with the new language; whether or not some differences in errors exist among learners at different learning stages and what the major error types in learner's writing tasks are. By adapting Dulay, Burt and Kranshen's (1982) surface strategy taxonomy, learner's coursework and exam papers were carefully examined. Error analysis in this paper concluded that language transfer did not play a major role in producing errors, learners have made similar types of errors at different learning stages and the major types of errors in learning Chinese are misuse, misordering, omission and addition. Morphologically, learners of Chinese had difficulties with adverbs, verbs, particles and prepositions, while syntactically, ba-structure, passive bei and verb complements are also difficult.

Key words: mother tongue, error analysis, learning Chinese as a foreign language

1. Introduction

Error analysis has long been used as a check or the predictions of bilingual comparisons to understand the nature of learners' knowledge of the language and as an important source of informa-

tion for teachers and curriculum developers to incorporate language items that mostly affect language into their work (Corder, 1973; Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982). To throw light on the regular processes of language use, error linguistics usually focuses on ungrammatical utterances due to performance factors. Behaviourist believes that learning a new language is like learning a new habit; adult learners usually rely heavily on their existing knowledge and experience of their mother tongues to understand and approach a new language. Structures in the foreign language differ from those in the mother tongue, henceforth errors that are similar in structure to the mother tongue tend to be produced in foreign language learning. On the basis of this position, Corder (1973) predicted that 'many errors show signs of the influence of the mother tongue or other language possessed by the learner' (p. 283). Richards (1971b) in his study revealed that the major types of intralingual and developmental errors are overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and the building of false systems and concepts. He concluded that interference from learner's mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty encountered by second language learners. His following lecture given at Indiana University presented a different type of errors: interference, overgeneralization, performance errors, markers of transitional competence, other forms of interference (e.g. language styles), and strategies of communication and assimilation. However, he was looking at the phenomenon from a different point of view: holding the banner of mother tongue interference, he contributed errors to strategies of learning (i.e. overgeneralization, analogy), strategies of assimilation (i.e. economic principles of language use), and strategies of communication (i.e. optimal utilization of knowledge of grammar) (Richards, 1971a).

The position of mother tongue interference has been seriously challenged. As noted by Briere (1968), contrastive analysis at this stage had a failure to equalize difference to difficulty, i.e. difference itself does not predict difficulty. Reviewing errors simply as a result of mother tongue interference places the environment as the predominant factor and learners are thought to be in a passive position to receive whatever has been taught (Xu, 2008). Furthermore, the total number of errors, including syntax and morphology, that are traceable to characteristics in the mother tongue is in the minority, from 8% to 23% for adults (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982, p. 102). Ghadessy (1977) considered that errors are not only related to learner's mother tongue but also to confusion between forms and structure of the language being learned. More specifically, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) pointed out that psycholinguistic research has revealed that the substantial influence of mother tongue is in the area of pronunciation, especially for adult learners and beginning level children; most errors involve word order rather than morphology; mother tongue background has little influence on learners' judgement of grammatical correctness in the second language.

The challenges lie in conceptual differences in error explanation and error description, definition

of error categories and error classification. According to Dulay, Burt and Kranshen (1982), descriptive classification of errors fall in four categories: linguistic category, surface strategy, comparative analysis and communicative effect. This research tries to identify how learners of Chinese with English as their mother tongue reconstruct the new language in the process of the language learning. More specifically, the following questions will be answered:

Does English as a native language play a major role in producing errors when learners of Chinese speak English as their mother tongue?

Are there any differences in errors among learners at different learning stages?

What are the major error types in learner's writing tasks?

2. Research data

The research data covered students' work from Ab Initio beginners to advanced level students who have 4,000 vocabulary and 150 grammar points. The time span for the data was between 2005 and 2009. A total number of 887 erroneous sentences were collected from students' written work such as test papers, coursework and assignments. Most of them were adapted from Cheng and Li's (1998) work and the remaining sentences were from Brunel University. Participating students were at three different stages, beginners, intermediate and advanced.

All the data were keyed in MS Excel for analysis. Each sentence is coded with types of errors listed in the surface strategy taxonomy (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982): 1= omission, 2=addition, 3=misuse, and 4=misordering. Then the data were regrouped under English transfer (Selinker, 1992).

Wu's (1982) system of nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerative classifiers, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, particles, and interjections was adopted in data analysis.

As erroneous sentences do not usually have only one type of error, some sentences may have been coded with different types of errors, due to 'the notion of "acceptability" is much more controversial in most cases, particularly when the utterance is judged apart from its context' (Li and Thompson, 1989). Then the number of errors and the percentage of each type of error were calculated accordingly.

3. Results and discussions

Percentage of error types such as English transfer, addition, omission, misordering and misuse were calculated and T test was conducted to see if there are any significant differences in error types

and at different levels of language ability. The research has shown that no significant differences were found in the three groups, i.e. each stage had the similar types of errors. There is no significant difference among different types of errors as well. This research has demonstrated that mother tongue does not play a significant role in producing errors. The major errors types are misuse, misordering, omission, addition and language transfer.

3.1 English transfer

In line with Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), the present research has shown that first language transfer, i.e. English transfer contributed 14.6% of total errors, within the reported range of 8% to 23%. Therefore, it could be concluded that first language influence was far smaller than had been imagined generally and most interlingual errors tend to be misuse, misordering, omission and addition. The percentage of each type of error is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Percentage of each type of error

	Total Errors	Percentage
Misuse	276	24.4
Misordering	244	21.6
Omission	221	19.5
Addition	225	19.9
English transfer	165	14.6
Total	1131	100.0

English and Chinese differ in four major areas: parataxis vs. hypotaxis, topic-prominence vs. subject-prominence, active voice vs. passive voice, and word order (Wang, 2003). Mostly likely because of the differences, learners of Chinese from English speaking countries tended to use mother tongue as one of their learning strategies to form a Chinese sentence. The data showed that 44% of English transfer was from misordering; 24.5% were from unnecessary addition; 12.3% from omission and 7.9% from misuse. Another 10% of errors derived from conventional English way of thinking.

3.1.1 Misordering

11.7% of the errors were the adverbial phrases misordering, possibly because the position of adverbs or adverbial phrases in Chinese sentences is more flexible that its counterpart English (Wang,

2003). The most commonly errors occurred on adverbs such as 就 , 也 , 还 , 再 , 都 . For example, 就 in 昨天下了课，就他去看朋友了 is influenced by the English sentence order (yesterday after class, then he went to see his friend).

The misordering of nominal phrases such as nouns and pronouns was also at a higher percentage, 9.8% in the data. Typically time phrases were put in wrong positions:

(1) 我们每天上午有课从八点到十二点。

3.1.2 Addition

Because of English influence, some words such as 被，是，和，个，着，了，过 were added to sentences. Exuberant use of passive-bei in sentences where the passive meanings were either implied or unnecessary stood up as one of the seminal phenomenon (11% of the total errors within the category of English transfer). Some of the typical sentences were:

(2) 我的作业被做完了。

(3) 他是律师和他喜欢打网球。

3.1.3 Omission

Adverbs, correlatives, link-verbs, measure words, passive-bei, propositions and verbs were omitted; however, quite a few sentences omitted particle de (的), when it functions as interjection marker, nominalization marker and attributive marker, for example,

(4) 虽然他们住在一个富国，但是他们是很穷。

(5) 男要长得好的女朋友，女要求文化水平比她高的男朋友。

3.1.4 Misuse and literal translation

It is interesting to see how learners misused words in pairs which are often marked with one word in English but more than two words in Chinese. It seemed the learners simply interchangeably applied those pairs without understanding the nuances to their sentences. Thereafter, it is not surprised to see that the following pairs were misused: 一定 / 确实 , 就 / 再，还是 / 或者 , 年 / 岁 , 点钟 / 小时 and 有 会 / 开 会 , because they mean 'certainly', 'then', 'or', 'year', 'hour' and 'have a meeting' in English.

Literal translation or simply conversing English sentence structures or conventional ways of thinking into Chinese is another type of error revealed in the data analysis. For example,

(6) 我恐怕天要下大雨了。I am afraid IT is going to have a heavy shower.

Addition, omission, misordering, and misuse were the major error types in English transfer and the similar pattern was also found in the data, where the traces of English transfer was hardly avail-

able.

3.2 Addition and omission

Double marking refers to double use of certain phrases in one sentence. The data has shown that students tended to use two adverbs in a sentence, either because they had difficulty in understanding the meanings of each adverb, or they tried to emphasize certain information.

It seemed that the confusion became more complicated with the progress of students' language learning. For example, students at level 1 may tend to use 太 and 很 together; however, at a later stage they may pair the following in their sentences: 干干净净 / 极了 , 很 / 高高兴兴 , 一会儿 / 以后 , 就 / 才 , 很，好极了 , 怎么 / 再 , 已经 / 快要 , 整整 / 左右 , 一点 / 一切 , 好像 / 可能 , 越来越 / 更 , 越来越 / 比较 .

Particles 了，着 and 们 were also used together with words and phrases that had indicated clear meaning. For example,

(7) 我一定要记住了这些生词。

(8) 安娜把衣服挂着在墙上了。

Double use of question word in one sentence was also a prominent phenomenon for students at stages 1 and 2, which indicates that students may have tried to find out question markers such as 吗，呢 when forming questions. However, question words in Chinese have other forms such as 谁，什么，还是，and 'A 不 A' structure. 谁是哪国人？ is a typical example of this kind.

Students also applied two verbs in one sentence, possibly because they were unable to tell if a word in one occasion works as a preposition and as a verb in another occasion. Sentence like 今天上午我们有上课 used two verbs.

Other double marking sentences were something to do with double marking of prepositions, link-verbs, measure words and correlatives.

Simple addition means that an extra word or linguistic element is unnecessarily added to a sentence. The most striking phenomenon is that particles such as 了，的，地，得 and 着 were simply inserted into a sentence. In most cases, 了 had been overused at the end of a sentence or right after verbs to illustrate ongoing actions and eventual events. Most likely, 'learning to control –le is one of the most difficult tasks facing a European-language speaker attempting to master Mandarin, partly because European languages have no feature quite like it.' (Li and Thompson, 1989, p. 216)

The addition of nominal phrases was also obvious. For example, the underlined parts are unnecessary in the following sentences.

(9) 她跳得比那个运动员高九厘米。

(10) 你等谁人 ?

Again as in double marking, adverbs such as 很，更，都，再，刚，多，极了，一下儿 were inserted into the sentences. For example,

(11) 雨越下越很大。

Other added parts were ba as in ba-structure, verbs such as 使， 给， 有，prepositions, and particle de (的).

Detailed data analysis revealed the number of additions was not coupled with the number of omissions. Table 2 is a comparison between addition and omission.

Table 2. Error Frequency Comparisons between Addition and Omission

Surface structure categories	Addition	Omission
Adverb	21.9	7.5
Auxiliary verb	2	6.4
Correlative word	2	10.2
Particle de (的)	4	11.2
Particle le	14.4	5.9
Question word	5.5	1

Errors in other categories such as addition and omission of ba-structure, noun, plural form, preposition, verb and verb complement remained almost the same. It seemed that students had a tendency to add unnecessary adverbs, particle le and question words in their sentences while omit adverbs, auxiliary verbs, correlative word and particle de (的).

The missing adverbs included 也，再，多，太，就，很，才，都, while the missing auxiliary verbs were 会，能，要，应该 . Ba-structure indicator 把，comparative word 更，measure word 个，negative word 不 / 没，and plural form 们 were also omitted in the utterances. Correlative words or word pairs such as 一 ... 就，不仅 ... 而且，不但…而且，即时 ... 也，只有 ... 才，只要 ... 才能，因为 ... 所以，如果 ... 就，既…也，连…也 were used in a incomplete form, possibly because the gap between English and Chinese. The most striking feature was the omission of particle de (的), whether it functions as the genitive marker, attributive marker, nominalization marker or interjection at the end of a sentence. Here are some examples,

(11) 谁朋友是英国人?

3.3 Misordering

Nominal nouns (28.2%), adverbs (23.2%), negative words (11.3%), ba-structure (7.7%) and verbs (7.7%) were all misordered. Other types of errors included wrong positions of auxiliary verbs, correlative words, particles –le and –guo, prepositions, and clauses.

Within the category of nominal nouns, subjects, objects and attributes, appositive phrases, topics and words expressing approximation were seen in wrong places. For example,

(12) 他给很多帮助我。

Before head noun in Chinese, possessive word comes first, then demonstrative pronoun, numerative classifier, and adjective. For instance, the sentence 我家的那一台新买的电脑 is a typical example, which shows a word order, where more than one attributes are involved. However, a sentence like 他是一位我们学校的好老师 has violated the rules. Ma (1997) defined the relations between head noun and its modifiers in terms of nature, status, possession, quality, use, quantities, location/time, contents and apposition. It seems always the case that appositive phrase comes together with the head noun, so the sentence 他们什么时候两个进城的？ is considered wrong in Chinese.

As Chinese is topic-prominent language, two subjects appear in one sentence with one serving as the topic and another one the subject. Any separation of the two is also not correct, for example,

(13) 这件毛衣的样子不是不好看，而是颜色不好。

Apart from that, the positions of 多 and 左右 were also wrongly put in a sentence. Similar to the previous analysis, the most frequent errors in adverbs was the wrong position of 都 and 也. Other adverbs included 一定，只，多，常常 and 快要. For example,

(14) 他都天天去图书馆。

Learners of Chinese were confused about the use of 没 and 不, especially in a negative form of a comparative sentence structure like A bi B adjective. The sentence A 没有 B 高 means that A is shorter than B; however, the sentence A 不 比 B 高 may indicate that both A and B are at the same height. Other confusions arose between phrases like 可以不 / 不可以，没听懂 / 听不懂，一定不会做 / 不一定会做，不再 / 再不，不就是 / 就不是.

The wrong position of 把 in Ba-structure and directional verbs like 到 and 去 may also cause problems in forming a correct sentence. Take the following as examples,

(15) 从书包里谢力把票拿出来了。

(16) 你今天即使不来这儿，我也要你那儿去。

3.4 Misuse

Misuse is a category where either synonyms or words with the similar functions are wrongly used in sentences. The data revealed that adverbs (32.2%), verbs (19.2%), nominal phrases (14.2%), particles (10.5%), prepositions (9.2%) tended to be misused.

The most frequent errors in adverb misuse was between the two negative words 没 and 不, then next came with 再 / 又 , 再 / 还 , 还 / 也 , 就 / 才 , 常常 / 往往 , 更 / 最 , 更 / 非常 , 曾 / 曾经 , 这么 / 那么 , 一点儿 / 一会儿 etc. It looked as though confusing for learners to understand differences between synonyms such as 参观 / 访问 , 告诉 / 说 , 帮助 / 借钱 , 开 / 开始 , 恩爱 / 恩情 , 抬 / 抱 , 操持 / 办 , 知道 / 了解 , 知道 / 认识 , 被 / 受到 , 被 / 叫 / 让 . Directional verbs were another area where learners tended to misuse. The confusion was between the pairs of 来 / 去 , 去 / 到 , 到 / 出 , 去 / 往 , 出来 / 出去 , 上来 / 起来 , 进来 / 回来。Preposition 比 and verb 有 were misused in comparative sentence structure such as 'A bi B adjective adverb'. Reduplicated verbs such as 想 / 想想 and 送 / 送送 were also misused, possibly because learners could not decipher the nuances between the two.

Within the category of nominal words, learners had difficulty in understanding differences between synonyms such as 个子 / 身体 , 事情 / 东西 , 唱歌 / 音乐 , 应用 / 作用 , 态度 / 风度 , 武打 / 打架 , 私人 / 自私 , 经验 / 体验 , 雨 / 雨水 , 时 / 时候 . They also tended to wrongly use pronouns such as 一本 / 那本 , 一辆 / 那辆 , 这么 / 那么 , 这儿 / 那儿 , 什么 / 怎么 , 他 / 自己 , 咱们 / 我们 . Measure words like 个 / 位 , 张 / 本 , 次 / 场 , 次 / 遍 were also misused. Misuse of 二 / 两 was also obvious as well.

Particle –le was misused not only with interjections such as 吗，吧，呢，啊 , but also with particles 得，的，过 . There was also some confusion among the use of 的，得，地 , which is an area where native speakers also have problems. The misused prepositions or prepositional phrases were 上 / 在 , 为 / 为了 , 从 / 在 , 从 / 自从 , 到 / 给 , 因为 / 为了 , 在 / 到 , 对 / 对于 , 对于 / 关于 , 根据 / 按照 , 比 / 跟 , 被 / 对 .

4. Conclusion

Morphologically, learners of Chinese had difficulties in every aspect; however, most errors emerged in the use of adverbs, verbs, particles, and prepositions. The wrong use of negative words 没 and 不 ranked the first, then came adverbs expressing degrees, repetition, emphasis, scope, time and frequency. Apart from synonymous confusion between verbs, directional verbs, link-verb 是 and no-

tional verb 有 were often wrongly used. The most difficulty words must be the wrong use of particles 了，的，得，着，过，地 . The confusion between 了 and interjections like 吗，吧，呢，and 啊 was also frequently seen in the data. The wrong use of single preposition words was quite amazing, which gave a warning sign to learners. Syntactically, the wrong use of ba-structure, passive-bei and verb complements was very striking.

The major problem for learners of Chinese is their 'failure to master the semantic, structural and pragmatic features peculiar to the Chinese language' (Cheng and Li 1998, p. 5), which means that teachers of Chinese should be more focused on developing the basic language skills of students and aware of the influence of students' mother tongue.

Even it is always unreliable for teachers to understand the nature of a learner's errors (Hamdi, 2007), this research may share some lights on the difficult language points which require more attention from language teachers, curriculum designers and learners as well. Learning a foreign language is not simply taking new knowledge from learning materials and teachers but it is an interaction process between the mother tongue and the foreign language.

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符合 CEFR 規範之 A1、A2 級線上華語學習教材研發規劃

The Research & Development Plan of Online Chinese-teaching Material that Fulfills the Requirements of class A1 & class A2, CEFR

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工業技術研究院前瞻技術中心技術副理

中文摘要：在華語教材的研發規劃中，歐洲地區是未來的重要指標。歐洲共同語文參考架構 (The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages，簡稱 CEFR) 是歐洲語文教學與評量的指導方針與行動綱領，於 2001 年 11 月由歐洲理事會 (The Council of Europe) 決議推薦會員國採用，以利制定語文能力分級的系統，以及提供各國互相認可對方語文能力的基礎。

臺灣目前所使用的華語文教材，不論是紙本或線上學習系統，都以提供英語為母語或第二語言的學習者為主，針對其他語言，如：日語、韓語者十分少見，提供歐盟各國人民學習華語的教材則付之闕如。因此，筆者在 2009 年初與臺灣工業技術研究院合作，規劃符合 CEFR 基礎級 (A1 級) 和初級 (A2 級) 的線上學習教材；整體教材共含十課課程，尤其在「情境架構」以及會話和聽、說學習點的制定上，都以符合 CEFR 的標準機制為依歸，同時增加 “同義詞 " 與 “偏誤分析 " 等輔助教學系統，以加速學習者的學習成效。本教材已於 2009 年 12 月完成，是臺灣第一套針對歐盟學習者所研發設計的線上華語學習教材。

关键字：華語文教材、線上學習、歐洲共同語文參考架構、歐盟、基礎級、初級

壹、前言

　　歐洲語言共同參考架構 (The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment，簡稱 CEFR)，是依據 1991 年 11 月在瑞士 Ruschlikon 召開的各國政府研討會 (International Symposium) 提出的建議，於 1993 年至 1996 年間，經由國際性的工作小組 (international Working Party) 以及小型研發單位 (Smaller Authoring Group) 發展而來；並在 2001 年發行英文版及法文版 (Council of Europe, 2003)。CEFR 的主要內容在於闡述整個歐洲語言的教學綱領、課程指引、教科書的編寫以及語言能力的評量，提供一個共同的準則。

　　CEFR 中，將語言能力等級分為三等六級，分別為：基礎使用者 (basic user)、獨立使用者 (independent user) 以及精通使用者 (proficient user)，各等之下再細分成二個等級 [1]，A1 為基礎使用者的基礎級 (breakthrough)，A2 為基礎使用者的初級 (waystage)。CEFR 採用以行動為導向的取向 (action-oriented approach)，認為語言學習者和使用者是社會的成員，在某些特殊環境、特定的行為範疇中達成溝通任務 (Council of Europe, 2001)。為了便於進行評估，CEFR 在不同的溝通範疇下，針對每一能力等級列出語言學習者 / 使用者能做到的能力描述 (Can-do statements)（藍佩君，2007）。

　　在 CEFR 的第三章中，為描述學習者的水準提供了一個向上遞升的共同參考水準系列，以基礎使用者為例，CEFR 的規範如表 1 所示：

表 1 共同參考級別：整體性分級表

基礎使用者	A2（初級）	能瞭解最切身相關領域的句子及常用辭（例如：非常基本的個人及家族資訊、購物、當地地理環境、和工作）。能夠針對單純例行性任務進行溝通，這些任務需要對熟悉例行性的事務作簡單直接的資訊交換。能以簡單的辭彙敍述個人背景、周遭環境、及切身需求的事務等方面。
	A1（基礎級）	能瞭解並使用熟悉的日常用語和辭彙，滿足具體的需求。能介紹自己及他人，並能針對個人細節，例如住在哪裡、認識何人以及擁有什麼事物等問題作出問答。能在對方說話緩慢而且清晰，並隨時準備提供協助的前提下，作簡單的互動。

　　CEFR 原為歐洲各國語言學習的共同參考架構，以打破各國語言隔閡、增進語言溝通為目的；時沿至今，CEFR 已是全球公認的三大語言學習標準之一，具有相當的穩定性與可靠性。CEFR 嚴謹的三等六級區分能力指標描述，有助於教材編寫者規劃和設計教材，自 2005 年 8 月 4 日臺灣教育部函示各單位，採用 CEFR 推動英語學習，把 CEFR 列入推動英語語言教育的重要政策以來，CEFR 架構在臺灣的影響力已不僅是針對英語教學，對華語文教材的研發也產生

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[1]　本研究參考多媒體英語學會譯本（2007）。歐洲共同語文參考架構。高雄：和遠圖書資訊出版社。該譯本主要參照 CEFR 英文版而來，亦有學者引用其他中譯本的譯文，但內容相去不遠。

了巨大而深遠的影響。

　　臺灣有關 CEFR 的架構的研究與教材研發，2007 年是一個重要的起始點，多媒體英語學會將 CEFR 的英文版翻譯為中文，出版了《歐洲共同語文參考架構》，是許多本地的研究者參考的依據。自 2007 年至 2010 年，有關 CEFR 的研究目前初步已累積多篇學術研究論文和兩套教材，以下簡單介紹這兩套教材：

一、符合 CEFR 指標之華語文教材

(一) 工業技術研究院〈情境模擬華語線上學習教材〉

　　本教材由筆者主持設計，乃針對 CEFR 之 A1、A2 級設計，共有十課線上學習教材，其中第一至第五課為 A1 級，第六至第十課為 A2 級；執行期間自 2009 年 1 月 1 日至 2009 年 12 月 31 日，已全部建置完成。此一系統以對話學習為出發點，結合發音評量，加入文法回饋，並加入多路徑多流程與多變化之方法，使得對話內容更為豐富。表 2 顯示本系統與臺灣其他華語學習軟體之比較：

表 2 本系統與臺灣其他華語學習軟體比較

	Tell Me More	MYCT	Live Abc	本系統
發音回饋	提供整句分數之回饋	提供整句分數及單字之回饋及發音教學	僅提供發音是否正確之回饋	提供整句分數及影像發音教學
文法回饋	無	無	無	有
對話練習	無	有	有	有
多變化的對話	無	無	無	有

(二) 臺灣師範大學國語教學中心《華語你我他》

　　此書面教材依據 CEFR 三級六等區分，共有三個特色：1. 以 CEFR 參照指標，語言溝通活動包含：接受、產出、互動、轉達四項指標。2. 結合情境與溝通功能為設計原則。3. 教師手冊採用因地制宜模式編撰不同語言文化版本。

二、符合 CEFR 架構之教材內容建置

一、符合 CEFR 架構之辭彙等級

　　CEFR 和一般課程設計以及教材編撰之最大差異點，在於 CEFR 並沒有明確地規範授課時數、生詞數量、文法數量，而以描述性的能力指標區別各級使用者。因此，本計畫在進行符合 CEFR 之 A1、A2 級教材辭彙建置時，主要參考的方向有二：[①]

(一) CEFR 語言內在能力描述

　　CEFR 的語言內在能力描述除了「一般語文的範圍」之外，也針對「字彙量」、「字彙的運用」、「文法準確度」等，依照三等六級做區別描述，因此，雖然沒有明確的生詞表，仍可以給予教材編寫者清楚的方向指引。以「字彙」為例，CEFR 可參考的語言內在能力描述如下：

表 3 CEFR「字彙」A1、A2 級別參考表

一般語文的範圍[①]	
A2	儘管可能會詞不達意或者需要尋找表達的字彙，但是有基本的語言內在能力來處理熟悉的日常情境。 能夠使用基本的句型和記住的片語、字彙組和表達方式來進行溝通，能夠表達關於他們自身和他人的資訊、工作、地點、擁有的事物等。 能夠利用暫時記住的片語來處理熟悉的生存情境；在遇到不熟悉的情境時常地停頓並錯誤地表達意思。
A1	能夠說出關於個人情況和具體需求的基本而簡單的敘述。
字彙量	
A2	有足夠的字彙量處理日常工作，以及熟悉的日常情境和話題。 有足夠的字彙量滿足基本溝通需求。 有足夠的字彙量應付簡單的生存需要。
A1	能夠使用和一些具體而特殊的情境相關的個別單字或片語。
字彙的運用	
A2	能夠掌握與具體的日常需求相關的較少的字彙。
A1	沒有可（用）描述。

(二) 華測會 TOP For Beginner 測驗之生詞範圍

　　臺灣國家華語測驗推動工作委員會（簡稱華測會）於 2007 年 11 月正式開辦基礎級考試 (TOP For Beginner)，為更廣大的華語學習人士服務。基礎級考試共分聽力題 40 題、閱讀題 40

[①]　同注 1，一般語文的範圍（頁 108），字彙量（頁 110），字彙的運用（頁 111）。

題，適用對象為「在臺灣學習半年（約 240 個小時），或能掌握 800 個基礎辭彙」的學習者（張莉萍，2007）。華測會並於 2007 年針對基礎級考試與 CEFR 之對應關係進行研究，研究結果顯示：1. 基礎級測驗出題範疇大都集中在個人領域；內容多為具體的陳述，並使用常用字匯和簡單的文法；主要在測量考生是否能從試題提供的明確訊息中，理解關鍵字或短語以回答問題。2. 基礎測驗等級介於 CEFR 等級的 A1 與 A2 之間（藍佩君，2007）。

　　華測會的測驗共分四級，其中基礎級的辭彙量為 800 個生詞，初級的辭彙量為 1500 個生詞。根據華測會的研究，其基礎級介於 CEFR 的 A1 與 A2 之間，而初級的辭彙應有部份屬於 A2 之範圍，因此本計畫的辭彙等級建置主要以華測會基礎級的 800 個辭彙為基礎，初級、中級辭彙少量列入，二者之辭彙分佈比較如表 5 所示。本教材除了課文生詞共 337 個外，另有輔助生詞 130 個，整體辭彙量為 470 個左右。

表 4 工研院線上學習教材辭彙等級建置表

TOP 生詞等級	工研院情境仿真會話學習系統課文生詞	百分比
TOP 基礎級 (CEFR A1、A2 之間)	295	87.54%
TOP 初級	28	8.31%
TOP 中級	14	4.15%

二、符合 CEFR 架構之情境領域

　　CEFR 把「情境」區分為四大領域，分別為：「個人領域」、「公眾領域」、「職業領域」、「教育領域」。此四大領域已涵蓋語言使用者與學習者的生活與社交，且適合各個年齡層，而教材編撰者可根據實際的教材使用物件增刪四個領域之比例。

　　CEFR 除了區分四大情境，亦對四大情境做了詳細的描述，包括地點、組織、人員、物件、事件、運作、文本等，給予教材編寫者非常清楚的參考依據（黃懷萱，2009）。關於本教材的情境領域分佈，以下試分為三個步驟加以說明：

(一) CEFR 四大情境領域之配置

　　CEFR 的四大情境領域包含個人、公眾、職業和教育，情境內容則涵蓋地點、組織、人員、物件、事件、運作、文本等專案。由於本計畫以會話為主，因此在「文本」類的情境配置較少。關於情境的學習順序，曾金金（2009）曾對於來自瑞士、德國、挪威等共 30 位學習者進行調查，挑選出 10 個優先學習的溝通情境，包括租房子、車站、餐飲店、市場、旅行社、理髮店、郵局、移民署、醫院、學校、辦公室等。此外《實用視聽華語》第一、二冊共 24 課情境分佈亦有參考之處。本計畫的情境領域配置如表 5 所示：

表 5 工研院線上學習教材情境領域配置表

領域	地點	組織	人員	物件	事件	運作	文本
個人	L5、L6、L7、L8	L6、L7、L8、L10	L4、L5、L6、L7、L8、L10	L2、L5、L6、L8、L9	L4、L5、L6、L7、L8、L9、L10	L3 L5、L6、L7、L8、L9、L10	L1、L4
公眾	L2、L4、L5、L7、L8、L9、L10	L6、L7、L9	L2、L8、L9	L2、L3、L5、L6、L7、L8、L9、L10	L5、L9	L4、L5、L8、L9、L10	L9
職業	L2、L7、L8、L9、L10	L6、L7、L8	L2、L7、L8、L9		L8	L2、L8、L9	L7、L10
教育	L1	L1、L10	L1、L4、L10	L2			L6

(二) 華測會基礎級測驗之情境領域分佈

　　由於 CEFR 的 A1 和 A2 級為基礎級和初級的學習者，就一般的語言學習模式而言，剛開始學習語言，會先從自己周圍的人、事、物開始學起，因此本計畫的情境領域亦以個人領域為主，公眾、職業、教育等領域的配置依序遞減。至於華測會基礎級的測驗主要則是以個人領域為主（藍佩君，2007），其情境領域的分佈與本計畫的參照如下所示：

表 6 華測會基礎級測驗情境領域分佈情形

領域	聽力		閱讀	
	題數	百分比	題數	百分比
個人	30	75.0%	27	67.5%
公眾	9	22.5%	7	17.5%
職業	0	0	0	0
教育	1	2.5%	6	15.0%

表 7 工研院線上學習教材情境領域分佈情形

領域	A1 級	A2 級	小計	百分比
個人	11	24	35	38.89%
公眾	10	19	29	32.22%
職業	3	15	18	20.00%
教育	5	3	8	8.89%

三、CEFR 和非 CEFR 教材的差異性

由於 CEFR 的內容十分龐雜，因此計畫執行之初，本計畫的三位編寫者陳慶華老師、張黛琪老師 (師大國語中心)、李曉鳳老師 (政大華語中心) 即進入前置規劃演練過程。三位編寫者必須明瞭 CEFR 的架構與規範，包括辭彙、語法之等級建置，情境概念之具體呈現，以及多路徑多流程之對話節點安排，同義句與偏誤句之回饋設計等。三位編寫者必須審慎依循 CEFR 之規範，並填寫教材評量表以作為自我監控，其中 A1 級必須填寫 40 份表格，A2 級必須填寫 61 份表格，此種教材編寫過程是臺灣之首例。

三、符合 CEFR 架構之對話練習生成

近年來由於電腦及網路的普及，語言學習不再只是從書本上學習，透過電腦進行語言學習的方式也愈來愈多人採用。在語言學習的過程中，不斷的練習是語言學習不可缺少的要素之一，市面上常見的學習軟體，雖然有提供對話練習，但在對話練習的當中，沒有提供使用者的學習狀況及適當的回饋，造成學習者學習往往不知道自己的學習問題點在哪裡，使得學習效率降低。再者，大部分學習軟體所提供之教材腳本固定，學習者只能不斷練習相同的句子，由於同一句子的說法有很多種，學習者在真實外語環境與對方進行對話時，若對方的句子說法與練習腳本不同，常會造成學習者無法立即反應，而溝通不良。

為了解決這類的問題，筆者與工研院合作的教材在設計多流程對話路徑、與可代換多種辭彙的對話語句時，特別參考 CEFR 架構第四章〈語文使用及語文使用者／學習者〉的內容，以提升整體會話教材的溝通功能。同時，在資訊技術上仍搭配人臉合成的影像提供學習者近似自然的對話環境，以類比真實對話情境；並加入會話教材腳本之同義以及偏誤語句，提供更完整的回饋來幫助學習。

在提升學習者的語言溝通能力方面，CEFR 第四章第四小節提到「溝通式語文活動與策略」，是本計畫的參考方向之一，重點敘述如下：

一、為了要達成溝通任務，使用者必須投入溝通的語言活動，並且操作溝通策略。許多溝通活動，像是對話及通信，是互動性的，也就是說，溝通參與者互相扮演訊息的產生者及接受者，而轉換次數頻繁。

二、策略是指語言使用者用來動員、平衡所得的資源，來啟動不同的技能的過程，以滿足溝通的需求，以及透過最容易理解以及最省力的方法，成功的完成溝通的要求。而這都取決於說話者實際的目的。

　　三、溝通策略的使用可以視為是後設認知原則的運用：也就是對不同種類的溝通活動進行事前規劃、執行、監督、及修復行為：包涵接受、互動、產出、及媒介。「策略」這個名詞已經以不同的方式使用。在這裏所代表的是採用特殊順序的行動，以取得最大的效用。[①]

　　因此，為了加強語言學習者的溝通功能，使語言學習者在真實的語言環境中能夠更自然地與他人對話，工研院的設計如圖 1 所示，由 CEFR 情境對話腳本系列之課程，經過課程處理後，學習者可藉由處理後之課程資訊，進行情境仿真對話的練習，當學習者的語音輸入並透過語音辨識後，將經由對話處理後的資訊，產生回饋給使用者，並且準備下一句的情境對話，等使用者再次輸入語音後，重複上述之動作，直到一個課程之結束。而在運行上述之過程時，包含課程目標處理、多路徑連接線處理、多變化語句處理、偏誤處理以及同義處理。
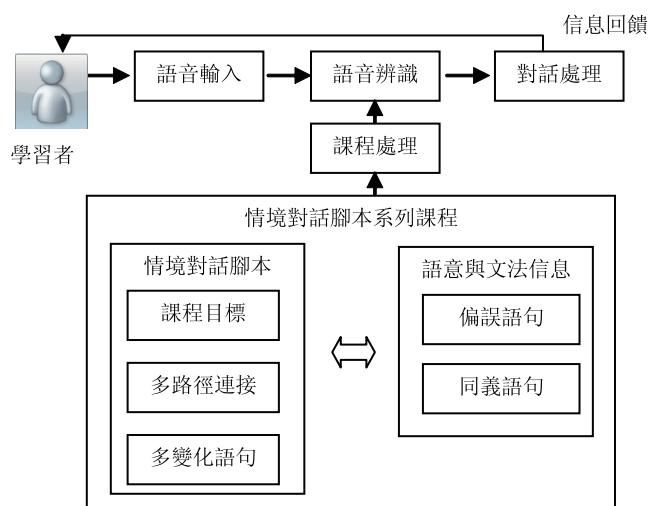

图 1 工研院情境類比對話練習方法描述示意圖

　　情境對話腳本包含符合 CEFR 規範的十課課程以及課程目標、多路徑連接線和多變化語句，在多變化語句中，包含了偏誤語句與同義語句的加入。以下簡述之：

一、課程目標設計

　　每一課程可以存在一至多個課程目標，而每一課程目標存在一個或一個以上的可代換辭彙，而課程目標敘述著每一個對話腳本所需要完成的任務。學習者在進行對話學習時，系統會隨機選取一個課程目標，再將此課程目標中可代換辭彙進行替換，成為本次學習的任務。而所設計之對話語句與對話流程將會針對目前的課程目標進行適當的安排，當學習者進行的課程完成後，會顯示本次練習後的課程目標達成程度。

二、多路徑連接線設計

　　為了加入多路徑與多流程之概念，研發小組設計了對話節點與節點連接線，每一對話節點

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① 　同注 1，頁 54-55。

以節點連接線進行具有方向性的連接。多路徑連接規則系針對對話節點的連接定義了八種連接線，分別稱為型態 1 連接線至型態 8 連接線。此種設計可使學習者每次使用的練習語句有不同的變化。

三、多變化語句設計

多變化語句可以分為三類，一種是課程語句之多變化語句，一種是課程語句之同義多變化語句，以及課程語句之偏誤多變化語句。先前提到課程目標語句中可以加入可替換辭彙，在多變化課程語句中亦有這樣子的特性存在。在多變化之課程語句我們設計了三種屬性以及兩種存放資料的欄位，此三種屬性分別為隨機 (Random)、取值 (Get) 以及總值 (Total)。

課程語句之同義語句可以有多種變化，舉例來說，課程語句為「我想買 $Var1 長褲」，假設 $Var1 選取的為「兩條」，多變化語句之同義語句可以有「我要買兩條長褲」、「我要買兩條褲子」、「我想要買兩條長褲」以及「我想要買兩條褲子」共四種說法。與此設計相同，課程語句之偏誤語句亦可以有多種變化。

四、文法回饋

當系統判斷為學習者講話為課程之同義語句，將認定學習者語音為正確；若系統判斷使用者講話為課程偏誤語句，在課程結束後將提醒學習者所犯之偏誤，並予以回饋；若是系統判斷學習者講話為課程失誤時，將在課程結束後提醒學習者應注意而未注意之句子。課程之回饋可以同時有偏誤與失誤之回饋。

四、符合 CEFR 架構之學習網站設計

情境模擬會話學習網站，主要是提供一個線上的學習平臺，以學習 CEFR 之 A1、A2 之級課程為例，此網站提供了生詞學習、句型學習、會話演練、會話練習；在生詞學習與句型學習部分，此網站提供給學習者一個反復練習的機會。學習者藉由點選生詞的方式，可以聽到與看到由影像式人臉合成模組所產生的發音教學影片，在影片中學習者可以看到此生詞之發音嘴型，可提供給學習者在生詞學習的一個指引，此外還提供語音驗證技術，讓學習者可以透過錄音方式，進行遠端語音驗證，並可以直接回饋給學習者發音的診斷結果，以提供學習者一個學習的依據與指標。

在會話演練部份，此網站提供了一個情境類比會話的示範對話，學習者可以經由課程處理模組產生一組示範對話，透過影像式人臉合成模組產生的影片，提供學習者交互對話範例，並且預先清楚會話練習的流程，降低學習者與影像式人臉合成模組對話的陌生感，以提高學習者

在會話練習中，能更有充分練習的機會。

在會話練習部分，此網站提供了一個隨機產生的「任務模式」，讓學習者針對這個「任務模式」來與影像式人臉合成模組產生之影片進行情境式對話，透過「任務模式」，學習者在對話的選擇上，就要針對所被安排的「任務」來進行對話，並且在對話的過程中，語音辨識模組將會提供偏誤與失誤發生時的回饋，讓學習者在練習的過程中，瞭解自己的語意問題。此外，對話結束後，網站會針對此次練習結果，給予「任務」達成結果以及偏誤與失誤整理，讓學習者可以瞭解本次練習的結果。

關於「任務」的內容，CEFR 第七章＜任務及其於語言教學中的角色＞提及幾項要點，是本計畫的參考依據：

一、任務是在個人、公共、教育或職業範疇中日常生活中的一項特性。個體要達成的任務會策略性的啟動特殊能力，以在特殊領域執行一連串有目的的活動，已達明確的目標和特定的結果。

二、任務的表現是１個複雜的過程。因此，牽涉到學習者的能力與任務因素的交互作用。為因應人物的要求，語言的使用者或學習者啟動最能有效完成任務的一般及溝通的策略。使用者或學習者自然地改變、調整並過濾任務的輸入語、目標、情況、和限制以配合自身的資源、目的和在某個語言學習的情境中的特殊學習風格。

三、任務支持─各種型態的支持可減少任務的困難度。

準備階段：創造期望、提供必要的背景知識、啟動基模知識、在聽／看或閱讀前過濾特殊的語言困境，以減輕處理的負荷和任務的要求。

任務指引：簡單的、相關的、和足夠的任務指引（資料不要太多或太少）以降低混淆過程和目標的可能性。[①]

參考上述關於任務的學習與練習過程，CEFR 之 A1、A2 級學習者在經由生詞學習、句型學習、會話演練、會話練習之後，能夠在真實的環境中，更自在的對話，不再有傳統課程練習中，對話練習內容無法運用於真實的環境之中的缺憾，藉以提高學習者在對話中的構詞與應答能力，同時提升語言學習者的交際能力。

CEFR 以語言學習者和使用者為討論出發點，目的在於語言學習與溝通；在語言學習過程中，重視以行動為導向的方法，本教材的「任務 (task)」設計，在功能上較能滿足 CEFR 以語言學習與溝通為目的的要求。

五、結論

筆者和工研院所合作設計的「情境模擬會話線上學習教材」，是臺灣第一套參照 CEFR 架

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①同注 1，頁 152、153、158、159。

構所研發的華語學習網站，目前十課的教材已全部建置完成。在資訊工程技術上主要參考工研院的「情境模擬華語會話學習系統」，在教材內容上則參考 CEFR 的四個理論：以行動為導向的方法、參考級別與能力指標、情境的運用、語言的內在能力描述等作為教材的設計指標。在辭彙的制定首先參考 CEFR 在「一般語文的範圍」、「字彙量」、「字彙的運用」等論述作為規劃的基石，而後以華測會的基礎 800 詞為主要選詞範圍，選取適用於 CEFR 之 A1、A2 級的辭彙。在情境運用的領域上以符合 CEFR 個人領域的情境為主，公眾、職業和教育的領域為輔。整體而言，此網站的設計主軸在於提供豐富的教材以及多元化的情境會話內容，擺脫傳統學習軟體一成不變的練習方式，建置近似真實環境的對話虛擬平臺，同時以符合 CEFR 之 A1、A2 級使用者的學習需求為設計之軸心。

　　本論文特別針對教材生成網站所設計之多路徑、多流程、多變化與多語句課程之創新學習方法加以說明，並提供另一個網站透過語音驗證與語音識別技術來進行對話流程處理與語音評量，同時提出經由影像式人臉合成模組給予適當的回饋與加入文法回饋之概念。教材編輯者依據 CEFR 架構所設計之課程內容可以提供學習者在使用情境模擬會話學習網站學習與練習時，徹底擺脫傳統學習模式中一成不變的學習方式；另外，系統獨特的文法處理與回饋技術，也可以讓外國人士在學習複雜之中文文法有更進一步的幫助。

　　CEFR 原為歐洲各國語言學習的共同參考架構，以打破各國語言隔閡、增進語言溝通為目的；時沿至今，CEFR 已是全球公認的三大語言學習標準之一，具有相當的穩定性與可靠性。CEFR 有嚴謹的三等六級區分能力指標描述，有助於教材編寫者規劃和設計教材，CEFR 架構在臺灣已對華語文教材的研發產生了巨大而深遠的影響。目前海內外的華語文教材琳琅滿目，除了書面教材之外，透過電腦線上學習教材進行語言學習的方式也日新月異，華語教材的編寫者，在未來除了語言知識的系統性規範之外，應更多關照歐、美的國家標準所制定的準則以及大綱和課程指南，以實現符合交際能力培養的語言學習目標。

本教材所使用各模組之描述

　　本線上學習系統結合了語音輸入模組、課程處理模組、語音辨識模組、對話處理模組、以及影像式人臉合成模組，分述如下：

　　◇ 語音輸入模組提供語音錄音功能，錄音音檔格式為 8K、16Bits 之 PCM 音檔。

　　◇ 課程處理模組提供課程進行時，搜集當前進行中課程語句以及其同義、偏誤與失誤語句。

　　◇ 語音辨識模組提供大辭彙語音辨識功能以及句文診斷功能，提供辨識結果與使用者發音分數。

　　◇ 對話處理模組提供針對辨識語句之回饋語句。

　　◇ 影像式人臉合成模組搭配語音合成模組，合成出課程內容之語句影片。

計畫相關資訊

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新加坡中学生现行口试和功能型口语能力鉴定测试的比较研究

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一、前言

新加坡的非平衡双语教育，使英语将成为新加坡华族最主要的"母语"，而华语则将变成透过课堂学习而来的外语[①]。当今全球化、知识型经济所需要的是：拥有二十一世纪新技能的人力资源[②]，重视口语交际沟通技能。新加坡教育部提高口语分数比重，教学注重口语能力训练。为保持华文日常实用性，教育部将继续着重口语和听力能力，中学口试听力比重增加，从 25% 上升到 30%，自 2012 年开始上升至 35%[③]。

新加坡的华语学习者包括第一语和第二语，口语测试语料，要减少背景差异，其评估方式更显公平。实用汉语水平认定考试（Test of Practical Chinese，简称为 C.TEST）、AP 中文测试 (Advanced Placement Program for ChineseLanguage and Culture Exam) 和专业华语口语能力鉴定考试 (Oral ChineseProficiency Assessment for Working Professionals，简称为 OCPA) 的口语测试均采用功能型测试，但其对象是成人，目前还没有针对中'学生的交际功能口语测试，这也是日前尚需要深入研究的领域。本文参考了新加坡国立教育学院中文系的"专业华语口语能力鉴定考试"[④]，提出一种新的中学生功能型口语能力评估方式。

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① 吴英成著 2010：《汉语国际传播：新加坡视角》，北京：商务印书馆，页 51 和页 53。
② Susan D. Patrick2009："Twenty-first century sHlls"US, U.S. Department of Education Technology.
③ 新加坡《海峡时报》11.3.2010 报道。
④ 吴英成，胡月宝，钟韵宜，陈川慧 2009：《专业口语能力鉴定考试（OCPA）工作报告》南洋理工大学。

二、文献综述

语言是交际的载体，最初人们发明语言是为了与他人交流，从人类一外始使用语言时，语言就有它的交际作用和功能性。乔姆斯基认为语言的功能是在群体语言交流当中，一个说者和听者完美结合的语言知识过程,语言知识的运用及功能是要在实际应用中体现出来的 [①]。海姆斯于 1972 年提出语言交际能力理论四个著名参数 [②]。交际能力体现为规范性、可行性、得体性的结合，并表现出它的实用件。在交际的功能型口语测试的评量标准中如何体现这四个语言交际理论参数是一个有意思的研究课题。

卡纳尔和斯温模式考虑了如何解决交际困难，弥补不足或增强有效件。巴赫曼交际语言能力模式，是从知识、能力、心理上来划分，把语言交际看作一种物理现象，是一个十分有趣的思路，为语言交际功能理论发展打开了另一个途径。

本研究结合交际功能理论来设计功能型口语能力鉴定测试及其评量。

三、现行口语测试

现行口试先预读短文 5 分钟，再进行朗读和会话。朗读材料以记叙文最常见，考难字生词旨和篇幅长短，偏重字音偏误和流利度。会话以生活话题为中心，提出自己的"看法"，考生主要是在考官引导下完成会话任务。中等级别评量标准，详见表 1 所示：

表 1: 现行中学生口语测试中等级别评量标准 [③]

项目	分项	分数	评量内容
短文朗读 10	语音	3	错误相当多，但还能达意
	语调	3	不大适中，不大人流畅，停顿重复的地方多，大致听得明白
会话 30	内容	7—9	讲述大致清楚，但小详尽
	表达	7—9	说话大致流利，但有时会迟疑，有语病

评量描述较简单，无考核口语技能的描述。朗读的重点小是考难字生词的认读，应是考朗

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① Chomsky1965: Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, US: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology, p.3

② Hymes,D H 1972: On communicative competence, In:J. B. Pride & J Holmes. (Eds), Sociolinguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin, p284.

③ 参考新加坡现行中学普通水准会考 (1162) 口试评量标准。

读技能。如果考生缺乏对相关课题的了解而无法充分表述，会变成是考对课题背景知识的了解，不是考表述能力。会话表述方式以及考查的是评论性说话能力还是记叙性说话能力，或是任务性说话能力，不太明确。形式有时是考生独自性说话，有时又加入了考官引导而变成对话式表述均会影响其信度和效度。问题、提示无法激活考生的背景知识，就会影响语言表述能力的正常发挥。

四、研究课题

本文的研究假设为，中学生功能型口语能力测试能客观、全面评量中学生口语能力表现。研究对象是一组中三队捷班学生，属同组两式口语测试。每个学生都接受两种口语测试，并录像。用量表来进行数据采样。对统计结果进行分层和总体比较分析。本研究是属小规模抽样口语测试，所得数据属先期实验性初步探讨结果，作为将来进行大规模试验和测量的参考基础，测试的学生还没有进行交际功能口语的教学，属于纯口语测试，其结果对于未来实施功能型口语教学具有参考作用。

五、中学版功能型口语测试

5.1 中学版功能型口沂测试理论

根据语言交际能力参数，把口语交际看作一种物理现象。功能型口语能力可分为语音能力、口语表达能力和加强效果能力，相应的测试参数包括语音能力测试参数、口语表达能力测试参数和加强效果能力测试参数。

语音能力测试参数是指考查中学生语苛掌握程度，以及语音知识运用的能力，包括音节声调能力、节奏节拍能力和语调语速能力测试参数，针对朗读层。

口语表达能力指中学生在说话和发言时的规范表达、叫行表达、得体、接近实际真实的实用表达和口语策略能力，其评估参数为口语表达能力测试参数。

加强效果能力也称表体语言能力，是指表情语言（面部表情和眼神）、体态（肢体）语言能力，用于加强口语说话效果的作用，辅助说话人达到或增进预期说话的效果，具有辅助说话的功能。考查在说话交际时的表情语言能力和体态语言能力，对口语交际是行有强化效果的作用，以及它的程度。其中，面部表情语言能力是指在口语交际时，面部表情和眼神对口语交际功能的促进作用及影响程度。体态语言能力是指在口语交际时，手势、姿势等的肢体动态形象

及状况对口语交际功能的促进作用及影响程度。其内容可总结如下表所示：

表 2：中学版功能型口语能力测试参数

参数名称			相应内容
语音能力	音节声调		声调、韵调（四声变化）语音变化，变调、多音词（音准发音的准确度）
	节奏节拍		节奏、语流顺畅，情感呈现时的韵律节拍是否恰当
	语调语速		控制语气、重音、停顿和速度的能力
口语表达	规范性表达		是否能够正确运用语言知识，如：发音、词汇、语法，语言形式和表达上的使用正确与否，准确表达的程度，发音、词汇、语法的偏误，是否影响交际
	可行性表达		逻辑思维上的使用正确与否，即口语交际时，是否符合普遍或一般的逻辑规律，流利表达的程度，是否符合题意或语境
	得体性表达		社会文化、语用、身份、应对等方面，在相关的范围内使用得体与否；是否能获得充分的愉快、成功等；能否在相应的语境中，合理适当得体的表达；表达时能体现互动交流
	实用性表达		实际中运用的几率的值数；能否符合实际真实的情况；是否是实际工作生活或真实语境的需要
	口语策略	组织策略	段篇组织能力、评论看法和任务表达说服力
		评论策略	评论，阵遣词用宁能力、角色任务的遣词用字能力
		任务策略	遣词用字是否符合所扮演的角色
		速度运用策略	口语表述或发言说话时的语速是否合理或符合交际语境；组织思和搜寻词语时出现停顿的情况，是否影响交际
		创意策略	遣词用字是否有新意和特色，能否吸引人展现方式是否有新意
加强效果	表情语言		面部表情、眼神
	体态语言		肢体语言、手势、姿势、动作等

5.2 中学版功能型口语能力测试评量

功能型口语测试的评量描述，符合交际功能理论参数，体现规范性、可行性、得体性和实用性。

中学版功能型口语测试评量标准 8，分五个等级来评量，以中等 C 级为例。量化步骤是先量定级别，之后转换分数，再做数据统计，每项均有具体评量描述。详见表 3 所示：

表 3：中学版功能型口语测试 C 级评量表

项门	类型	偏误	细则
诗歌 10	语音 5	6—9	发音基本准确，偶有念错的字音，但不影响理解：有节奏、表达时语流还算顺畅，情感表达基本恰当
	语调 5	6—9	语气略有升降平起，速度还平稳，停顿还合理，不太有规律，语调变化基本流畅，偶有不自然、不恰当的错误句调，但不影响理解
散文 10	语音 5	6—9	叙事条理不太顺畅，少数没有合理中音停顿和强调的部分
	语调 5	6—9	略有节拍，断句没规律，速度不平均，忽慢忽快
小说 10	语音 5	6—9	对话身份不太明确，情感对话少，陈述句、疑问句、祈使句和感叹句式表述不太清楚
	语调 5	6—9	略有节拍，断句没规律，速度不平均，忽慢忽快
评论性说话 30	表达看法和说服力 10	6—9	语言表达不太清楚，有观点，有些理由合适，有说服力，发音、词汇、语法有一些错误，但不至于严重影响交际；能进行较连贯的发言，但多数较简短；能自然地参与讨论：表述方式较呆板，未能与假想听者直接交流
	语段篇组织能力 10	6—9	语言组织不太有条理，但还能成段表述：有些内容不切题
	遣词用字和评论 10	6—9	不太能评论，遣词用字略逊色；组织思想和搜寻词语时频繁出现停顿，有时影响交际
任务性说话 40	表达和说服力 10	6—9	语言表达还清楚，身份不太明确，听其讲话还能分辨其身份；发音、词汇、语法有一些错误，但不至于严重影响交际；能进行较连贯发言，但多数发言较简短；基本切合任务的功能和目的，表述方式较呆板，说服力较弱
	段篇组织能力 10	6—9	语言组织不太有条理，还能成段表述，也能连贯，有一些停顿错误，但基本符合任务的语境
	遣词用字和角色 10	6—9	有点符合所扮演的由角色，遣词用字略逊色：组织思想和搜寻词语时频繁出现停顿，有时影响交际
	创意 10	6—9	遣词用字略有新意和特色，还吸引人，展现方式新意少

5.3 中学版功能型口语测试材料

　　中学版功能型口语测试纯考口语表达，不重点考查认读情况，难词生词注汉语拼音。基本表述能力测试，也称美文朗读测试，其素材选自文学作品，采用

　　参考国立教育学院 OCPA 考试标准样本设计。诗歌、散文、小说原文片段。诗歌朗读考查沂旨、适当的语调、流利、韵律。散文朗读考个述直叙，复述能力。小说朗读是考查肯定句、疑问句、祈使句和感叹句式的口语运用、表达和使用掌握的稗度。不同身份，语气、声调变化能力。

　　评论件说话提供相庇的报章资料，任务性说话提供图片和文字资料，选用适合中学生程度

的可读性语料。由于有有效语料和图片素材的刺激，其元认知过程第一语和第二语是有所区别的。第一语图解过程是单语的：L1 → L1 ⊙ L1 → L1；第二语图解过程是双语的：L2 → L2 ←→ L1 → L1 ⊙ L1 → L1 ←→ L2 → L2；其思考过程是用第一语 (L1) 来进行解码和组码，输入和输出过拌则是用第二语 (L2)，考文字解码、思维组码建构及语音组则能力。由丁第二语学习者在评论和任务性说话中，多了两个语码转换的过程。需要加长预读时间，即测前准备 20 分钟。

提供有效语料补充背景知识，减少第二语考生因受背景知识差异的限制而造成与第一语考生口语测试差距，让第二语考生不受影响，正常发挥，反应出真正认知建构能力和口语表达水平，是公平客观的纯口语评测。

六、数据比较分析

本文分别采用新加坡现行口试（包括短文朗读和会话）和中学版功能型口语测试（包括美文朗读、评论性说话和任务性说话，其中美文朗读又含寺歌、散文小品和小说选段的朗读）这两种口语测试，并对其数据进行统计分析和比较。

现行中学口语测试短文朗读和中学版功能型口语测试美文朗读数据，P 值为 0.01，编号 1 和 9 学生的短文朗读分数一样均为 40，但美文朗读分数却不相同，1 号和 9 号的短文朗读值数最低，但关文朗读分数的表现却不是最低。
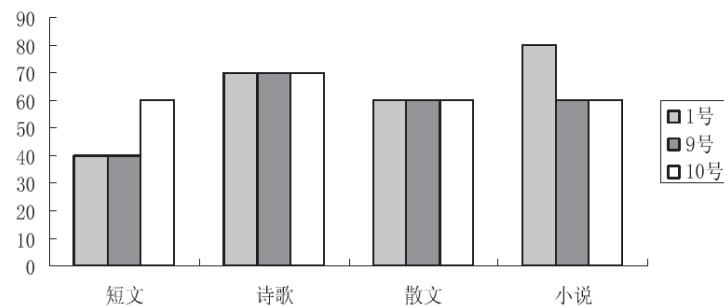
图 1：朗读部分两种测试问分抽样图示分析

图 1 显示对三位诗歌和散文同分学生的数据进行图示比较，1 和 9 号学生的短文朗读分数一样，10 号比他们高分，但后面的诗歌和散文部分二人分数一样，说明 1 和 9 号的认读程度低于 10 号，而选用程度适宜及难词生词加沣汉语拼音的篇章，能够更客观考查出学生的朗读表现情况。小说部分数据显示认读分数低的 1 号，在小说诠释方面却有突出表现，分数高丁 9 号，其至是高于短文认读表现比他高分的 10 号，数据分析显示中学版功能型口语测试能分层诊断出学生朗读层的强弱部分，并尊重其个性发展。

会话同分和评论、任务件说话数州的抽样图式比较，详见图 2 所示：
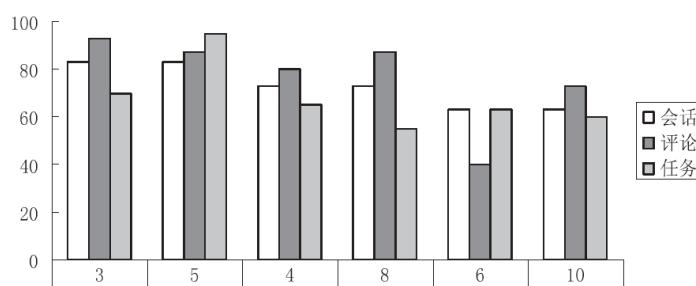
图 2：会话和评论、任务性说话的测试刚分抽样图解分析

图 2 显示，3 和号的会话分数一样，但评论和任务性说话的表现各异，5 号任务性说话的分数明显高于其他学生；4 和 8 号、6 号和 10 号会话分数一样，任务性说话分数也均不相同，其中 6 号的评论件说话的能力很弱，应加强；说明中学版功能型口沂测试能根据分层考量，合理地诊断出学生的口语和思维能力层级，对了解学生口语程度，便于开展今后的口语教学，有重要参考价值。

现抽出现行口语测试总体数据中，值数在 83 至 78 之间数据，相对于中学版功能型口语测试数据进行比较，详见图 3 所示：
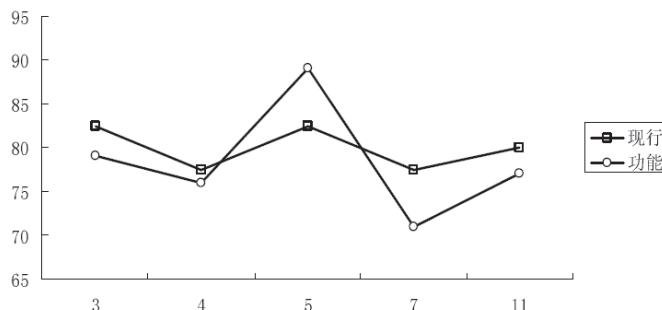
图 3：现行口语测试与功能型口语测试总体数据比较

图 3 显示，现行口语测试曲线较平缓，说明现行口语测试评量方式进行口语考查，分数接近，重分几率高，较难区别；中学版功能型口语测试的曲线波幅较大，说明数据变化大，相对于现行口语测试，更能区分各学生口语能力的差异。

现将第一语和第二语两组学生现行和中学版功能型口语测试数据的平均值数进行双差比较分析。详见表 7 所示：

表 4：现行和中学版功能型口语测试平均值数双差比较

项目	语类	现行	功能	垂直差	标准差
口语测试总休表现	L1	75	74	-1	0.7
	L2	63	71	8	5.7
	水平差	12	3	9 双差	5 双差

从表 4 可以看出，第一语学生两种测试的总体表现数拊个均数差值为 -1，略降，标差仅为 0.7，相差小大；而第二语学生的平均数差值为 8，标差为 5.7，有较大的上升，差距大。双差值为 9，标双差值为 5，说明第二语学生功能型口语能力测试，相对于现行口语测试表现要好，平均分数提高了 8 分。
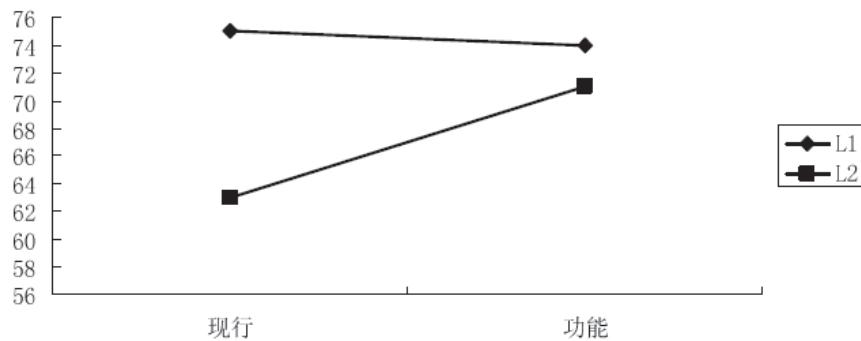
图 4：现行和功能型两种口语测试双语总体表现平均值双差图示

图 4 显示，第一语组直线略微向下降，第二语组直线升隔较大，两条直线趋于相交，对第二语学生呈现效果，有较大作用，即第二语学生在改变测试方法之后，在功能型口语能力测试中个均分数表现优于现行口语测试，效果显著，使得两组学生的差距有较大幅度的减小，更显客观、公平及合理；而对于第一语学生来说，两种口语测试总体分数表现基本一致，基本没有受到影响。
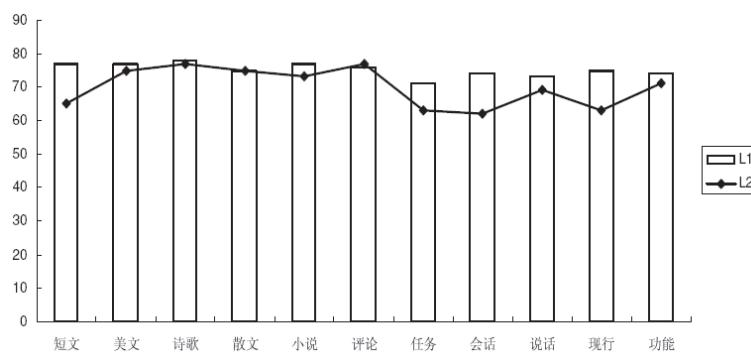

图 5：各项双语表现情况图示

从图 5 可看出，第一语和第二语学生的诗歌朗读和散文，由于不重点考查认读情况，加注了汉语拼音，得分表现基本一致。第一语和第二语学生的评论性说话，由于有效语料的作用，消除背景知识差异，以及考虑第二语学生的语码转换，延长预读时间，使两种口语测试表现情况一致，差距明显减少，更显公平合理。实验数州表明，功能型口语测试对该组学生口语能力各方面的参数和指标做出了合理的诊断。与现行口语测试相比，能更全面听评量中学生的口语能力。

七、研究结果

数据比较分析结果显示，中学版功能型口语能力测试能客观、全面评量中学生的口语能力表现。功能型口语测试的诊断评估方式适合中学生。研究还发现，现行和功能型口沂测试的总体表现，对第一语学生来说几乎不变。第二语学生用中学版功能型口语测试之后，明显提升，与第一语学生的差距明显减小，更显公平客观。

口语交际能力是二十一世纪技能中重要技能之一，本文建议设立不同文体的朗读训练教学，培养较为全面的朗读技能。中学口语考试中纳入评论说话能力和任务件说话能力，以培养实际口语表达能力。用功能型口沂测试，诊断中学生口语能力的强弱，结合其测试理论参数，对照比较找出弱点并强化。未来也可通过偏误量化，使其电子化，有时行力，更加科学和客观。

八、结语

本文提出一种新的功能型口语测试理论，定义口语能力参数为语音能力、口语表达能力和加强效果能力参数。语音能力测试参数包括，音节声调、节奏节拍和语调语速能力参数，主要考查朗读层能力。口语表达能力测试参数包括规范、可行、得体、实用表达和口语策略能力参数，主要考查说话层能力。口语策略能力又包括口语组织、口语评论、口语任务和口语创意能力参数。口语加强效果能力测试参数是指说话时，表情和体态语言能力参数，体现口语交际的强化效果、作用和程度。研究以此建构口语测试设计内容及其评量原则。
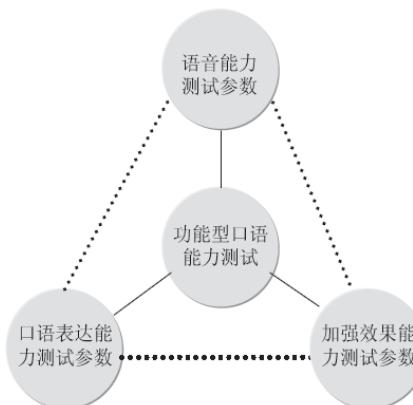

图 6：功能型口语能力测试三维度立体图示

中学版功能型口语测试主要是由图 6 中三个口语能力测试参数组成的立体三维度评估方式，评量设计融入口语交际功能理论，全面考查中学生口语能力。

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先语言后文化：汉语作为
第二语言或外语的小学生 口语交际教材

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一、前言

　　近年来，随着中国国势的不断强大，汉语的国际地位日益提高。国际间汉语作为外语的学习人数激增。汉语走向世界和汉语全球化的趋势已经形成。为了应对这个全球汉语热的需要，国际汉语教学已经从"请进来"的时代进入了"走出去"的时代。为此，中国十分积极地为海外地区的汉语学习者编制所需的教材。在北美、欧洲、日本、韩国、泰国、菲律宾、印尼、越南、缅甸等地区的社区中，汉语不是所在地的主导语言，汉语课程处于主流教育之外，所用教材通常由海外汉语机构提供，内容取材于中国大陆或台湾。（吴英成，2010，77-89）一般而言，教材是组织教学的材料、教师教学的依据和学生学习的内容。本文所要探讨的是，在汉语非主导语言的环境基础下，汉语作为第二语言或外语的小学生口语交际教材的构建理念。

二、中国编制的海外小学生教材的特色

　　我们以《中文》（修订版）作为例子，说明中国编制的海外小学生教材的特色。《中文》（试用版）教材是 1996 年由中华人民共和国国务院侨务办公室委托暨南大学华文学院为海外华侨、华人子弟学习中文而编写的。全套教材共 48 册其，其中《中文》主课本 12 册，家庭练习册 24 册（分为 A、B 册），教师教学参考书 12 册。这套教材自 1997 年 6 月陆续出版，直到 1999 年 11 月全部出齐，迄今已发行 560 多万册。在 2006 年，《中文》教材的修订是中华人民共和国国

务院侨务办会室委托暨南大学华文学院、华文教育研究所在原《中文》教材试用版的基础上，总结自 1997 年以来的试用情况，结合海外华文教育的实际需要和特点，广泛听取各方面意见和建议，以教材研究为依据修订再版。修订再版的《中文》教材全套共 52 册，除原有的 48 册外，另增编了配套的《学拼音》课本 1 册、《学拼音练习册》2 册及《学拼音教学参考》1 册。（《中文》，修订版前言，2006，1）

这套教材的教学目的是使学生经过全套中文教材的学习与训练，具备汉语普通话听、说、读、写的基本能力，了解中华文化常识，为进一步学习中国语言文化打下良好的基础。在修订编写过程中，教材根据海外华文教育的目标要求，从教学对象的年龄、生活环境和心理特点出发，以中国国家对外汉语教学领导小组办公室汉语水平考试部编制的《汉语水平等级标准与语法等级大纲》（1996）、中国国家汉语水平考试委员会办公室考试中心制定的《汉语水平词汇与汉字等级大纲》（2001）和中国国家语委、国家教委公布的《现代汉语常用字表》（1988）等为依据或参考，科学地安排教材的字、词、句、篇章等内容，由浅入深、循序渐进地设置家庭练习，培养学生的学习兴趣，启发学生积极思考，提高学生运用中文的能力。（《中文》，修订版前言，2006，1）

修订后的《中文》教材作了下列的重要设置：（一）每册由原来的 14 课调整为 12 课，并适当降低了课文难度。每 3 课为 1 个单元，每册共有 4 个单元。每个单元附有综合练习，每册增加了总练习。每册教材均附录音序生词表，该表收录本册各课所有生词（含单音节词和多音节词，并在生词右下角标注课文序号。（二）修订版教材第 1 册第 1-6 课为识字课，主课文后只列生字，不列词语和句子；自第 7 课开始，主课文后列词语和句子，但只列双音节或多音节词语，单音节词不列入；部分主课文后还列有"专有名词"，如人名、地名、国名等。（三）为了方便教学、修订版中文教材另配有《学拼音》及配套练习册，故 1-12 册主教材不含现代汉语拼音教学内容，但自第 5 册开始，适当增加了部分拼音练习。（四）修订版教材第 1-4 册的主课文、阅读课文均加注现代汉语拼音，从第 5 册开始，只为生字注音。注音时除主课文后的"词语"和"专有名词'按词注音外，其余部分均按字注音，一般标本调，但几类轻声不标声调。一般轻读、间或重读的字，注音上标调号。此外，"一""不"在课文中按实际读音标注声调。（五）儿化的处理。凡书面上可以不儿化的，不作儿化处理，但有拼音时则加注儿化音：非儿化不可的，则将"儿'字放在词后，如"这儿""一会儿"等。（六）为了方便学生学习，修订版中文教材及练习册的课文题目、练习题目等配有英文翻译或解释。部分"专有名词"在《中文教学参考》中加注了英文名称。（七）新出现的笔画或部首均在课文生字栏下列出，但识字课只列笔画，不列部首。1-4 册课堂练习中的"描一描，写一写"，凡生字均按笔顺逐一列出笔画，并将笔画书写方向用红色备头标出。从第 5 册开始，课堂练习的生字不再按笔顺列出笔画。笔顺规范依据中国国家语委、新闻出版总署颁布的《现代汉语通用字笔顺规范》（1997）。（八）为方便阅读课文的教学和自学，修订版中文教材在阅读课文后增加了"生字""词语"，部分列有"专有名词"，并相应地在《中文教学参》中增加了阅读课文的教学参考内容。（九）

为了适应部分学生认读繁体字的需要，修订版教材在主课本之后附有"简繁对照"的音序生字表，并在生字右下角标出课文序号。自第 2 册开始，各册均收录前面各册教材的音序生字表，以方便查阅。这套教材所列繁体字依据中国国家语委颁布的《简化字总表》(1986)，该表附录中所列异体字已停止使用，因此，这套教材不再作为繁体字或异体字收录。繁体字字形均采用新字形。《中文教学参考》中也相应地增加了繁体字的教学参考内容。此外，1 — 6 册教材附设有生字卡片，以方便教学。（十）为培养学生的汉语交际能力，修订版中文教材在原有的基拙上进一步加强了汉语交际功能训练。（《中文》，修订版前言，2006，1-2）

三、台湾编撰的海外小学生教材的特点

我们以《印尼版新编华语》作为例子，说明台湾编撰的海外小学生教材的特点。《印尼版新编华语》是台湾的侨务委员会于 2003 年 6 月出版的。其《序言》说道：东南亚是海外华人居住最众多的地区，华人迁居该地区也有数百年的历史。早期华人移民东南亚，大多数存著"落叶归根"的心态，然而，随著时代和环境的变迁，年轻一代的华人子弟大多数认为归根印尼才是他们未来的希望。这种理念在印尼华人尤其特别明显。不过，他们对於华语文教育的重视则没有因时代环境的变迁而削减，相反的，由於东南亚地区现代化的进展，这一地区与世界经济体系的相互依赖，华语文教育更受重视。当前侨社也需要有一套适合当地的教材，一方面能够帮助他们更了解居住国的历史、风俗文化、人文地理等。印尼是世界最大的群岛国家，也是世界第五大人口众多的国家，一向被称为东南亚的"龙头"，幅员辽阔，更有多元的族群、宗教、文化、及社会型态，堪称为世界罕见的多采多姿的岛国。这套教材旨在有系统的提供有关印尼的教学题材，以增进小朋友对该国风土文化、自然环境、重要历史人物等的认识。这套教材的编制经学者专家设计而成，内容涵盖日常生活用语、寓言故事、历史与人文地理等题材，并以深入浅出方式，介绍台湾的文字及当地人文生活经验，期使教学内容能融入日常生活之中。编者相信透过这套教材多元、活泼的内容，不仅能提升海外华侨子弟学习华文的兴趣，更能扩大中华文化的影响力，促进华人与当地人民的感情、互相尊重、了解与合作阐怀。（《印尼版新编华语》，序言，2003）

《印尼版新编华语》教材作了下列的重要设置：（一）课本共分十二册，是为了适应印尼华侨小学，传习华语需要而编写的。各册选字用词、单元课程，版面设计，完全依据当地实际情况所订定。（二）课本生字的编撰，尽可能以由简入繁为原则，笔画较简单者为优先，构词编撰的原则为"实词"先於"虚词"，生活用语优於非生活用语，循序渐进，以求学以致用。（三）课本选用华文最常用 1100 个字，进而构成词汇达 5000 个。读完小学之后，已经可以应付日常生活交际需要，并能书写日常应用的便条、通知、书信等，理解百分之八十华文报纸的阅读能力。（四）各册课本分若干单元，每课生字分布平均八个字，课文之后属教学延伸部分，旨在

增进学生用字遣词、造句的能力。（五）课文内容，低年级以会话优先，识字次之。中年级起以文章为主，配合当地国情、社会背景，并介绍中华文化。（六）各册课本生字，一律采用华文标准楷书字体，字旁并加注音符号。高年级课本，课文文字不再加注音符号，以减低学生对注音符号的依赖性，加强华文的认念能力，并注重词汇本位教学。（七）中年级起，各册课本体裁的选择，以多样性变化为原则，力求实用而又兼具趣味化，以提高学生学习意愿。（八）各册课本采用 A4 尺寸纸张，彩色横式编排以利字与行之间距放宽、字体加大，俾使学生阅读舒适。（九）课本插图以彩色为原则，插图的绘制，配合课文内容，力求生动活泼，以帮助学生了解教材内容，增添学习兴趣。（《印尼版新编华语》，编辑要旨，2003）

四、新加坡教育部制定的小学华文教材及其特征

为达致"理想教育成果"，新加坡教育部制定了"重思考的学校、好学习的国民"的教育方针，并在这个基础上，提出了"创新与企业精神"、"少教多学"等教育理念。这些教育理念的内涵在于着重培养学生主动探究、自主学习的精神，强调师生的互动，调动学生学习的积极性，全面提高学习效益。其具体落实在教学中则是：（一）在培养学生主动探究、自主学习的精神方面，教师通过创设情境，引导学生分析问题、解决问题；通过让学生收集、筛选、整理及运用资料，培养学生自主学习的能力。（二）教师通过鼓励学生建立学习群体，发挥互助精神，开展互动学习，建立勇于发问、乐于参与、积极分享的学习风气。随着社会的发展和语言环境的改变，华文课程应做出相应的调整。教育部于 2004 年 2 月成立"华文课程与教学法检讨委员会"，对新加坡的华文课程进行了全面的检讨。委员会认为华文课程仍应配合我国的双语政策，注重母语教学，保留传统文化，同时还需加强课程的灵活性，提高学生运用语言的能力。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，1）

新加坡教育部长 2009 年在教育部新一年的工作指导蓝图会议上指出，来自讲英语背景家庭的华族小一新生人数已从 2004 年的 47.3% 上升到 2009 年的约 60%，超越汉语而处于主导的地位。（网址：http://www.moe.gov.sg/media/speeches/2009/09/17/ work-plan-seminar.php）从这个趋势看来，在 10 年至 20 年内，英语将成为新加坡华族最主要的语言，而汉语则将变成通过课堂学习的第二语言或外语。

新加坡教育部制定的小学华文教材《小学华文》，其理念主要包括：（一）兼顾语言能力的培养与人文素养的提高：华文课程应为学生打好语文基础，培养学生的听说能力、识字与写字能力、阅读能力、写作能力和综合运用语言技能的能力。华文课程还应强调华族文化的传承及品德情操的培养，以提高学生的人文素养；（二）注重华文的实用功能：华文课程应充分利用家庭、学校、社区、网络资讯等资源，扩大学生的学习空间，开展结合生活实际的学习活动，以增加学生运用语言的机会，激发学生学习华文的兴趣，增强学生离校后继续使用华文的积极性；

（三）遵循语言学习的规律，提高学习效益：华文课程应遵循语言学习的规律。在培养学生听、说能力的基础上，加强读、写能力的培养。在教学过程中，应在学生已有的语文基础上，开展综合性语言学习活动，让学生在实践中学习语言，培养语感；（四）重视个别差异，发掘学生潜能：为了使华文课程重视学生的个别差异，给来自不同语言背景、具有不同语言能力的学生提供不同的选择，课程采用单元教学模式，包括导入单元、核心单元和深广单元，以照顾学生家庭语言背景的不同和学习能力的差异。导入单元着重听说和识字教学，它供较少接触华文的学生学习，目的是为进入核心单元做准备；核心单元着重听说、识字与写字和阅读教学，它是所有的小学生都必须修读的单元；深广单元着重增加阅读量、拓宽阅读面，它是让那些既有能力又对华文感兴趣的学生学习，它安排在核心单元之后。华文课程也应为教师提供发挥的空间，让教师能针对学生的需要，采取不同的策略，开展多元的教学活动，发挥学生的潜能，让学生体验成功；（五）培养积极、自主学习的精神：华文课程应倡导自主、合作、探究的学习方式。学生是学习的主体，教师是学习的引导者。教师应组织和引导学生在实践中学习，加强学生之间的互动与合作，培养学生积极、自主学习的精神；（六）发展学生的思维能力：华文课程应注重语言与思维的相互促进。在培养学生语言能力的同时，也应有意识地发展学生的思维能力，培养想象力和创造力，使他们具备分析问题、解决问题的能力。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，3-4，9-15）

在总目标方面，《小学华文》以"理想教育成果"为宗旨，以"核心技能与价值观"为基础，兼顾国民教育、思维能力、资讯科技、社交技能与情绪管理的学习等方面来拟定。其中，核心技能与价值观包括语文和运算技能、交际技能、综合与运用知识的技能、建立良好的社会关系与协作的技能、自我管理与终身学习的技能、思维技能与创造力和良好的品德修养，教学内容必须具体落实这些核心技能与价值观。总目标主要包括：（一）培养语言能力：能听懂日常生活中的一般话题、儿童节目、简单的新闻报道等；能以华语与人交谈，能针对日常生活话题发表意见；能阅读适合程度的儿童读物，能主动利用各种资源多阅读；能根据图意或要求写内容较丰富的短文，能在生活中用华文 表达自己的感受；能综合运用听、说、读、写的语言技能进行学习，与人沟通；（二）提高人文素养：培养积极的人生态度与正确的价值观；认识并传承优秀的华族文化；关爱家人，关心社会，热爱国家；热爱生活，感受美，欣赏美；（三）培养通用能力：发展思维能力，能发挥想象力和创造力，具备分析问题、解决问题的能力；具备基本的自学能力，能运用所学的知识；能借助资讯科技进行学习，与人沟通；具备社交技能与情绪管理能力，能对自己有一定的认识，并能和周围的人建立良好的关系。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，5-6）

《小学华文》的设置采用单元模式进行。其中，核心单元是学生都必须学习的单元，其授课时间占总课时的 70 至 80%。其余 20 至 30% 的授课时间，学校可根据学生的情况，选用以下任何一个单元：（一）导入 / 强化单元：导入单元供较少接触华文的学生在小一、小二阶段学习，目的是为进入核心单元的课程做准备。到了小三、小四阶段，需要额外帮助的学生可以学

习强化单元。导入 / 强化单元的教学应安排在核心单元教学之前；（二）校本单元：学校可根据
各自的情况，采用以下任何一种处理方式：采用部分导入 / 强化单元或深广单元教材，加强针
对性教学；利用核心单元教材，丰富教学活动；自行设计教材，丰富学习内容；（三）深广单元：
那些既有能力又对华文感兴趣的学生，则学习华文深广单元。深广单元的教学应安排在核心单
元教学之后。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，10-11）

五、对比分析中国、台湾和新加坡三地的小学生教材

我们将从以下四个方面来对比分析中国、台湾和新加坡三地的小学生教材：（一）选编的文
本；（二）宣扬的意识；（三）承传的文化；（四）教授的技能。

（一）选编的文本。中国编制的《中文》以短文、童话、寓言、传说、古诗、成语故事、
历史故事、人文地理等为主。其中，短文如《司马光》（第 4 册第 8 课），《猪八戒吃西瓜》（第
9 册第 4 课）；童话如《龟兔赛跑》（第 3 册第 10 课），《乌鸦喝水》（第 7 册第 4 课）；寓言如
《狼来了》（第 3 册第 12 课），《东郭先生和狼》（第 7 册第 5 课）；传说如《鲁班与锯子》（第 3
册第 8 课），《嫦娥奔月》（第 5 册第 9 课）；古诗如《古诗二首：静夜思，登鹳雀楼》（第 3 册第
7 课），《古诗二首：游子吟，江雪》（第 5 册第 7 课）；成语故事如《成语故事：守株待兔，刻舟
求剑》（第 5 册第 6 课），《成语故事：亡羊补牢，拔苗助长》（第 6 册第 6 课）；历史故事如《蔡
伦造纸》（第 3 册第 9 课），《李时珍》（第 5 册第 12 课）；人文地理如《颐和园》（第 4 册第 2
课），《杭州西湖》（第 7 册第 3 课）。

台湾编制的《印尼版新编华语》以短文、书信、历史故事、人文地理、宗教故事等为主。
其中，短文如《向人问好》（第 5 册第 3 课），《生日礼物》（第 8 册第 1 课）；书信如《给外婆
的信》（第 8 册第 10 课），《枫叶卡》（第 10 册第 6 课）；历史故事如《爱画图的老人（仓颉）》
（第 6 册第 10 课），《印尼的独立节》（第 8 册第 3 课）；人文地理如《美丽的巴厘岛》（第 5 册
第 7 课），《老家泉州》（第 5 册第 8 课）。

新加坡编制的《小学华文》以短文、童话、寓言、传说、书信、历史故事等为主。其中，
短文如《我们都爱新加坡》（一下，第 7 课），《过新年》（二上，第 3 课）；童话如《碰碰船》
（一下，第 6 课），《小猫钓鱼》（二上，第 8 课）；寓言如《友谊桥》（三上，第 4 课），《永远不
满》（四上，第 3 课）；传说如《红山的传说》（三下，第 15 课），《筷子的传说》（三下，第 18
课）；书信如《给小主人的信》（五上，第 7 课），《两封信》（五下，第 17 课）；历史故事如《孔
融让梨》（二上，第 11 课），《新加坡拉》（二下，第 17 课）。

（二）宣扬的意识。中国编制的《中文》重点宣扬龙的传人、中国情思等意识。如《江河》
（第 2 册第 11 课）写道："黄河是中国的母亲河……哺育着中华大地……我们爱长江，我们爱黄
河。"；《"神舟"飞天》（第 5 册第 9 课）写道："'神舟五号'载人航天飞船的成功飞行，使中国

人千年的飞天梦想终于实现了！……我们都为'神舟六号'载人航天飞行船取得的新成就感到光荣和自豪。"。

台湾编制的《印尼版新编华语》重点宣扬认识风土文化、重要历史人物、自然环境等意识。其中宣扬认识风土文化的课文如《中国农历新年》（第 6 册第 4 课），《印尼的独立节》（第 8 册第 3 课）；宣扬重要历史人物的课文如《孙中山》（第 9 册第 2 课），《（印尼）民族英雄狄波尼果罗王子》（第 9 册第 1 课）；自然环境的课文如《美丽的印尼》（第 5 册第 5 课），《美丽的巴厘岛》（第 5 册第 7 课）。

新加坡编制的《小学华文》重点宣扬培养正确的价值观、认识优秀的华族文化、关爱家人、关心社会、热爱国家等意识。其中宣扬培养正确的价值观的课文如《我的好朋友》（二上，第 12 课），《懂事的丽文》（三上，第 2 课）；认识优秀的华族文化的课文如《孔融让梨》（二上，第 11 课），《司马光救人》（二下，第 16 课）；关爱家人的课文如《看电视》（三下，第 14 课），《倾斜的伞》（六上，第 3 课）；关心社会的课文如《"失物"认领》（三下，第 17 课），《认识新加坡》（四上，第 2 课）；热爱国家的课文如《我们都爱新加坡》（一下，第 7 课），《新加坡生日快乐》（五下，第 14 课）。

（三）承传的文化。中国编制的《中文》以了解中华文化常识为主。如《新年到》（第 1 册第 12 课），《江河》（第 2 册第 11 课），《古诗二首：静夜思，登鹳雀楼》（第 3 册第 7 课），《颐和园》（第 4 册第 2 课），《李时珍》（第 5 册第 12 课），《成语故事：亡羊补牢，拔苗助长》（第 6 册第 6 课），《万里长城》（第 7 册第 7 课），《古诗二首：清明，枫桥夜坡》（第 8 册第 9 课），《中秋之夜》（第 9 册第 2 课），《成语故事：开天辟地，千里送鹅毛》（第 10 册第 5 课），《天安门》（第 11 册第 7 课），《京剧大师梅兰芳》（第 12 册第 5 课）等。

台湾编制的《印尼版新编华语》以介绍中华文化、扩大中化文化的影响力为主。如《老家泉州》（第 5 册第 8 课），《中国农历新年》（第 6 册第 4 课），《有趣的中国字》（第 9 册第 4 课），《孟母三迁的故事》（第 11 册第 5 课），《太极拳》（第 12 册第 2 课），《竹子》（第 12 册第 7 课），《梅花》（第 12 册第 8 课），《陶渊明》（第 12 册第 9 课）等。

新加坡编制的《小学华文》以华族文化的传承、品德情操的培养为主。如《可爱的汉子》（一上，第 3 课），《过新年》（二上，第 3 课），《孔融让梨》（二上，第 11 课），《学华语》（二下，第 15 课），《司马光救人》（二下，第 16 课），《葬在蓄水池边的英雄》（四下，第 19 课），《木兰从军》（四下，第 20 课），《不及段灵送我情》（五下，第 18 课）等。

（四）教授的技能。中国编制的《中文》以识字教学、句子教学、阅读理解为主、听说写为辅的综合训练。汉字词汇语法以中国国家对外汉语教学领导小组办公室汉语水平考试部编制的《汉语水平等级标准与语法等级大纲》（1996）、中国国家汉语水平考试委员会办公室考试中心制定的《汉语水平词汇与汉字等级大纲》（2001）和中国国家语委、国家教委公布的《现代汉语常用字表》（1988）等为依据或参考。《中文》，修订版前言，2006，1）课文的字数，低年级每篇约 19 字至 440 字，高年级每篇约 500 字至 1400 字。每一篇课文都设置"生字"（低年

级 6-11 字，高年级 12-18 字)、"词语"（低年级 3-5 个，高年级 7-13 个)、"专有名词"、"句子"（低年级 1-2 句，高年级 2 句)、"写一写"（每个生字写 3 次)、"读一读"（词语搭配)、"扩展与替换"（从词扩展到句，句子中的词语替换)、"对话"、"想一想、说一说"等项目。

　　台湾编制的《印尼版新编华语》低年级以会话、中、高年级以文章的阅读理解为主。课本选用华文最常用 1100 个字，进而构成词汇达 5000 个。读完小学之后，已经可以应付日常生活交际需要，并能书写日常应用的便条、通知、书信等，理解百分之八十华文报纸的阅读能力。每课生字分布平均 8 个字，课文之后属教学延伸部分，旨在增进学生用字遣词、造句的能力。课文内容，低年级以会话优先，识字次之。（第 1 册至第 4 册）中年级起以文章为主，配合当地国情、社会背景，并介绍中华文化。（第 5 册至第 12 册）（《印尼版新编华语》，编辑要旨，2003）课文的字数，低年级每篇约 40 字至 120 字，中、高年级每篇约 200 字至 500 字。低年级课文的设置包括"识字"（生字)、"写写看"（每个生字写 3 次)、"注音"（写注音)、"连连看"（连词语或句子)、"读读看"（读词语或句子)、"回答问题"（写答案)、"填空"（填词语或句子)、"造句"；中、高年级的课文只列"生字"，并在课本的末处列出该册所需学习的生字及其部首、构词和常用短语。

　　新加坡编制的《小学华文》偏重阅读理解能力的训练、听说写的训练穿插在阅读教学活动中。目标主要在于培养语言能力，即能听懂日常生活中的一般话题、儿童节目、简单的新闻报道等；能以华语与人交谈，能针对日常生活话题发表意见；能阅读适合程度的儿童读物，能主动利用各种资源多阅读；能根据图意或要求写内容较丰富的短文，能在生活中用华文 表达自己的感受；能综合运用听、说、读、写的语言技能进行学习，与人沟通。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，5）对于识字和写字能力的要求，到了小六阶段，学生能识读常用汉字 1600-1700 个，其中 1000-1100 个会写。（《小学华文课程标准》，2007，21）课文的字数，低年级每篇约 30 字至 220 字，高年级每篇约 250 字至 420 字。每一篇课文都设置"认读字和写用字"（低年级"我会认"8-10 字，"我会写"4-8 字；高年级"我会认"15-16 字，"我会写"8-13 字)、语文园地（低年级包括读读记记、比比读读、读读想想、读读练练、听听说说等；高年级包括读读想想、读读记记、读读说说、听听说说、学习宝藏等)。

六、汉语作为第二语言或外语的小学生口语交际教材的构建理念

　　一般公认的教材编写原则包括针对性、科学性、实用性和趣味性等。（李泉，2004，25）虽然针对性占有重要的地位，而在教材中大力弘扬中华文化，其动机虽是可以理解，其做法也无可厚非。但是，从根本上来说，汉语作为第二语言或外语并不承担弘扬中华文化的任务。教材中弘扬的味道如果太浓太强烈、中华文化优越性如果突出的太多太明显，必定会使学习者产生教材是在宣扬中华文化、甚至是强行宣扬中华文化的印象。学习者一旦对教材内容产生"强

加于人"的强烈印象，必然会引起他们的强烈反感。汉语作为第二语言或外语的学习者在学习汉语时，大多带有工具性目的，他们不一定非要认同中华文化。因此，教材要让学习者在学习汉语时感到人文性，不可一味弘扬中华文化。这样，汉语才能更容易地国际化。（赵金铭，1998，54；李泉，2002，37-38）本篇文章对中国、台湾和新加坡三地的小学生教材进行对比分析中发现，这三地的小学生教材偏重阅读教学和中华文化的传承。我们认为，语言的学习重在交流和沟通，书面语教学和重文化内容无助于口语交际的训练。我们的构想是：应该有独立的汉语口语交际教材，不应和文化挂得太紧，应与日常现实生活衔接联系。先解决语言，再解决文化。如此，汉语作为第二语言或外语的学习者在学习汉语时，先掌握口语的能力，打下较为坚实的语言基础后，才让他欣赏中华文化的美。

七、结语

中国国势的强大使得汉语的国际地位高涨。国际间汉语作为外语的学习人数激增促使汉语走向世界和汉语全球化趋势的形成。为了应对这个全球汉语热的需要，国际汉语教学已经从"请进来"的时代进入了"走出去"的时代。对此，中国十分积极地为海外地区的汉语学习者编制所需的教材。在北美、欧洲、日本、韩国、东南亚各国等以及其他地区的社区中，汉语不是所在地的主导语言，汉语课程处于主流教育之外，所用教材通常由海外汉语机构提供，内容取材于中国大陆或台湾。一般而言，教材是组织教学的材料、教师教学的依据和学生学习的内容。从本文对中国、台湾和新加坡三地的小学生教材进行对比分析后，发现其教材偏重阅读教学和中华文化的传承。我们认为，语言的学习重在交流和沟通，书面语教学和重文化内容无助于口语交际的训练。我们的构想是：先解决语言，再解决文化。应该有独立的汉语口语交际教材，不应和文化挂得太紧，应与日常现实生活衔接联系。如此，汉语作为第二语言或外语的学习者才不会对教材产生抗拒，才会在较轻松的环境下学习汉语。

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Part 2

Introduction

The articles in the second part of this volume were initiated by the 9th BCLTS International Symposium on Innovations in Teaching and Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language held at University of Edinburgh, UK, 29th June – 1st July 2011, and further developed from discussions among colleagues after the conference. The articles demonstrate good practice in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the UK, as well as in other parts of the world, focusing on the impact of innovation and standardization in teaching and learning Chinese.

This part covers a wide range of topics, including literacy in Chinese, traditional Chinese, Business Chinese, Chinese lexicon, Chinese corpora and Chinese rhetoric, etc. A number of innovative approaches of teaching Chinese are proposed such as a "thinking" Chinese classroom and peer-teaching. It is interesting to note that some comparisons are made between English letters and Chinese characters, and the thought patterns in creating new Chinese words.

At the end of the second part of this volume, some articles about teaching Chinese in primary and middle schools are included. This is based on the consideration that it could be helpful for university teachers to have an idea of the trend of the new student population when these students come to the university.

We hope that the articles in this book will assist language teachers to share good practice and learn from each other and we also hope that you will enjoy reading the articles as much as we did during the preparation of the volume.

Wei JIN, Minjie XING, Wendy CHE

An Exploration into CFL Beginners' Reading Process: Students' Perceived Difficulties and Strategies

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Abstract

In the few studies on the reading processes with native speakers of languages with the alphabet scripts, insights have been gained about intermediate and advanced CFL learners of Chinese as a foreign language. The investigations appear scarce into how beginners learn to read Chinese. The current study explores what difficulties CFL beginner readers encounter in their reading process and what strategies they deploy in tackling these difficulties to achieve comprehension of their reading passages. On the voluntary basis, twenty-two participants whose mother tongues are European languages read one narrative text online when they received twenty-seven contact hours of Chinese learning. They listed the difficulties they encountered in their reading in English. Using think-aloud procedures, the author asked seven of them to report what was happening in their mind while reading another narrative text when they completed fifty-seven contact hours of learning. Apart from the difficulties in reading and strategies of reading identified, the study further confirms how Bernhardt's (1991) constructivist model can account for beginners' reading of Chinese. Implications are drawn for teaching and assessment of Chinese reading at preliminary levels.

Key words: Chinese characters, reading strategies, perceived difficulties

1. Introduction

Learning Chinese is different from learning other foreign languages and learning to read and write in the Chinese script requires particular attentions from the learners, especially European language speakers who have never experienced characters as part of their prior learning. Due to the differences between the Chinese script from that of European languages, learning Chinese, especially learning to read and write Chinese characters, has been perceived as a 'bottle neck' amongst learners of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). The difficulty lies in the fact that, unlike alphabetical scripts where a word's pronunciation derives more directly from its orthography, the relationship between pronunciation and orthographic form of the Chinese character is rather opaque, and it is harder to establish the link between pronunciation and print. In Chinese, there are only about 420 different syllables, or about 1,200 including four tones (Wang/Higgins 2008), so there are characters whose pronunciations are exactly the same, but can only be discriminated by their written forms. To CFL beginners, reading Chinese becomes an arduous task to complete. However, how do beginners achieve the comprehension of reading passages remains an interesting issue to researchers and practitioners. In this article, I will briefly explain the concepts of reading in English as a first and second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) and review the literature on reading Chinese as a foreign language. Then, I will introduce my study of beginner classes at a British university, which will be followed by the analysis of the small set of data derived from students' questionnaires and self-reports. Finally, I will discuss the students' perceived difficulties and strategies they adopted in reading Chinese and draw implications for teaching and assessing Chinese reading.

2. Theoretical underpinning

Research into reading started with that of learning English as the first language. In research into learning English as the first language, reading has been perceived as comprising 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' processes. These two models of reading emerged during 1960s to 1980s. The top-down model regards reading as directed from reader to text (Goodman 1967), i.e. readers discern meaning at whole text-level and use their background knowledge to support comprehension. Unlike this higher level model, the bottom-up model describes reading as oriented from text to reader (Smith 1978/1986, cited in Hinkel 2010), a so-called lower-level process. That is, readers are thought to identify words

and base their comprehension on meanings at word or phrase level. Later research in cognitive psychology argues that reading actually involves the interaction of both top-down and bottom-up processing. Finkbeiner (2001, 2005 cited in Cohen 2007) suggests that there may be different combinations of strategies involving in top-down and bottom-up processing, depending on the different learner and context variables. Pritchard (1990) investigated the effect of cultural schemata on reading processing strategies when students read culturally familiar and unfamiliar passages in the participants' own language. This study finds 22 strategies being classified into 5 categories. Students were found to have used different strategies in reading culturally familiar and unfamiliar texts. It is found that students generated noticeably more idea units and made a greater number of appropriate elaborations with the culturally familiar text, and conversely made more distortions with the unfamiliar text. Hence, cultural schemata seemed to have effects on the students' processing strategies and their level of comprehension.

The conceptualization of reading in the first language (L1) has influenced the understanding of reading in the second language (L2). It was found that in EFL/ESL readers tend to apply mental translation from L2 to L1 (Kern 1994). Successful foreign language readers read or translated in broad phrases while less successful read or translated in short phrases. Successful readers can either skipped unknown words or inferred their meanings from the surrounding text and get main meanings and integrate the understanding from the text with the information which they discerned about the text structure while less successful foreign language readers resorted mainly to the word level, more text-based reading and seldom skipped words. Based on the data collected from intermediate college level American readers of French, German and Spanish, Bernhardt (1991) developed the constructivist model to account for the L2 reading process, According to this model, L2 reading is an interactive process that involves the simultaneous interaction of six factors: three text-driven factors (word recognition, phonemic/graphemic decoding, syntactic feature recognition) and three conceptually driven factors (intratextual perceptions, prior knowledge, metacognition). Word recognition means that readers assign meanings to words either through translation or inferences; Phonemic/graphemic decoding refers to the matching of the spoken language with their graphic equivalent; Syntactic feature recognition refers to correctly establishing the relationship of words with sentences; Intratextual perception looks into how different parts of the text are integrated into a coherent discourse structure; Prior knowledge looks into the application of world knowledge that facilitates or hinders textual comprehension; Metacognition refers to the reader's reflection and monitoring of how well the message seems to be constructed. In recent decades, this model has attracted attention of CFL researchers in studying of reading Chinese, whose literature I will review below.

3. Literature review on CFL reading

3.1 Phonology and Chinese reading

Research into CFL reading revealed the roles that the Chinese pronunciation system plays in reading Chinese. Kleiman (1975, cited in Lee-Thompson 2008) pointed out that phonological coding facilitates information processing in short term memory when reading extended text and phonemic decoding occurs in learning German, French, Spanish as L2. Similarly, Tzeng and Hung (1981, cited in Perfetti, Zhang and Berent 1992) found that phonological coding occurs in reading of Chinese. Everson and Ke (1997) employed the term of sound mediation to explore whether the assistance of pronunciation diminishes with the increasing proficiency. Lee-Thompson (2008) used the term vocalisation, a strategy similar to sound mediation, to describe that CFL readers are helped to understand the rhythms of the language and gain more comprehension, and thus their short-term memory are enhanced in their effort to construct the meaning of the text. However, on a completely different note, Palvidis (1992) pointed out that most learners did not perceive the pronunciation of characters to be important in decoding for meaning.

3.2 Reading difficulties and strategies

There are a few studies on CFL learners' reading strategies. Everson and Ke (1997) adopted the think-aloud protocol to study the process of reading a portion of a Chinese newspaper article among the adult students who have learned Chinese respectively for two and five years. The students were asked to talk about what he or she is actually doing when they were reading, so that the researcher can gain some insights into how students tackle a text in the process of reading. Everson and Ke (1997) studied the reading strategies used by 5 intermediate and 2 advanced learners and they extended the Bernhardt's model of reading by placing an orthographic layer of difficulty (involved in recognising Chinese characters) in the word recognition, as it is impossible to recognise a word if one has trouble isolating it from the text. In their study, it was found that advanced learners were able to infer the meanings of multi-character words and have developed what is called 'character networks', has the ability to guess at unknown combinations by either knowing what one of the characters means separately, or by knowing other combinations where the individual characters occur. In contrast, intermediate learners have difficulty isolating meaningful word units in the text: relatively low ability

to rapidly pare constituent units in authentic Chinese text. They seemed to be able to recognise vocabulary that they knew, but seemed to be limited in their ability to infer or guess at vocabulary that they did not know. However, Everson and Ke (1997) did not seem to reveal much about metacognition and study management among their learners.

Du (2000 cited in Lee-Thompson 2008) identified and determined the frequency of use of the reading strategies employed by 12 American CSL learners (6 intermediate, 6 advanced) in processing a short Chinese newspaper article: an expository text selected from a newspaper published in Taiwan. She categorised these reading strategies into global and local types. Global strategies refer to interpreting text, reconising content/structure, correcting behaviour; local strategies refer to acknowledging problems, translating, identifying and distinguishing character/words. She found that her readers used 'association' strategy when coming across unfamiliar characters and had developed parsing skills (Everson and Ke 1997), which can be taken as a higher level of reading. Du's (2000) results showed that two-thirds of the students used the local strategies at a higher percentage rate than global strategies. She pointed out that the learners spent considerable time and energy solving unknown characters in addition to utilising the global strategies due to the different orthography of Chinese.

Lee-Thompson (2008) investigated the reading strategies used by eight American CFL learners of intermediate level in comprehending narrative and argumentative Chinese texts. Four out of eight readers in her study reported that they had difficulty recognising Chinese characters. They were confused by some look-alike characters. Among these readers, segmenting meaningful word units becomes a major problem, which indicated that parsing skill in reading Chinese was yet to develop, and they struggled to find subjects or objects due to their omission in Chinese syntax. Other difficulties that these learners encountered in processing the meaning of the texts were related to vocabulary, orthography, grammar and background knowledge.

Lee-Thompson (2008) found 12 word-based, text-based, local or lower level strategies which she called bottom-up strategies. The learners used these strategies to help solve difficulties in comprehension of smaller units such as characters, words, phrases, or sentences. She also finds that the learners used 15 top-down strategies to assemble or integrate information to gain a holistic understanding of larger portions or the entire text. These strategies were also called reader-based, global or higher-level strategies. For example, paraphrasing, hypothesising, and monitoring comprehension. Among the 27 strategies, 22 can be categorised as cognitive strategies, 5 as meta-cognitive strategies. She also noted that readers used more than one strategy simultaneously, and concluded that Bernhardt's reading model could account for the reading process of CFL learners with minor modification.

3.3 Reading and instruction

Ptaszynski (2009) investigated how reading strategies are affected by instructional methods in classroom. There were 22 CFL learners at all levels (beginners, intermediate and advanced) who participated in the research, and 6 were at beginner level. He found 5 different types of strategies, including word identification (translation of single words), character analysis (focus on semantic/phonetic components or character composition), word analysis (hypothesising about word meaning on the basis of the meaning of single characters included in the word, utilising knowledge about how characters may form words together) ; translation (functional translation, direct translation, restatement); top-down strategies (using context, reference to other parts of the text, using prior knowledge, creating a general view of the content, focus on structure of the text, identifying the main idea, summarising, asking oneself questions about the content of the text, evaluative comments, making predictions or inferences. According to Ptaszynski (2009), focus on reading in class seems to lead to frequent use of translation during reading, while students with good spoken language skill as a result of classroom instruction tend to use translation less frequently while reading. This seemed true for both beginner and intermediate students. He also found that students who use little translation while reading tend to make a more frequent use of character analysis. So teaching character composition especially at lower levels allows students to use character analysis effectively to guess at unknown vocabulary.

There are another two studies which discussed the classroom instruction impact on reading skills. DeFrancis (1968, cited in Everson and Ke 1997) introduced character combinations along with other combinations that have in common either the first or second character, thus attempting to develop 'character network' and a sense of system among developing readers of CFL. Wang (1953, cited in Everson and Ke 1997) and Li and Wang (1988, cited in Everson and Ke 1997) provided reading texts with spaces between word units to facilitate processing of meaning of the texts, but no empirical study to establish whether this instructional text mediation can actually help the beginners develop the parsing skills.

To sum up, research has been done among the learners of intermediate and advanced levels, but there seems little research on what is happening in the learners' mind when they just started to read Chinese scripts. My study focuses on difficulties and strategies adopted by beginner readers of CFL.

4. The current study

4.1 Procedures

My current study focused on two groups of beginner learners of Chinese. The first group consisted of 15 beginners who have just finished 27 contact hours of learning Mandarin Chinese and the other group was made up of 7 beginners who have finished 57 contact hours of learning Mandarin Chinese. On the voluntary basis the participants were asked to read a passage online (see Appendix I) and list in English the difficulties in their process of reading and illustrated these difficulties with examples from the passage if possible. Then seven of them were asked to read one narrative texts with connected paragraphs (see Appendix II), immediately after their reading, the researcher conducted retrospective interviews with them. They were asked to tell the researcher what was happening in their mind while reading. This study intends to answer the following three questions:

• What are the strategies that CFL beginners use in reading Chinese?

• What are the difficulties encountered by them?

• How can Bernhardt's constructivist model account for the reading process of CFL beginners?

4.2 Findings

The researcher then analysed the data and identified a series of reading strategies used by these beginning learners, as well as the difficulties they encountered in the reading process. These difficulties and strategies were listed without any particular order but with students' quotes and examples they took of their own reading.

4.2.1 Difficulties in reading

The difficulties in reading among these beginner readers can be demonstrated primarily in following seven respects.

Retention and recognition of Chinese characters. CFL beginners were confused by some characters which look alike each other in shape. Some participants said, 'I forget characters easily after I learn them.' 'I find remembering what they all mean a big trouble, I get mixed up with them sometimes and not sure which ones they are.' 'Many characters look very similar with only minor difference'. One participant said that when he read 数学老师, he tended to take it as a professor of a

subject because he could easily recognise 学 as a subject, but he confused 数 with 教 , and whenever he came across 教 , he would take it as 教授 (professor) due to the fact that he learned 教授 together in one of his texts.

Segmenting meaningful units. These beginners need to develop the parsing skill in order to read Chinese with appropriate segments of meaning units. Unlike reading European languages where words are spaced evenly between each other, the challenge that these beginners were presented was that each Chinese character is connected one after the other without any space in between. In Chinese a word can be made up of one, two, three or even four characters, and so the learners must know where to pause in order to make sense of a word, a phrase or a sentence. Some participants said 'I have difficulty in distinguishing each character from another since there is no space between them', 'working out the grouping of characters is hard.'

Fonts of the same characters appearing different. To students who do not have any experience of reading and writing characters in their prior learning, Chinese characters of handwritten and print forms as well as a variety of print forms appear different. In class the input from the teacher about writing Chinese characters tend to be either the teacher's handwriting in whiteboard marker or regular style of Chinese calligraphy presented with computer animation. However, when students are confronted with a piece of reading, some characters may appear unfamiliar and unrecognizable as they learned the same characters with a different font. Some participants reported, 'On computer, the characters are often smaller, more squashed together and appear more square than they would in a book, making it difficult to identify the characters.' 'I have had problems with different fonts, when you get used to seeing the hand drawn/calligraphy characters it can be difficult to recognise them in their computer typeface.' In addition, the characters with many strokes may appear chaotic to beginners. One participant said, 'sometimes it's hard to make out the details of a character when it's printed small, e.g. 餐 in 餐厅 .

Chinese names are difficult to know. A Chinese name usually consists of two, three or four characters. Beginners find it hard to identify Chinese names from the string of characters in a sentence. Some participants said, 'picking out names of people from a passage is so difficult'. 'If you don't know the name, it is difficult to guess, you just don't know'. 'Names in the text can make it difficult if you don't realise they are just names, I found it very useful to underline all the names in the exam.'

Unknown characters and words. In reading Chinese, it is very common for beginners to come across new or unknown characters. At this stage students feel heavily replied on the known characters and feel at a loss as how to guess the meaning of the unknown characters. One participant said 'If I don't understand one character in a sentence, it is difficult to get an accurate reading of the whole sentence.'

Establishing character network. In Chinese a word is made up of one, two, three or four characters. Beginners can manage to know the meaning of the word if they happen to know the meaning of the single character that forms the word. But in the cases of multiple character words, beginners find it puzzled to guess the meaning of the whole word even when the characters within the word are not unknown to them. One participant said, 'some characters are familiar, but cannot form the meaning when it combines with other new characters.'

Grammatical difficulty. In students' reading, the uniqueness of Chinese grammatical system sometimes puzzles the beginners. They find it hard to comprehend the reading when they do not understand the grammar. However, this does not seem to be a unique problem in reading Chinese, but be a common difficulty in learning any foreign language.

4.2.2 Reading Strategies

In spite of difficulties in reading, beginners were found to adopt a variety of strategies to cope well in reading Chinese. These strategies are listed as follows:

More bottom-up strategies than top-down strategies. The beginners were found to have focused more on character recognition than taking a comprehensive view of the sentences or paragraphs. However, when new or unknown characters come up in their reading, they may find it hard to guess the meaning as we discussed earlier.

Mental translation/Literal translation. In reading Chinese, these beginners tend to resort to translation of Chinese into the language they are more comfortable with, which may be their mother tongue, if English is their foreign/second language. For example, students may use Google translation in reading the online narrative text. One participant said, 'usually you can swap the characters around and it will make perfect sense in English'.

Marking the text with extralinguistic codes. The beginners adopted all possible means to help their reading. Apart from the linguistic means that they take to recognize characters, words and phrases as well as grammar, they also deploy many extralinguistic means such as drawing lines, brackets, boxes, circles, question marks, etc. to mark the unfamiliar characters. One participant said, 'I sort of know which bit I don't know so that I can easily find it if it is asked in the questions'.

Writing pinyin or English equivalent on top of characters. Due to the fact that the European language speakers are more used to alphabetical scripts, they tend to use pinyin (sometimes English equivalent) to help recall the pronunciation and/or meaning of characters. In addition, students use pinyin to help focus their attention properly and segment character strings to aid their comprehension. One participant said, 'writing in pinyin across the top, I think, yeah, when you look, if there is a big long string of characters with no punctuation, I do tend to write out pinyin, where⋯otherwise, you

lose track of where you are (in reading).'For example, when reading '她八岁生日的时候，他们一家人都很高兴。'Students tend to write pinyin above 生日 , as this word could be the most easily recognised characters for them among the character string of this long sentence, writing pinyin above them may have helped the students recall their meaning and enabled them to comprehend the meaning of '岁' and the rest of the sentence.

Make use of surrounding words/contexts. When encountering a new or unknown character in reading a sentence, students tend to make use of the surrounding words to hypothesise and test their understanding in the process of making sense of the content. For example, one participant could not recognise 属 on its own, but when he saw 羊 in 属羊 , he was prompt to guess the meaning of 属 . Then in reading on, he could figure out whether his guess was accurate.

Reading in one's head phonetically. Beginners tend to read silently in their mind to help them recall the meaning of the characters and words. Lee-Thompson (2008) referred to this strategy as vocalisation. Some beginners could use this strategy together with writing pinyin on the top of characters, others may vocalise their reading to themselves in their mind.

Transferring skill of reading other languages. Students who have prior experience of learning other languages tend to transfer the skills of reading other languages to reading Chinese. For example, they tend to skim through the text, ignore the unknown words and find key words. One participant commented that reading Chinese is 'similar to reading in English'.

Make use of grammatical cues. In making use of surrounding words to help understanding the text, beginners learned to use the grammatical structures that they have learned to the new piece of reading. For example, when they saw 文学，大学，学院，学生，学习 the meaning of 学 (subject, study) helped, the rule of word formation that allows 学 to be combined with other characters to form words also helped. For another example, beginners may not recognise characters 古波 , 杨 , 德 respectively in 叫古波，姓杨，德国 , but once they knew that 叫 can be followed by a name, 姓 can be followed by a surname, and before 国 , there must be a country or a nationality, they can increase their reading accuracy. Furthermore, beginners can guess the meaning from similar syntactic structures, for example, in reading 小力喜欢中国文化，还喜欢哲学。他现在在中国北京语言大学学习中国文学。我女儿开美喜欢历史，还喜欢经济。她现在是英国华威大学经济学院的学生。喜欢……，还喜欢…… is the same structure, 现在在……学习…… is the synonymous structure to 现在是……的学生 .The similar syntactic structures help students understand their reading better.

Metacognition. It is found that students can reflect their reading process and summarise their own strong points and problems. This indicates that even beginners could adopt metacognitive strategies in reading Chinese though previous studies on strategies showed that higher level learners tend to use metacognitive strategies (Shen 2005). In addition, beginners are able to realise the importance of

radicals in recognising characters. One participant said, 'I find it helps A LOT to learn which radicals a character contains when I am learning characters.' This suggests that beginners do reflect and monitor their own reading processes.

5. Discussions and implications

This preliminary study suggested that beginner readers actually adopted strategies to overcome the difficulties in reading Chinese. Similar to previous studies (Everson and Ke 1997, Du 2000 cited in Lee-Thompson 2008, Lee-Thompson 2008), these beginners encountered difficulties in character retention and recognition, tackling the unknown characters and words and establishing character network, segmenting meaningful units as well as in grammar. However, different from previous studies, my research indicated that for beginner readers, style of handwriting and printed forms, as well as fonts of the same characters can appear different to them, and that even Chinese names can present an obstacle to their comprehension. To handle these difficulties, the beginners used more bottom-up strategies than top-down strategies (Du 2000, cited in Lee-Thompson 2008) and used mental translation/literal translation (Kern 1994). They also read in their head phonetically while being confronted with a piece of reading, which further confirmed the findings of sound mediation and vocalisation respectively termed by Everson and Ke (1997) and Lee-Thompson (2008). Moreover, the beginner readers were able to make use of grammatical cues and surrounding words/contexts to guess the unknown characters and phrases and assist their comprehension. They could also transfer skill of reading other languages to reading Chinese such as skimming and scanning skills, and monitoring and evaluating their own reading and learning, which lends supports to Lee-Thompson's study on intermediate and advanced learners. In addition, these beginners were found to adopt extralinguistic means to mark texts in a variety of ways such as writing pinyin or English equivalent on top of characters or marking the text with extralinguistic codes such as drawing lines, brackets, boxes, circles, question marks to help segment the string of characters and understand the texts more quickly and with increased accuracy of comprehension. So far the previous studies did not seem to have recorded the similar finding to the extralinguistic means.

This study can help draw implications for teaching and assessing reading. It is worth noting that strategy instruction should be included in the classroom learning. That is, some class time should be devoted to discussing how students learn, store, and remember Chinese characters and lexical items. Even from the start, radicals should be taught to demonstrate how characters are constructed

in Chinese. Apart from this, tutors can help beginners develop character network by teaching chunk of language, e.g. 一家人，汉语系，吃烤鸭，没关系 rather than merely explaining the meaning of each character. Also, very basic character teaching such as guiding students to write characters stroke by stroke cannot be skipped in class. Nevertheless, the study also suggested that pedagogical research needs to be done to look into how to improve beginners' parsing skills in reading Chinese and how to develop students' ability to guess at unknown combinations. In assessing beginner readers, it might be more encouraging to underline Chinese names instead of leaving them untouched as in a piece of authentic text. It might also be fairer to leave space between lines of reading and between words and phrases, in order not to confuse beginners at the very start of assessing reading.

So far Everson and Ke (1997) and Lee-Thompson (2008) confirmed that the Bernhardt's constructivist model could be used to account for the reading process of CFL learners by adding the dimension of orthography of Chinese. This was mainly because of the Chinese characters in reading and writing. For the CFL beginners in the current study, this constructivist model could still account for their reading process, but with additions of not just Chinese orthography, but also extralinguistic means and presentation of reading passages in terms of fonts and calligraphy or writing style of characters.

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Appendix I:

　　田大为是陈娜的好朋友。昨天田大为去陈娜的宿舍找她，她不在。他问："她在哪儿？"陈娜宿舍的朋友说："陈娜现在很忙，你可以去学生餐厅，看她在那儿吗？如果不在，你要去京剧院，你知道陈娜是英国人，她有英国朋友来中国北京看京剧。"田大为知道了：今天有很有意思的京剧。陈娜和她的英国朋友们一定很高兴。

Appendix II:

　　我姓古，叫古波，我在加拿大工作，是一个大学的数学老师。我太太叫丁云，是这个大学的汉语系主任。我有一个儿子和一个女儿。儿子叫小力，女儿叫开美。他们都在大学学习。小力喜欢中国文化，还喜欢哲学。他现在在中国北京语言大学学习中国文学。 我女儿开美喜欢历史，还喜欢经济。她现在是英国华威大学经济学院的学生。

　　今天我女儿介绍她的新朋友，他叫宋华。他家有七口人。他有爸爸、妈妈，有三个哥哥、一个妹妹和他。他爸爸、妈妈都在美国。他们很忙。他爸爸今年五十岁，是医生；他妈妈不工作，今年也五十岁。现在他的一个哥哥是英语老师，还有两个哥哥在德国学习电脑专业。他妹妹二〇〇三年二月十九日出生，属羊，她很可爱。她八岁生日的时候，他们一家人都很高兴。

基于《基础汉语短期课程》
教材之辅助练习设计及其教学思考

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摘　要:《基础汉语短期课程》是香港中文大学雅礼中国语文研习所为零起点外国交换生设置的汉语课程,旨在帮助初学者打好汉语学习的基础,引起他们对汉语的兴趣,并且针对汉字学习的难点,在课程设计中添加了有难度梯度的辅助练习。由于本课程的重点是读和写,因此在教学中加入了多媒体汉字书写示范及汉字组句排序练习以提高学生的认读能力;同时因应香港的汉字环境利用已学过的汉字设计猜词游戏,增加他们在汉字环境下对汉字的敏感度以激发学生自学汉字的动机。随着学生对汉字兴趣的逐步提高,配合教材上句子排序、造句、及完成对话等,加入"寻找词语"等练习以提高学生对汉语构词的初步认识。

本文通过比较两班零起点初学者的学习效果,希望为短期基础汉语教学设计出有效且多样化的辅助练习,并归纳出适合初学者的辅助教学材料的特点。

关键词:教材 辅助练习　设计

在对外汉语教学中,教师总是面对着规范与创新。一方面教师有责任将汉语的规范传承下去;另一方面,教师又要面对创新科技在教学中的应用。为了满足日益增多的欧美汉语初学者的需要,香港中文大学雅礼中国语文研习所不断改进《基础汉语短期课程》教材,同时给予教师足够的空间以完善辅助练习的设计。本文着重介绍《基础汉语短期课程》的课程设置、目标、评核标准、教材特点、辅助练习设计及教学思考、辅助练习效果比较等,而当中的辅助练习设计又分为:1.多媒体软件教学;2.汉字词组句型辅助练习;3.猜字猜词练习;4.寻找生词练习这四大类。

一、《基础汉语短期课程》的课程设置

　　《基础汉语短期课程》教材是香港中文大学雅礼中国语文研习所为零起点外国交换生设置的三学分汉语课程，二零零六年正式编辑成内部使用材料，现在还未在市面公开发售。这套教材经过了二零零七及二零零九年两次修订，目前已趋向逐步完善。教材分为四大部分，第一部分介绍普通话拼音；第二部分介绍课堂用语；第三部分为八课课文；第四部分为生词表。每课内容的设计都分为六个部分，依次为对话形式的课文正文、生词、语言点注释、阅读练习、综合练习及课后练习。这套教材需要十四至十五周的时间完成，每周上课时数为三小时。教材中出现的词汇和语法都属于初学者在学汉语过程中遇到的基本用法。崔希亮（2010）提出：一套教材总是与一种教学法结合在一起的，教材的后面隐藏着教学法的考虑，而教学法的背后隐藏着教学理念的考虑。

　　为了让交换生对这门《基础汉语短期课程》有一个全面的了解，学校提供的辅助教材包括：此课程的汉字总表一（共 175 个字）、课程汉字组词表（第五课到第八课）、每课汉字的拼音、英语解释、汉字起源（附简笔图）等，帮助学生记忆汉字。本课程设置主要依据这本教材的编排，先介绍汉语语音系统，然后介绍汉字，从第一课开始会用四个小时完成一课。每课都有生词和汉字介绍、句型练习、课文、词汇练习及汉字小测、阅读练习、听写和作业。学生的书面作业能让老师对学生的书写能力有一个全面的了解。作业中的练习形式也会在期中期末笔试中出现，及早让学生适应这种出题方式对他们准备笔试有正面作用。小测也属于一种辅助练习，老师会给学生十个汉字，然后老师读出汉字，学生把老师念的那个汉字填在下面的空格里。这个练习一般放在生词和汉字介绍课后，主要目的是测试他们的认读能力。另外也可叫学生写出汉字、在汉字的上边写拼音，下面写英语解释。如果这三部分学生都写对了，那表示他真的掌握了这个汉字，下一步就可以着重应用练习了。虽然小测题目上的要求是让学生写出代表那个汉字的数字，可是在实际操作中，老师可以鼓励有能力的学生在空格位置写出汉字，毕竟这门课的重点还是汉字的读和写，通常希望学好汉字的学生会按照老师的要求来做的。实际上写数字的做法也有好处，可以帮助那些汉字写得慢并对汉字掌握得不够熟练的学生，他们只要填对数字就不至于失分，可是失去这次练习机会的话，学生应付课后听写就会比较吃力。传统的听写形式是发给学生一张纸，然后老师念出用当课出现过的生词组成的句子，学生既要写汉字又要写拼音。这种听写形式曾经吓跑了不少来自西方的初学者。有些留学生认为，汉字是一些"不合逻辑""没有意义"的一些符号或图画。为了减轻学生记忆汉字的负担，现在听写形式已经改为填空加选择形式。在汉语学习的初级阶段学生不需要把每个汉字都记得非常清楚，可是关键词他们还必须会写，也有一些不太常用、笔顺较多的汉字就出现在选择题中，只要学生认识这个字，那么他还是能得到满分的。总体来说，记忆汉字的压力减轻了。小测和听写各有各

的教学目的，总之既认真又能按部就班学习的学生在期末笔试时记住《基础汉语短期课程》中的 157 个字并不是一件难事。

二、《基础汉语短期课程》的目标

《基础汉语短期课程》的课程目标是学生在念完这门基础课程后，能对汉语的基本词汇和语法比较熟悉。这门课是一门实用课程，因此学生所学的生词都基于日常生活与会话中的语料，如何恰如其分地使用是这门课的重点。学生如果能够掌握这份教材的重点内容，就能为学汉语打好基础。

三、《基础汉语短期课程》的评核标准

《基础汉语短期课程》的考核评分标准主要集中在以下各项：两次笔试、每课的小测及听写、作业、平时课堂表现和出席率。由于这门课的重点是读写，因此不包括口试。在课堂上，老师还会教学生听说，但那两项不是重点。如果学生的学分允许，老师会鼓励他们同时念一个着重听说的课程，也是三个学分，这两门课在课程的设置上有相辅相成的作用。一般来说，学生如果两门课都选，那么他的听说读写能力会得到均衡的发展。可是如果他只能选读写这一门，老师也希望能给他们打好基础，将来他们回国继续汉语学习时已具备了一个良好的开端。

四、《基础汉语短期课程》的教材特点

《基础汉语短期课程》教材强调汉字的学习。汉字是世界上最古老的文字之一，以表意为特征，具有独特的优点。但汉字在以形声为主的同时，其表音却无固定规则，存在符号太多、形体复杂、形符和义符掺杂、写起来困难等问题。本教材的对话课文部分只有汉字和拼音，没有英文翻译，利用这种形式开始学汉字可以让零起点交换生尽早学会拼音，而且也会阅读更多汉字。紧接着课文的生词表为他们预习准备新课提供足够的提示，第三部分的语言点注释能简单扼要地介绍当课语法。这种编排是由于我们吸取了过去编写初级教材的经验，改变以往教材中过于强调语法的弊端。课后第四部分练习增加了阅读，用当课生词和语法重组句子，给交换生更多的语言材料的输入。第五部分的综合练习分为两个部分：第一、介绍当课生词的笔顺，很多热爱中国文化的外国交换生就是为了学习汉字才学说中文的，他们发现这样的补充材料很有用，另外，第二部分的汉字书写练习也给学生提供了练习的机会。不过，要想完全记住当课

的汉字，只写一、两遍是不够的。雅礼中国语文研习所地处香港，学生在生活中看到的汉字主要是繁体字，所以，在汉字练习部分我们也把与简体写法不同的那些汉字的繁体形式列出来，这样学生看到这些繁体字也不会觉得太陌生。课程没有要求他们掌握繁体字，认读对初学者帮助很大。第六部分的课后练习通常会作为学生的作业，作业形式也不多，如给学生当课汉字，并提供四个拼音选择，然后第二题会给学生英文意思，要求他们找出正确对应的汉字。这个练习可以锻炼他们对汉字形态的敏感度，有的汉字书写形式可能差一笔，但意思却相差很远。另外，针对学生对中文句型中各句子成分在句中位置的不同，句子意思改变的特点，加强训练他们对句子成分排序的能力。这个练习可以让他们尽快掌握汉语句式的建构，而且练习中出现的句子成分全部用汉字显示出来，学生又可以利用这个机会再次练习汉字。有的学生不爱写汉字，针对这个情况，老师可以要求学生用另外一张纸书写并交上来。这种作业也可弥补第五部分中汉字书写次数太少的不足。最后一个书面练习是用所给的生词造句。通常这样的练习安排在最后做，因为难度最高，学生需要了解汉语句式的结构，并且补上句中缺少的成分以后，才能建构一个完整而合理的汉语句式。学生如果对当课重点句型较为熟悉的话，做对这个练习并不困难。这个练习的难度系数比前一个高，前一个练习学生不需自己添加任何句子成分，因为所需成分练习中都提供了，只需重排字词的顺序。最后这个练习需要学生对汉语句构有一定的认识，他需要分析句子缺少什么成分，并把那缺少的成分补充完整。

五、《基础汉语短期课程》的辅助练习设计与教学思考

这门课的辅助练习还包括：1. 多媒体软件教学；2. 汉字词组句型辅助练习；3. 猜字猜词练习；4. 寻找生词练习这四大类。

根据洪飚、洪云《关于对外汉字教学课程的理论思考与实践探索》中阐述：现代认知心理学将知识分为三大类：1 陈述性知识；2 程序性知识；3 策略性知识。具体到对外汉语汉字教学中的三种知识，则可表述为：1 解释汉字的字音、字形、字义构成的陈述性知识教学；2 训练书写汉字技能的程序性知识教学；3 提高汉字学习乐趣、点拨汉字学习方法、引导汉字学习中的创新能力的策略性知识教学。

我们目前的课程设计与上述两位学者提倡的理论相当吻合。首先，发给学生的有关《基础汉语短期课程》的汉字总表一后面还附上汉字起源介绍（附简笔图），这一部分就是汉字的字音、字形、字义构成的陈述性知识；其次我们的多媒体软件教学与作业就着重训练书写汉字技能的程序性知识教学；最后我们的词组句型辅助练习、猜字猜词练习、寻找生词练习就属于提高汉字学习乐趣、点拨汉字学习方法、引导汉字学习中的创新能力的策略性知识教学。由于汉字是笔画文字，很多留学生的母语属于字母文字，这两种外观截然不同的文字，使西方初学者对汉字望而生畏。王晓雁认为由于留学生初学汉语时一般对中国历史文化缺乏感性和理性认识，

因此这时候不必逐一讲授每个汉字的字源及汉字的原始面貌。教师应培养留学生对汉字的兴趣，激发他们学汉字的热情，在教学中帮助他们了解汉字。同样地，我们发给学生的汉字起源介绍也主要让学生回去看，这样可以节省不少时间，课上可以多做课堂练习，如猜字游戏等。

1. 多媒体软件教学

一门基础汉语的读写课程想达到预期的教学目标，除了需要有效的课程设计以外，同时也需要创新科技的辅助。多媒体教学能够把抽象的、枯燥的学习内容通过图片、文字、声音、视频等多种语言形式表达出来，有丰富的视听效果，可大大增加可理解性，也增强了教学的直观性和生动性。让学生的听觉和视觉等多方位同时受到刺激，有效地激发学习兴趣，帮助学生在仿真的语言环境中习得语言。多媒体教学有利于培养学生的自主学习能力。南潮（2005）提出多媒体技术能促进词汇学习，其理论根据是"二语习得过程中学生词汇学习主要依靠记忆"，而多媒体技术的运用能够增进记忆。

中文环境系统有限公司根据我们的课程，度身定做了一套多媒体汉字书写示范及汉字组句排序练习以提高学生的汉字认读能力。这套软件包括汉字的动态笔顺示范，每一笔用不同颜色表示，有助刺激学生，激发他们记忆汉字的兴趣。每个汉字还可"开启字典"，如果学生想多了解这个汉字如何组词使用，可以开启词典，进行自学。软件甚至还提供了粤语读音，如果学生对粤语读音感兴趣，也可点击"粤音"，电脑就会切换到粤音系统。老师上课时可以根据需要点击难字的笔顺示范，让学生一边看电脑笔顺显示，一边跟着写，这样可以提高课堂效率。

当老师有选择性地介绍完生词后，还可以介绍当课句型。如果需要练习，可以点击下一个环节 -- 句型练习。这也就是我们提到的多媒体软件练习。句型练习中所出现的句子都是当课最有代表性的，既是重点，又是难点。学生可以先点击句型练习，第一步可以看到当课句型练习的总目录，平均每课有六个句子，第一课只有四个，因为当课语法比较简单。学生可以点击一个自己还不太熟悉的需要练习的句子，点击后，画面会出现那个需要练习的句型，同时第二行会出现打乱次序的汉字并包括句中的标点符号。学生可以先点击句子读音，然后一边听录音，一边选择正确汉字，并利用滑鼠把选好的汉字放入电脑画面下方的方格里，汉字需要逐字摆放。完成后，学生可以跟电脑画面上方出现的正确句型相比，检查一下，如果有错，可以利用鼠标更改，然后点击提交，这时电脑会自动批改，若学生把汉字都放在正确的格子中，句子排序正确，电脑会打钩。通常学生在课上做这个练习都能全对。因为如果他不小心选错的话，坐在下面的同学会马上提醒他，正在练习的学生会立刻改正。这个句子练习选好以后，按继续，画面会出现同一个的句子，可是现在就会进入更难的阶段，电脑不再显示已排好序列的汉字句子。画面上只有打乱次序的汉字，学生需要点击代表普通话读音的图示，然后通过听录音，凭自己对汉字的记忆，把汉字选出来。第一项句型练习比较简单，提示性强，主要通过比对就可完成。而第二项句型练习较有挑战性，除了听句子录音以外，没有过多的提示。如果学生能快速选对

表明他对汉字的认读能力较高。老师可以把这样的多媒体游戏放在句型练习的那堂课课上做，尽量让学生的学习过程游戏化，"在玩中学"、"在游戏中学"就是一种游戏化、情趣化的学习过程。

这种多媒体辅助练习可以配合《基础汉语短期课程》，优点是易错字和难字都有笔顺示范，学生可以反复观看，有助于生词的认读和书写；这两项句型练习，第一种比较容易，第二种比较难，练习的难度有梯度。第一级组句可以让学生熟悉当课汉字，而第二级组句可以增加挑战性，学生在没有提示下也能选对的话，可以增强学习汉语的信心。这两级设计由浅入深，学生很喜欢这个游戏，特别是第二级，对汉字较熟练的学生愿意到教室前面的电脑做练习。如果他做对了，课堂气氛马上就活跃起来了。

这种多媒体汉字学习软件把汉字的读音、笔画、笔顺、起笔、行笔、落笔、间架、结构等准确无误地展示给学生。笔顺动态演示，可重复播放，各部件以不同颜色标示，结构清晰，趣味性强。通过重复播放，让学生边听、边读、边看、边写，耳、口、眼、手并用。利用多媒体软件进行生字与生词教学，直观生动，省时省力，能够加强学生对生词或生字的感性认识，有助于学生进一步理解和认识汉字。

这种软件的缺点是某些汉字的读音较为生硬，练习的形式稍显单调。将来如果把这个软件放到学生利用自己学生证可以进入的网上练习平台，如香港中文大学的 Moodle 或者 WebCT，那使用效果就会更理想了。设计这个辅助练习的目的主要是希望学生在课下多练。练习的形式如果跟学生打游戏机类似的话，他们就不会觉得记汉字那么枯燥了，在娱乐之中就会不知不觉地记住汉字了。这种多媒体汉字组句排序练习也为学生回答课后作业第三题排序提供了热身的机会，他们做作业时就不会感到陌生难做。还有笔试中也有类似的排序考题，到时候学生对这个题型就很轻车熟路了。

2. 汉字词组句型辅助练习

为了提高学生认读汉字的敏感度，课上还会使用另一套汉字词组句型辅助练习。

老师会利用当课的生词，编出更多的词语组合，而学生一般都能猜出这些词组的意思。这组练习在前几课会着重词组，从第三课的句型练习开始更着重句型结构建立的练习，利用新学的生词和语法点把句型加长，让学生自己体会、摸索、归纳和总结汉语建构句型的规则。这种辅助练习的主要目的就是要提高汉字的重现率，让学生了解汉语词组的特点，帮助他们建立汉语组词造句的概念。通过这类汉字词组句型辅助练习使学生对当课生词和句型更为熟悉，这样可为课后作业和听写做准备。这门课一个星期上两次，一次一个半小时，另外一次四十五分钟。精确地说，我们三个小时就要完成一课，因此时间非常紧迫。这些辅助练习其实也在教授留学生学中文的方法，他们如果想学得更好，还需要在这个基础上摸索适合他们自己使用的方法。

3. 猜字猜词练习

　　猜字猜词练习可以在老师教授汉字规律的基础上，加入少量体现该规律的生词，让学生猜出字义和词义。

　　老师会找一些他们在生活中常见的汉字，或者利用当课生词改变组合形式而衍生出的日常生活中常见的词语。如:推、拉、入口、出口、请勿吸烟！小心！洗手间、沙田、兰桂坊等等。由于一些生词学生经常见到，所以他们能猜出意思。这由于香港为留学生提供了一个良好的汉字学习环境，即使在我们周围看到的汉字有不少是繁体字，但是学生作业中已提供了繁体字形，学生对繁体字并不感到陌生。再加上很多简体字与繁体字写法是相同的，如果学生有决心学汉字的话，香港还是为学生创造了一个很好的汉字阅读环境。

4. 寻找生词练习

　　寻找生词也是一类汉字词组辅助练习，主要透过汉字所独有的构词性，让学生根据课文中出现的词语及老师所组的词语进行认字以及扩词训练。

　　当学生掌握的生词越来越多时，老师可以制作一些"寻找生词"这样的练习供学生课下练习使用。如果老师想降低寻找生词的难度，可以另外发一张生词表，把希望学生找出的生词都打出来。这样的练习跟句型排序的第一种练习类似，虽然有些机械化，但是能提供给学生一个初步的认识。如果老师想提高"寻找生词"练习的难度，可以直接发给学生汉字表，然后叫他们按照横、竖、对角线等方向来寻找学过的生词；或者请学生找出他认为合理的词语，老师可以把学过的汉字放进去并重新组词，同时最好要求学生不但写汉字，而且写出拼音和意思；或者要求学生限时完成。学生喜欢"寻找生词"这种练习，他们认为能够帮助记忆生词及复习。这种汉字辅助练习可以加强学生对汉语构词学的初步认识。

六、辅助练习效果比较

　　为了验证辅助练习的效果，我们做了一个对比实验。A 班同学使用过辅助练习，B 班同学只使用教材上的练习，并未使用辅助练习。这两班都有 20 名同学，以下表格中的分数为学生的期末总分，它是根据前面评核标准所讲的比例计算出来的。根据实验结果，我们看到使用辅助练习的 A 班成绩略高于未使用的 B 班成绩。另外，在高分组别当中 A 班人数也多于 B 班。B 班低于 60 分的学生有三名，平均成绩约为 39.33 分。

	A 班成绩（使用辅助练习）		B 班成绩（未使用辅助练习）	
	人数（20）	组别平均分	人数（20）	组别平均分
＞90.5	11	95.27	9	94.11
80.5~90.0	4	87.75	4	85.5
70.5~80.0	4	78.75	4	75.5
60.5~70.0	1	64	0	——
＜60.5	0	——	3	39.33

七、总结

　　综上所述，如何利用辅助练习来加强教学效果并提高教学质量以达到教学目标对对外汉语教师来说是一个难题。这种辅助练习需要有互动、易用、有趣、启发性强、教师容易准备等特点，而且最好都能放在网上，让学生可以随时随地取用练习。跟这个要求相比，我们的辅助练习目前还只是一个半成品，如果能把这些练习经过改良都放上网，学生就能在课下尽量自己操练来提高对汉字的熟练程度。这些辅助练习每项都有自己的功能，它们可以促进教学目标的实现，与课堂教学相辅相成，同时这些练习也能提高学生对汉语学习的兴趣。本课程的教学进度是一环扣一环的，什么时候出什么练习，学生需要达到什么要求都在课程的多方位设计中。辅助练习的加强与完善对学生的汉语学习尤其重要，当中创新科技的应用也应该更多地体现在辅助练习中。

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How German Students acquire
Literacy in Chinese: A Survey.

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Abstract

The present survey was designed to explore the practices of reading training at German universities. The administered questionnaires included a total of 33 questions for students and 35 questions for teachers. Besides basic statistical data, core questions concerned information about text types, text format and the use of media; the amount of time allowed for reading training; the range of tasks set on texts and the change of reading activities; the use of electronic dictionaries and print dictionaries; the assessment of students' overall reading abilities in Chinese; as well as potential motivators and proposals for improvement. The survey aims to provide future researchers with a more solid foundation and knowledge of what is actually done to promote literacy in Chinese classes at German universities. Results are contrasted with latest findings of international research to identify flaws in existing programmes and key issues that demand for innovation.

Keywords: Chinese as a foreign Language, Reading Pedagogy, Survey, Germany

Introduction

In the course of the European Bologna Process and the reorganization of programmes for Chinese

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Studies in Germany, it seems to be essential to re-evaluate didactic approaches and teaching methods. Teaching a foreign language is a very complex system. That is why most linguists divide the overall ability to master a foreign language into the so-called "Four Skills ": speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Hinkel, 2006). The following paper sheds light on the task of teaching the third skill – reading – to students of Chinese as a Second Language in Germany.

Most existing studies focus on difficulties students from alphabetic reading backgrounds face at an early stage of their literacy development, such as the phonetic access to Chinese characters (Schindelin, 2007), character composition (SUN, 2007 and Guder-Manitius, 1999), the apparent gap between spoken and written Chinese (DeFrancis, 1966 and HO, 1976), the vocabulary size necessary to acquire literacy (DA, 2007), the recognition of word boundaries (Lippert, 2002 and WANG, 1972) and the massive work load students have to shoulder while learning Chinese (Kupfer, 2007 and Guder, 2006).

It is important to know, that vocabulary size is in fact a critical feature of reading ability. Studies on eye movement in reading provide evidence that 80% of content words and 40% of function words are directly focused on in reading (Grabe, 1991). That means there is no short-cut to develop good reading skills. Students actually need a rich vocabulary to advance from basic character recognition to genuine reading comprehension.

However, this paper focuses on the next step in literacy development. With reference to The Encyclopedia of language and linguistics "reading pedagogy may refer to teaching aimed at improving the reading comprehension and general reading skills in the second language of those who have already learned to read in that language" (Williams, 1994). I will take a closer look at what we actually do in Germany to encourage literacy in Chinese. In addition, I present different approaches researchers recommend to encourage literacy in a foreign language.

The present survey was designed to explore the practices of reading training at German universities. Questionnaires included a total of 33 questions for students and 35 questions for teachers, who received a separate questionnaire. The survey was administered to 33 teachers and 329 intermediate students of Chinese Studies at 13 German universities during the summer term 2010 (April to October) and the winter term 2010/11 (October 2010 to March 2011).

For better comparability, the following analysis includes only those universities that returned more than 20 student questionnaires and at least one questionnaire filled in by a teacher. That limits the number of university to seven (in alphabetical order: FU Berlin, Bochum, Bonn, Frankfurt, Heidelberg, Cologne, and Trier), the number of students to 266 and the number of teachers to 23.

1.2 General Information

Although the survey originally aimed to explore the current situation of BA students at German universities, there were some difficulties in reaching this particular target group. As most German universities are still reorganizing their programmes, most lessons are designed to teach BA, MA, Diplom and Magister students at the same time. So the general requirement was changed from "Being a BA Student" to "Having studied Chinese for at least 3 Semesters".

However, teachers administered the student questionnaires during one of their lessons to all students present at that time. So the current set of data still includes 17% students who have been studying less than 3 semesters. Although only 36% of the students claim to take part in BA programmes, the actual number of BA students is supposed to be much higher, as 46% of all students forgot or refrained to tick the study programme box.

According to another survey covering the same period of time (Bermann & Guder, 2010), universities in German-speaking territories on average teach 260 BA students from their first semester to graduation. Whereas Trier has only 117 BA students, Cologne and Bochum have 380 and 450 respectively. Before graduation students attend an average of 550 hours of language instruction with the exception of Heidelberg (832 hours) and Frankfurt (880 hours). As you can see, the learning and teaching schedule is rather tight and demands for efficient teaching methods.

2. Teaching Methods

The vast variety of teaching methods can be roughly divided into three major approaches to promote reading skills among students of Chinese as a foreign language: First of all, there are different methods of simplification, i.e. the attempt to make the overall reading process easier. Then there is motivation. Here teachers try to make reading more interesting. Finally, the most dominant trend seems to be that of integration, which means integrating Chinese texts and reading tasks with all parts of Chinese Studies at university.

Of course, the above mentioned approaches are by no means mutually exclusive alternatives. In fact, most methods fall into more than one category: If a teacher starts a major project on Chinese food, for example, they might read about the history of food in History lessons, about local specialities in Geography lessons, translate menus in Translation and even meet in their free time to decipher a recipe and cook Chinese food together. This is, of course, integration as reading permeates all parts

of the programme. But in fact, is also motivation as project work and hands-on experiences appeal to students' ambition.

2.1 Simplification

As early as 1966, John DeFrancis advocated the careful selection of vocabulary students should actually acquire in written form (DeFrancis, 1966). I.e., teachers should be aware of the fact, that some words are frequently used in spoken language, but almost never written down. During the survey, teachers were asked whether their students generally learn the same vocabulary in lessons for spoken Chinese as in lessons for written language. 59% (13) of the teachers say, their students learn the same set of vocabulary irrespective of the lesson's focus, while 9 (41%) teachers claim to make a difference between spoken and written language.

Another possibility to make reading easier is the frequent use of so-called Graded Readers (LI, 1998) or Easy Readers (Haagen, 1995) that are geared to the actual vocabulary size of students. 8 of 23 teachers use supplementary text books; three of them use resource books of newspaper articles, which leaves only 5 who may or might not use easy readers. Only seven teachers replace difficult words with familiar characters before they hand out texts, four of them stem from the group of teachers who also use supplementary text books. These results already indicate that most teachers tend to use original texts for their lesson design. A majority of 78% of the teachers actually confirmed they "use original texts just as they are". That supports the first impression.

However, even the reading of "original texts just as they are" can be made easier, if teachers hand out a list of unknown words. Students from Bonn and Bochum claim their texts are seldom or never accompanied by supplementary vocabulary lists, but most students from other universities (62% in Heidelberg to 91% at the FU Berlin) regularly receive lists of unknown words.

A totally different approach to simplification is the use of digital media. If teachers distribute texts in digital formats, they enable students to process them on-screen and use electronic or online dictionaries. A total of 147 students, i.e. 58%, say they normally receive reading material either as a digital file (16%) or as photocopy plus an additional digital option. The teacher survey confirms these findings with 22% (digital file) and 42% (digital + photocopied) respectively. However, the trend towards digital formats seems to differ among universities. Whereas Berlin, Heidelberg, Frankfurt and Trier tend to provide texts in digital form, the majority of students from Cologne claim to receive photocopies only (see Figure 1.).

When it comes to the use of electronic dictionaries, there is no significant correlation between university and preferred dictionary. 57% (139) of the students say, they regularly use electronic

dictionaries, 74% (189) regularly consult bilingual dictionaries on the internet. 80% of the teachers are convinced that their students regularly use digital dictionaries, either electronic devices or online services. These results reveal that most students from most universities use electronic devices and digital media to facilitate the reading process.

2.2. Motivation

A change of methods, interesting topics, unusual texts, classroom activities, and the integration of different skills are perfect means to generate motivation in students. One of the survey's key questions was what kind of texts students read and what kinds of tasks teachers set. Texts in simplified Chinese script and written dialogues hold top ranks (with mean values of 3.67 and 3.54 respectively, when 4 is "often" and 1 represents "never") in the list of most-read texts at German universities. The top two are followed by newspaper articles (mean value: 3.04) and non-fictional texts (mean: 2.61), which are read "occasionally". Traditional Chinese texts are ranked number five, but receive a mean value of 2.4 only, which marks them as "rarely" read texts (see Figure 2.).

Ranks differ slightly between individual universities, with the exception of Frankfurt and Trier, where texts written in Pinyin only and poetry hold top ranks. This might be explained by the fact that students in Frankfurt start learning Pinyin and spoken Chinese for the first few weeks, later complemented by a separate character course.

Interestingly, though students rate web pages and news portals as "rarely" read texts, they achieve top ranks in the teachers' evaluation. Top most read texts according to the teacher survey are texts in simplified script (mean: 3.93), followed by newspaper articles and web pages (mean: 3.53 and 3.13 respectively). News portals and non-fiction rank both number four at an average value of 2.93 (=occasionally).

The difference from the student survey may be a result of the fact, that teachers assign individual texts and not Internet addresses. So students remain unaware of the texts' origin and falsely regard them as non-fiction or newspaper articles.

These general results already suggest, that students in Germany almost never read instructional texts like manuals and recipes or street signs and menus, which might generate motivation as they normally initiate further hands-on activities. The same applies for unusual texts like children's books and comic strips which might be interesting to read and easy to understand.

Positively, 52% (Heidelberg) to 77% (Bochum) of the students and 55% of the teacher confirm, they never read menus in class. A majority of 77% teachers say, they never integrate manuals or recipes into Chinese lessons; and 73% of the students have never read Chinese street signs as part of

their study.

0% to 5.4% frequently read comic strips in class. However, quite a few students from Cologne and Berlin (28% and 22% respectively) occasionally use comics as learning material, while 50% (Bochum) to 74% (Trier/Frankfurt) from other universities have never read comic strips in class, which supports the assumption that unusual texts are in fact seldom read at German universities. With reference to their tight learning and teaching schedule, it seems self-evident, that comic books, street signs and children's literature may be considered a waste of time.

Another way to generate motivation is a frequent change of tasks and methods to avoid monotony and boredom. An average of 13-17% of the teachers forgot or refrained to answer questions about tasks they set on texts. But it seems that most frequently teachers ask their students to translate texts (77% = 17 teachers) or have them answer questions (70% = 14 teachers).

A great majority says, they almost never ask their students to continue or re-tell a story (90% and 63% respectively). "Find-the-missing Word" tasks are equally rare (65%).

Results of the student survey support these findings. 87% of the students confirm they regularly translate texts; 50% frequently have to answer questions.

In addition to the already mentioned tasks, the questionnaire also covered tasks like: research semantic fields, identify the author's opinion, express your own opinion, organize the text into paragraphs, research the stories background, evaluate existing translations and identify collocations. A majority of 61% (organize into paragraphs) to 93% (continue the story) ranked all these tasks as "scarcely" to "never" used, with the only exception of "Express your own Opinion" and "Fill in the Gaps" Tasks. Students from Frankfurt (66%), Trier (34%) and Bonn (33%) regularly work on "Find-the-missing-Word" tasks, whereas students from Berlin (43%), Bochum (47%), and Cologne (51%) claim they rarely or never fill in gaps (see Figure 3.).

Students from Berlin (55%) and Trier (48%) are occasionally asked to express their opinion on a text, while students from all other universities rarely or never give their opinion. The questionnaire provided teachers and students with the opportunity to name other tasks or classroom activities. However, only one teacher said they regularly ask students to identify word boundaries.

2.3 Integration

Finally, the most obvious way to encourage literacy among students of Chinese is to integrate Chinese texts and reading tasks with all parts of Chinese Studies. The more texts students have to read, the more they train their reading abilities and comprehension skills.

When asked, which of their lessons imply reading texts in Chinese, 41% of the students choose

only one subject, 27% two different subjects and 27% three or more (see Figure 4.). The teacher survey supports this impression.

Both teachers and students agree that reading is part of Translation lessons (77% and 60% respectively). Only 10% of the students and 6 teachers say they normally read Chinese texts for Culture and Geography lessons. 22% - 35% of the students claim they have special reading or literature courses, which is confirmed by 46% (literature) to 50% (reading) of their teachers. When asked for other lessons that involve reading texts, both students and teachers named newspaper courses, advanced seminars or HSK preparatory classes.

Unfortunately, in Germany terms for different course types are not standardized, so significant differences between individual universities may have their origin in different terminology rather than different priorities.

Another possibility to have students read more texts in Chinese is the regular use of monolingual dictionaries. However, most students (77%) irrespective of their university admit, that they rarely or never use Chinese dictionaries.

When asked which texts they read for their term paper, most students (65%) say, they only read texts in European languages. 9% read Chinese texts recommended or assigned by their teachers and 27% do their own literature research in Chinese. Results from the teacher survey support these findings. However, most teachers say it depends on their students' language skills whether or not they read Chinese texts to write their term papers.

3. Results

All of the above mentioned preliminary results of the survey support the impression, that most teachers of Chinese as a second language in Germany do not assign high priority to reading pedagogy. Although much has been done to facilitate the reading process by the use of digital media and quite a few teachers adopt different task designs, in most cases, reading Chinese texts seems to be only part of Translation courses, or supports spoken language and pronunciation classes. Answers to open-ended questions also indicate that reading is often compared to translating or reading-aloud, which trains speaking and pronunciation skills rather than reading comprehension.

Although the survey still leaves a lot to analyse and even more questions unanswered, it seems obvious that the first step to a more efficient reading pedagogy and better reading comprehension among German students of Chinese is to increase awareness among teachers.

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Figures:

Figure 1.
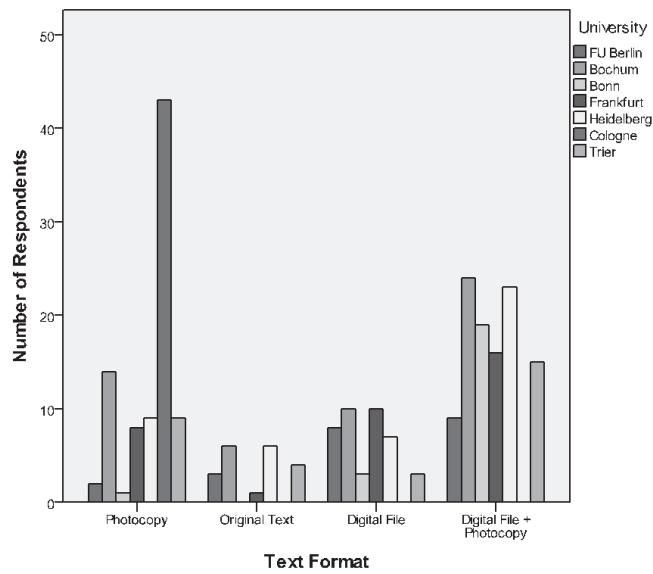
*Figure 2.*Distribution of format of texts read in class between different German universities (Student Survey)
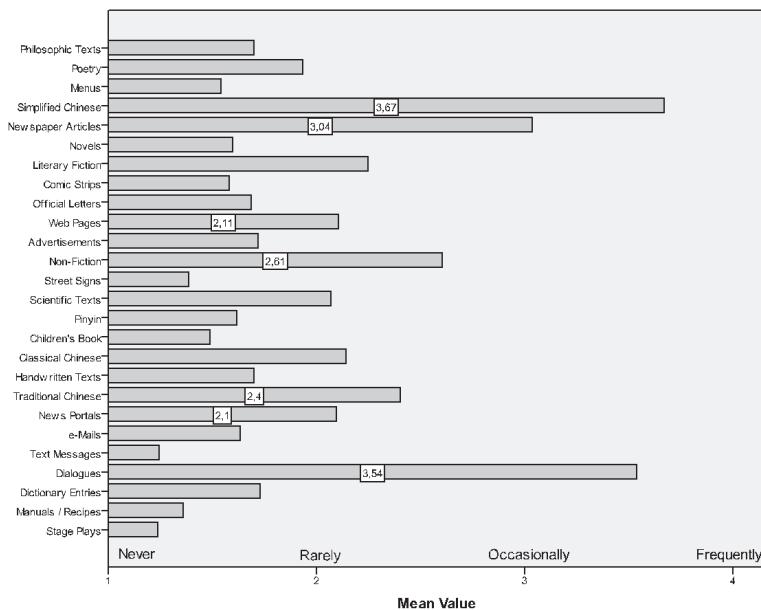
Figure 3. Distribution of reading frequency between different text types (Student Survey)
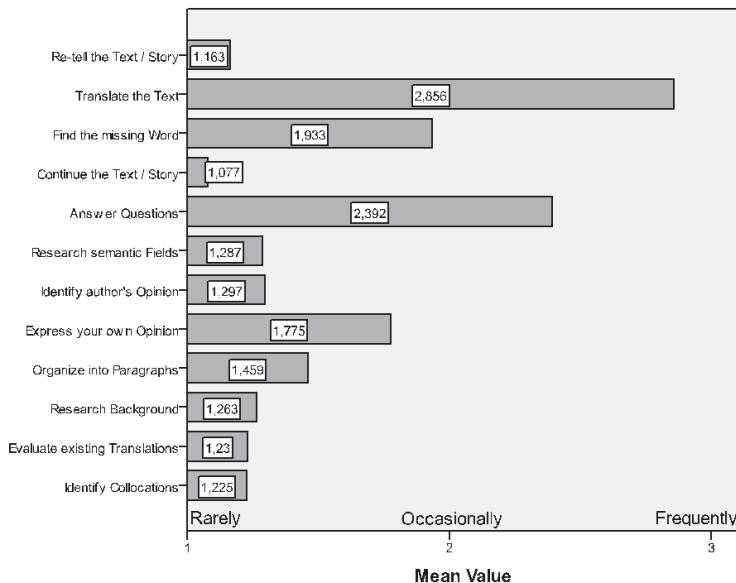
*Figure 4.*Distribution of frequency between different types of tasks set on Chinese texts (Student Survey)
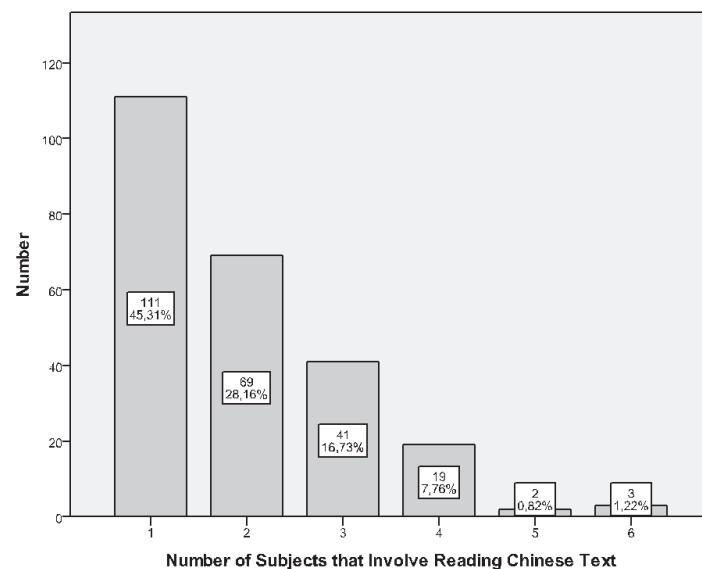
论"古现汉并行教学模式"对
二语学习者现代汉语语言认知的影响分析

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摘　要：英国大学的"汉学"教育中，在面向汉语初中级学习者的课程设置中，采用了"古代汉语"和"现代汉语"并行的教学模式。本文从第二语言教学角度，通过"古代汉语"和"现代汉语"学习模块的对比分析，研究了"并行模式"对于二语学习者现代汉语语言使用的影响，从二语学习者的视角讨论了"旧词生义"现象，提出了有针对性的课程设置模式。

关键词：并行模式，语言准备，旧词生义，连接性课程

1."古现汉并行教学模式"的涵义

"古现汉并行教学模式"，简称为"并行模式"，指的是在"中国研究"和"汉语言"教育中，在面向初中级汉语学习者的课程设置中，采取了现代汉语先行，有一定基础后，现代汉语和古代汉语并行的教学模式。

部分大学还采取了在大学本科阶段现代汉语和古代汉语齐头并进的课程设置。这个模式和中国大学中国语言文学专业的课程设置相似，区别在于英国的学习者为零起点初、中汉语非母语学习者。

2. 英国各大学"并行模式"课程设置的现状

剑桥大学在大学一年级开设了古代汉语课，牛津大学在大学一年级开设有古代汉语课，

三一圣大卫威尔士大学在 LEVEL 5 开设二个学期的古代汉语课，同时，学习者还在继续学习现代汉语的中级和中高级汉语课程。

3. 学习者的现代汉语语言准备

3.1 牛津大学中级学习者的语言准备包括：

汉字：314 个，生词：374 个，句型：216 个 [1]
牛津大学中高级学习者语言准备包括：
汉字：520 个，生词：654 个，句型：339 个 [2]

3.2 三一圣大卫威尔士大学中级汉语学习者语言准备：

汉字：420 个，生词：374 个，句型：90 个 [3]
中高级汉语学习者的语言准备包括：汉字：720 个，生词：985 个，句型：186 个 [4]

4. "并行期"古代汉语和现代汉语学习模块的对比分析

为了更好地观察古代汉语和现代汉语在"并行期"内的相互影响，笔者选取了三一圣大卫威尔士大学的"古代汉语"模块和"中级汉语"模块进行了对比分析。基本参照文本包括：古代汉语部分的文本为 Thomas Jansen 博士为 LEVEL 5 编写的古代汉语课程学习模块，中级汉语部分采用了 LEVEL 5 使用的新实用汉语课第一册和第二册（NPC1,NPC2），这是该校现代汉语教学长期使用的教材。此外，还包括 2011 年古代汉语学分笔试试卷，2008-2011 年处于"并行期"的学生的"中级汉语"试卷和习作。

由于该校是在 LEVEL 5 阶段才开始讲授古代汉语，所以，学生在 LEVEL 4 阶段学习的现代汉语的汉字和词汇优先储存为二语学习者的汉语知识。于是当学习者进入古代汉语阶段时，产生了古代汉语和现代汉语在字形，字义，构词法，词性，语用上的差异和冲突，这些差异及其影响是可以观察到的。

4.1 古代汉语的选文长度、生词量和"旧词生义"现象。

古代汉语入门阶段的选文很有讲究，要够短，还得是有趣味的故事。所以，教师把选文长

度控制在了 28 个字—179 字之间，生词量在 8—54 个之间。由于是现代汉语先行，所以"旧词生义"现象是本文关注的现象。

统计情况如下：

滥竽充数 41 字，生词 14 个，旧字生义：2 个，为（介词），说（悦）。

守株待兔 39 字，生词 10 个，旧字生义：2 个（走、折、为、得）句型：为＋名词＋及物动词

画蛇添足 95 字，生词 16 个，旧字生义：3 个，数、为、安。

狐假虎威 88 字，生词 9 个，旧字生义：4 个，无、长、行、故。句型：以 A 为 B。

刻舟求剑 53 字，生词 8 个，旧字生义：3 个，自、是、所、句型：不亦…乎？

塞翁失马 135 字，生词 22 个，旧字生义：4 个，故、何、将、十九句型：此何遽不能为…乎？

叶公好龙 69 字，生词 18 个，旧字生义：5 个，公、写、文、还、夫。

论语·学而时习之 32 字，生词 14 个，旧字生义 3：子、时、习。

论语·曾子曰 32 字，生词 5 个，旧字生义 2：日、身。

论语·公冶长 28 字，生词 9 个，旧字生义 句型：是以，何以。

论语·述而 38 字，生词 16 个，旧字生义 2：已。

论语·先进 84 字，生词 13 个，旧字生义 1：行、也 句型：如之何。

论语·阳货 65 字，生词 13 个，旧字生义 4：之、对、戏、耳。

论语·子张 80 字，生词 17 个，旧字生义 3：语、以、云。

孟子·梁惠王上 . 孟子见梁惠王 152 字，生词 17 个，旧字生义：1 乘。

孟子·梁惠王下齐人伐燕 137 字，生词 18 个，旧字生义：1 食。

孟子·滕文公下 . 孟子谓戴不胜，155 字，生词 12 个，旧字生义 2：所、间 句型：如何。

庄子·秋水 140 字，生词 27 个，旧字生义：向、轻。

庄子·徐无鬼 . 运斤成风 102 字，生词 12 个，旧字生义：4 斤、慢、顾、听。

墨子·公输 177 字，生词 17 个，旧字生义：2 说、再。

荀子·劝学 179 字，生词 54 个，旧字生义：7 中、就、博、参、省、过、志。

韩非子·说林上巧诈不如拙诚，80 字，生词 21 个。

4.2 选文的旧字生义和学习者现代汉语语言准备的对比分析。

古代汉语   现代汉语常用组合

教材：选文   新实用汉语课本 1-2

为（南郭处士请为王吹竽）介词   为什么（NPC1-7）疑问代词

为（而身为宋国笑）动词   因为（NPC2-20）连词

为（吾能为之足）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　以为（NPC2-25）动词

说（宣王说之 / 公叔盘不悦）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　　说（NPC2-6）动词

走（兔走触株 / 弃而还走）动词　　　　　　　　跑　　　走（NPC2-17）动词

折（折颈而死）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　　打折（NPC2-17）动宾动词

得（冀复得兔 / 兔不可复得）动词　　　　得（NPC1-13）动词（NPC2-15）结构助词

数（数人饮之不足）数词　　　　　　数学（NPC1-7）、岁数（NPC1-11）名词

安（子安能为之足）疑问助词

无（子无敢食我也）副词

长（天帝使我长百兽）动词　　　　　长（NPC2-16）形容词、长安大戏院、长城

行 (故遂与之行) 动词　　　　走　　　行（闻斯行诸 / 如之何其闻斯行之）动词 实践

行（NPC1-6）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　　　好 、行李（NPC2-24）

故 (故遂与之行) 连词　　　　故 (马无故亡而入胡) 名词　　　故事（NPC2-22）名词

自 (其剑自舟中坠于水) 介词　　　　自己（NPC2-16）代词 、自行车（NPC2-25）名词

是（是吾剑之所从坠）指示代词　　　　　　　　　　　　　　是（NPC1-3）动词

所（是吾剑之所从坠）助词所（使之居于王所）名词　　　　所以（NPC2-20）连词

何（此何遽不能为祸乎 / 此何遽不能为福乎）疑问代词

将（其马将胡骏马而归）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　将军（NPC2-24）名词

十九（死者十九）

公（叶公子高好龙）名词　　　　　公司（NPC1-8）公共汽车（NPC2-24）名词

公分（NPC2-17）　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　公斤（NPC2-18）量词

写（钩以写龙 / 鑿以写龙 / 室屋雕文以写龙）动词　　　　　　（NPC1-11）动词

文（室屋雕文以写龙）动词 装饰　　　文化、文学（NPC1-7）文章（NPC2-20）名词

还（弃而还走）动词、回来　　　　还（NPC1-8，11）副词 / 还是（NPC1-12）连词

夫（好夫似龙而非龙也）代词　　　　　　　　　　　丈夫（NPC2-26）名词

子（子曰）名词　　　　　　　　　　本子（NPC1-5）桌子（NPC2-25）

时（学而时习之）副词　　　　　　　　　　　时候 / 时间（NPC1-6）

习（学而时习之）动词　　　复习 / 实践 学习（NPC1-4，7）（NPC2-20）习惯

日（吾日三省吾身）量词　　　　　　　　　　　　　日记（NPC1-14）

身（吾日三省吾身）代词　　　　　　　　　　　身体 / 全身（NPC1-12）

已（则可谓云尔已矣）限制性助词　　　　　自己（NPC1-10）已经（NPC2-17）

也（求也问 / 求也惑 / 求也退）助词表停顿　　　　　（NPC1-1）副词

之（子之武城）动词　　　　如之何其闻斯之行之 / 前言戏之耳 // 闻弦歌之声

对（子由对曰）动词　　　对不起（NPC1-5，10）习惯用语；对（NPC1-14）形容词

戏（前言戏之耳）动词　　　　　　　　　　　　　戏院（NPC2-20）

耳（前言戏之耳）助词   表结束 耳朵

语（叔孙武叔语大夫于朝曰）动词   语言（NPC1-4）/ 英语（NPC1-11）/ 语法（NPC1-4）

以（子服景伯以告子贡）介词   以前 / 以后 / 以为（NPC2-21，22，25）

云（夫子之云，不亦宜乎）动词   王小云

乘（万乘之国 / 千乘之家 / 百乘之家）量词   乘客（NPC2-18）

食 sì（箪食壶浆以迎王师）动词

所（使之居于王所）名词   所以（NPC2-20）连词

间（引而置之撞岳之间数年）名词   时间（NPC1-6）/ 间，量词（NPC1-13）

向（望洋向若而叹曰）动词   介词（NPC2-24）

轻（而轻伯夷之义者，始吾弗信）动词   （NPC2-15）年轻 形容词

斤（匠石运斤成风）名词   量词（NPC1-10）

慢（郢人恶慢其鼻端）通假"漫"（NPC2-16）形容词

恶（抹，覆盖）PLASTER

顾（顾问从者曰）动词

听（听而斫之）动词   听说（NPC1-13）

再（子墨子起，再拜曰）名词   再见（NPC1-5）习惯用语（NPC1-9）

中（木直中绳，其曲中规）动词   中国 3/ 中文 7/ 中药 12/ 中学 14/ 中午 14

就（金就砺则利）动词   （NPC2-15）副词

博（君子博学而日参省乎己）形容词   （NPC2-26）博物馆

参（君子博学而日参省乎己）动词   参加（NPC1-9）

省（君子博学而日参省乎己）动词

过（则知明而行无过矣）名词   （NPC1-14）动词 / 过期 2-16 动宾词组 / 过去 2-17

志（是故无冥冥之志者，无昭昭之明）名词   杂志 2-16

通过对 55 组"旧词生义"现象的分析发现：在初中级阶段，同一个汉字词 / 词素同时出现在古代汉语教材和新实用汉语课本的频率为：生词表简单重合率为 16.5%（60/363），这里包括了人名、地名；部分词的多次复现率为 30%-60%；暂时无对应关系的词包括：安、之、何、无、恶、顾、省、食。

4.3 旧词生义现象的种类：

4.3.1 词义明显不同。如：长，走。

4.3.2 通假现象。如：慢（漫），说（悦）

4.3.3 词性不同。如：如：所，时。

4.3.4 词性、词义都不同。如：就，博。

4.3.5 音形义都不同。如：無（毋）/ 无

4.3.6 同一个汉字词，在古汉和现汉中都有多个义项。

例如：为

为（南郭处士请为王吹竽）介词 为什么（NPC1-7）疑问代词

为（而身为宋国笑）动词 因为（NPC2-20）连词

为（吾能为之足）动词 以为（NPC2-25）动词

5. "并行模式"对于学习者汉语语言使用的影响

5.1 简体汉字和繁体汉字的识别与杂糅。

例如：牛马 馬

车舟　　車

善恶　　惡

宾客　　賓

视　　　視

见　　　見

上面的字和词是学分笔试中出现的部分简体字和繁体字。通过对 LEVEL 5 学生的问卷调查，学习者普遍表达了对于两种字体并行的积极态度，他们认为繁体字并没有给他们的汉字认读造成障碍，相反，绝大多数人认为繁体和简体可以相互促进识别的。

5.2 古今汉语词汇概念的混杂。

通过对 LEVEL 5 学生的问卷调查，学生普遍感觉到困扰的古代汉语词或词组包括：

夫将、由、自、子、走。

学生们的困扰很容易从他们先学的现代汉语中获得解释。

如：走（兔走触株 / 弃而还走）动词，跑　　　　　　　　走（NPC2-17）动词

子（子曰）名词　　　　　　　　本子（NPC1-5）桌子（NPC2-25）

自 (其剑自舟中坠于水) 介词　　　　自己（NPC2-16）代词自行车（NPC2-25）名词

最典型的是"夫将"，两个有明确意义的字，在古代汉语中怎么会存在为一个虚词呢？这些困扰让学生们既新奇又印象深刻。

5.3 并行阶段学习者对现代汉语语法结构的认知分析。

5.3.1 以单音节字替代双音节词。

例如：英国茶比中国茶有好处有得很少，因为英国人喝茶跟牛奶，所以它失身体好处。(Max Thompson)

中国新年你们很忐吗？(Max Thompson)

当你锻炼能改善你的心情，也锻炼人感到生产力。(Jack Rowan)

这意味着你可以或是有一个悲伤的月或者一个眼泪的日子。（Jack Rowan）

5.3.2 短语结构的使用。

通过对学习者使用"如何"的考察，可以发现，有的学习者可以非常好的使用这个结构了，有的则存在瑕疵：

好的例子：

第二篇文章谈论了压力的来源以及如何应对压力。（Craig Waston）

它给出了一些如何阻止压力的忠告以及人们面对压力的一些特征。（Craig Waston）

有瑕疵的例子：

然后谈论不同的人有心理疾病和精神病患者如何的自杀的人一定的数额。（Daniel Meaden）

第五条谈到重要的食物是如何使你感到高兴。（Daniel Meaden）

第一篇文章谈到了自杀，如何自杀的男性比女性多。（Daniel Meaden）

5.3.3."使"、"于"、"按"的使用。

例如：这使我感到高兴。   （Lee miller）

按这个文章，。。。   （Jack Rowan）

接下来，我将着眼于文章二 。   （Jack rowan）

文章五列出了食物可以有助于使你感到快乐。   （Jack rowan）

它位于靠近北非。   （Parry workman）

通过对上述现象的观察发现，学习者从古代汉语和现代汉语两方面获得的经验总是杂糅地出现

在书面表达中。而通过学分考试试卷的调查发现，学生们对下列语法现象不能很好地理解：

今鸣者鸦也。(韩非子 . 画鬼最难)

有 71% 的受试者在"者"的翻译上都出错了。

当然，这并不是说，学习者的口语表达没有受到影响，比如在"脸谱"的留言中，学习者

也会说："中国新年你们很忐吗？"，"我很忐！"

6. 古汉语"意合"的特点对于学习者现代汉语语言加工和语序排列的影响

通过对学分考试试卷的调查发现，学生们对下列古代汉语的表达方式不能很好地理解：

如：儿以石击之。

今鸣者鸦也。

人之智高于鸟之智。　鸟何以能知之。《韩非子·画鬼最难》

"之"在句子中的变化非常多，学习者基本没有从现代汉语中获得什么相似的经验来理解它。而在"者"后面省略的谓语也让学生无从下手连缀一个完整的句子。在用现代汉语书写的语片中，能够发现很多古代汉语语体特点的影响，古汉、现汉杂糅伴生的情况值得注意：

我已阅读阅读。（Daniel Meaden）

你们什么时候会为过年？（MAX THOMPSON）

英国茶比中国茶有好处有得很少，因为英国人喝茶跟牛奶，所以它失身体好处。（MAX THOMPSON）

然后你吃饭晚了，常常主人说：我送你一段路，可能贵客说，"别送"，可终归留情。（PAUL）

林娜看我，我看了地板了。（Parry Workman）

从中，可以发现很多有趣的现象，笔者甚至认为，很多学习者其实已经开始注意到了汉语的节奏和韵律，也有意识地发挥着汉语"意合"的特点，这不能不说是他们对于汉语的发现和对汉语认识的提升。"并行期"所产生的"伴生"现象值得关注和分析。

7. 语言杂糅的伴生性与连接性课程设置

对于"汉学"专业学习者来说，能使用流利的现代汉语交流和表达，能熟练地使用古代汉语阅读文献，是学业必经之路。在"并行模式"下，越早跨越"伴生期"，水平提高就越快。那么，在学生的这个蜕变期，大学和教师能做什么呢？

笔者认为，如果能在古代汉语和现代汉语之间，建立一些连接性的课程，将非常有利于学习者的提高。可以考虑从汉字、词汇、语法的角度开设专题的汉语史课程，或者是汉语语法化的课程，通过对比，把语言演变的脉络画给学生，这样学习者才能知其所以然，继而豁然开朗。

这种课程在硕士和博士阶段比较容易实施。在本科生阶段，大学是否有足够的学时和学分呢？在英国，这种专业追求很可能受到大学学制、学习模块、就业、教师结构等因素的影响。

在苏格兰和一些英格兰的大学，学生需要学习四年，而在威尔士和一些英格兰的大学则只有三年学制。在认识和了解"并行模式"产生的问题上，现代汉语和古代汉语的教学团队还没有从二语习得入手进行广泛地交流。更现实的的是，由于未来学费上涨和就业市场的影响，实用主义的观念可能会影响到汉学专业课程模块的设置，开设新的课程可能面临阻力。

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牛津大学汉语教学中心：http://www.ctcfl.ox.ac.uk/advanced.htm

niversity of Cambrige: http://www.cam.ac.uk/admissions/undergraduate/courses/ames/index.html

注释

1. University of Oxford: Faculty of Oriental Studies,sub-faculty of East Asian Studies,,Lecture List for Trinity Term 2011http://www.admin.ox.ac.uk/pubs/lectures/os-eas.pdf

2. http://www.admin.ox.ac.uk/pubs/lectures/os-eas.pdf

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A "Thinking" Chinese Classroom

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Abstract

This paper exams a Chinese language classroom from an innovative perspective: by stimulating higher order thinking as the driving force to empower students to develop their targeted language skills. This paper elaborates on how higher order thinking activities such as paraphrasing and interpreting contribute to quality dialogue in language classrooms. Approaches to raising provocative questions and organizing effective group work through DPSP are also discussed as supplementary means.

Keywords: higher order thinking, quality dialogue, paraphrasing, provocative questions, group work

1. Introduction

Inspired by Tony Ryan's "Thinkers Keys" workshop, in which a series of practical strategies were introduced to promote higher order thinking and deep understanding in various learning settings, this paper aims to elaborate on the application of some of those strategies in a Chinese classroom, mainly in the following three aspects, focusing on an effective development of students' listening and speaking skills.

- Generate quality dialogue
- Raise provocative questions

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- Organize effective group work through DPSP (Discuss: Publish: Shop: Polish)

Justifications

Traditional language classrooms, including Chinese classrooms, usually focus on the development of the four micro-skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing through time and time again drilling of grammatical structures, making sentences, and conversational practice based on certain topics, etc. Even though nowadays most of the conversational activities are situation based, the quality of those dialogues are very often concerning. Miscommunications often take place between the addressors and the addressees without them even being aware that this has happened. Undoubtedly, rote memorization has played and will continue to play a significant role in learning a language, as Norman Doidge (2007) pointed out, "The loss of drills such as rote memorization and handwriting has been costly; they may have been the only opportunity that many students had to systemically exercise the brain function that gives us fluency and grace with symbols". However, whilst useful, a learning process like this involves brainwork mostly at a primitive level of memorization rather than by encouraging active thinking that leads to more productive and creative results.

According to Tony Ryan (2010), a leading Australian educational consultant and writer, "Students in a Knowledge Society must engage in the richest possible intellectual rigor with their daily lessons. To explicitly involve them in high order thinking experiences is the single most effective way to advance their learning in all fields." Based on the latest version of his "Thinkers Keys" program, Tony Ryan put forward a series of strategies for promoting higher order thinking and deep understanding in different learning settings, which also open up a new channel to access the development of language skills.

So, the purpose of this paper is to reflect on and share the strategies applied to an experiment in how explicit thinking activities can be utilized as a vehicle to drive the development of language skills in a Chinese classroom.

Generate quality dialogue

As pointed out by Tony Ryan (2010), "for most young people, they need to talk in order to learn. Effective teachers have always encouraged their students to engage in consistent intellectual dialogue all through the lesson". As a matter of fact, dialogue or conversational practice has become the most common oral activity in most language classrooms. More and more teachers have realized that conversational practice in specific situations or contexts is more helpful and meaningful for students to develop their ability to communicate on a certain topic. Nevertheless, miscommunications often take place even without the participants noticing. So, how should we amend our practice to ensure high quality dialogue in a language classroom really takes place?

Tony Ryan came up with a great strategy by involving higher order thinking to ensure the quality

of dialogue in classroom; crucially it also serves to reduce the possible miscommunications to the minimum at the same time. As he believes, the quality of student dialogue will strongly determine the quality of learning in a lesson. As summarized by Tony Ryan (2010), there are two critical skills in dialogue: listening and paraphrasing. The way to conduct effective paraphrasing is to *listen first...* then *pause⋯* then begin with: "*So, yo*u'*re saying that...*" This strategy applies to real life as well as language classrooms.

In real life situations, a very important reason why there are so many miscommunications when one talks to another person is that people tend to make too many wrong assumptions or take too many things for granted. The addressees tend to feel they hear everything said, but the addressers have every right to question – *Do you really get what I meant to say?* Only through a questioning like this can miscommunication be possibly avoided. The way to check it out is for the addressees to conduct a paraphrasing by listening first, then pause to allow time to really process and digest the information heard, and then to seek for confirmation by saying" *So, you are saying that…."*

As we can see, the key elements of a successful paraphrasing requires careful listening, followed by a processing of the information heard in a truly objective way, then to reproduce the information in a different way, usually different from the original wording. It definitely involves higher order thinking by trying to express the same ideas, but in a different personalized way, such as by summarizing, which demonstrates deep understanding through active brainwork. Language learners can thus benefit from this strategy: on the one hand, they become more focused listeners who can catch key information; on the other hand, the deeper understanding gained through 'paraphrasing' usually leads their conversations to more in-depth understanding and true communication with relative ease.

2. Experiment

An experiment on the effectiveness of this conversational strategy was conducted with a group of Chinese high school students at intermediate level. A demo-video of how to conduct paraphrasing was shown to the students as the first step. Very purposefully, the video modeled accurate paraphrasing that indicates sound understanding of the original message that the addressor meant to convey. The demo-video also provided an example of an unsuccessful paraphrasing that did not stick to the original message, which indicates a miscommunication in case between the addressor and the addressee, and therefore a clear opportunity to correct the misunderstanding.

Paraphrasing Vs. Rephrasing

Although the task may have appeared to be easy, many students quickly mixed up the task of

'rephrasing' with 'paraphrasing' during the experiment. In teaching and learning practice, students are always encouraged to 'rephrase' a word particularly when they have difficulty coming up with the exact word needed to express a certain meaning. Teachers also use 'rephrasing' to allow as much room as possible for students to gain the messages that are meant to be conveyed. There is no doubt that "rephrasing' is a very useful approach to get messages across, however, it involves no more than using different single words, which is a relatively lower order thinking process. Dialogue at this lower order thinking level can rarely go into any significant depth in terms of the full message the addressor wishes to convey. Language learners at beginner level are more often encouraged to 'rephrase' for the purpose of building up their vocabulary bank as they try to get their messages across as well. What needs to be emphasized to students is that 'paraphrasing' takes a much more complicated higher order thinking to ensure a deeper understanding, and it comes out in a form of summarizing rather than simple repetition by merely using alternative words. So, conversations involving 'paraphrasing' can be easily expanded to explore issues on a certain topic in a more comprehensive and comprehensible way that ensures that the messages are fully understood and known to be understood correctly by both parties.

An interesting observation during the experiment was that some students may get too preoccupied with 'paraphrasing' what their dialogue partners have said, and consequently failed to think critically about what was being paraphrased by their partners, or sometimes they simply got lazy and rushed a dialogue through to its end without thinking. As a result, they tended to recognize and admit any paraphrasing without the careful processing that is required – this again involves higher order thinking. Therefore, it is necessary that students are trained in the beginning of the course to set up a healthy routine in their dialogues in class, to avoid this so-called 'intellectual laziness'.

Paraphrasing Vs. Interpreting

Another observation during the experiment showed that some students also mixed up 'paraphrasing' with 'interpreting'. In general, 'Paraphrasing' aims to check out "*do you really get what I meant to say?"* which serves to seek for deep understanding in a very *objective* manner. On the contrary, even though each individual is entitled to have a personal perspective or opinion about any words uttered, 'interpreting' can be and very often is very *subjective* under various circumstances. If a message is misinterpreted, the follow-up response is most likely to lead to a miscommunication.

It was observed that when some students were trying to paraphrase, instead of checking out what their conversation partners really wanted to say, they jumped to respond by putting forward their own personal points of view about what was being discussed in the dialogue. Obviously, they were not 'paraphrasing', but 'interpreting'. Students need to be reminded that in order to conduct a successful conversation, the first essential step is to get what is meant to convey by the addressor. Without deep

understanding about what was addressed by their partners, their responses by 'interpreting' often slide into the wrong track. That's exactly how miscommunication takes place in the real world too!

3. Applications

It is very important for language teachers to bear in mind the difference between 'paraphrasing' and 'interpreting', particularly when they design practice activities or assessment tasks for different purposes. Given that 'paraphrasing' often takes place in real time through a dialogue, it is obviously applicable to activities in speaking form, for example, a conversational practice set up in a certain scenario, or an interview activity in which it is critical to grasp accurately what the interviewer is trying to ask and how the interviewee is responding to some issues. In addition, students can also be asked to paraphrase a paragraph or an article they have just read, through summarizing in their own words.

In a similar way, 'interpreting' can also be used in both oral and written forms. In a dialogue, the addressee can, of course, respond with their own personal opinion, but only under the precondition that the addressor's message has been received and processed objectively. Students can also be encouraged to 'interpret' a piece of reading or listening text or viewing material by speaking up or writing down their personal understandings or comments.

As analyzed above, it is quite flexible to integrate all four micro-skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing into a 'paraphrasing', and then follow up into an 'interpreting' activity if needed. Attached here in Appendix I is an example of an integral assessment task that combines both 'paraphrasing' and 'interpreting'.

In addition, at the beginning of the experiment, there was a misconception that higher order thinking in the form of 'paraphrasing' could only be suitable to students whose language proficiency level is relatively higher. However, it turned out that even students at a beginning level could practice developing quality dialogue through paraphrasing. So, this 'paraphrasing' skill is also applicable to beginner language learners. A few examples in Chinese dialogues are presented here in Appendix II.

Raise provocative questions

To generate meaningful discussion in class, teachers have the responsibility to raise provocative questions that can stimulate students' higher order thinking. Tony Ryan (2010) summarized the following as typical examples of provocative questions:

- *Why do you believe...?*
- *Could you give an example of that?*

- *Are you suggesting...?*
- *What reasons do you have for saying that?*
- *Could you clarify that comment?*
- *Why did you find that interesting?*
- *How do you know that?*

In a learner-centered language classroom, students are supposed to be the dominating talkers. They are encouraged to integrate those provocative questions into their discussions. Appropriate utilization of those questions would definitely lead to a thorough and in-depth conversation about the issue on agenda. By actively encouraging those provocative questions, teachers would be able to keep students actively engaged and challenged for healthy intellectual growth.

Teachers play a significant role as facilitators in a learner-centered classroom. Teachers may not necessarily hold standard answers to all the questions, but they are duty bound to raise quality questions to ensure quality dialogue take place in class. The following hints may need to be taken into consideration when teachers work on raising their own provocative questions:

Dig deep in the selected texts: grasp the key concepts relating to the theme of the unit

Linking to current issues in real world: the world keeps changing; up-to-date issues are more meaningful to better engage students in interesting and rewarding discussions

*Connecting to student*s' *personal experience and past knowledge of the world*: to ensure that everyone has something to say and share from their own knowledge and experience. By connecting past knowledge with new concepts or issues to themselves and people they know, innovative ideas may well flourish.

4. Discuss: Publish: Shop: Polish (DPSP)

In order to enhance the interactive atmosphere in classroom, teachers use all sorts of ways to organize group work. Quality dialogue always takes place in well-organized group discussions. Tony Ryan (2010) introduced an effective way for group working, named DPSP. It can be summarized as the following:

Form into groups of 4, and then go through this process:

1. *Discuss*: all different responses to the question being addressed
2. *Publish*: a collection of these, and place your 1st draft on a large sheet
3. *Shop*: for ideas from the other groups in the room
4. *Polish*: and finish off your answers to the question back in your own group

By going through a process as above, students can not only interact with peers in their own group, but also get the chance to walk around and exchange opinions with the other groups. The 'paraphrasing' skill can be integrated into this process. Again, higher order thinking plays an indispensible role throughout the whole process. Consequently, the targeted language and the themes of the topic are explored with far greater rigor.

Naturally, this also requires students to engage in real communication and collaboration, ensuring that final conclusions are more deeply considered by effective communication between teams working collaboratively together to achieve the best and most comprehensive and tested arguments. These key 'social skills'', along with the language skills, will hold student well in all their future decision making roles in the real world.

5. Conclusion

In summary, quality dialogue in a language classroom can be achieved through higher order thinking activities such as paraphrasing, interpreting, raising and seeking answers for provocative questions, and effective group working process such as DPSP. Even though the most direct effect works on the improvement of listening and speaking skills, higher order thinking activities can actually be utilized to stimulate the integral language skills in both oral and written forms. The development of language skills underpinned by intellectual growth through higher order thinking is proved to be more sustainable, transferrable and enjoyable.

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Appendix I

An example of an assessment task that combines both 'paraphrasing' and 'interpreting'.

观看《李连杰从"中国制造"说起》的电视短片，然后回答下列问题。（20 分）

1 该电视短片介绍了李连杰一生所经历的五个不同的"制造"阶段，请列出其中的至少三个：（3 分）

1）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　　　　4）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　　　　2）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

5）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　　　　3）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

2 该片记录了一段故事：1974 年，李连杰在美国见到当时的尼克松总统。当总统邀请李连杰长大后做他的私人保镖 (body guard) 时，李连杰是如何回答的？他的回答表明了他的什么思想？李连杰当时有多大？（5 分）

3 当李连杰总结自己成功的经验时，曾经说过这样一段话："我花了超过二十年的时间才体会到：最（　　）的武器是（　　），最强大的力量是（　　）。（3 分）

4 在该短片中，李连杰用英语说了下面这段话，请先用中文总结他所说的话，然后再写出你对他这段话的个人理解。

"…I will give my knowledge, my heart, my love … everything I can, give to my family, the global family, give to the world, because I am a citizen of the world, because I am made in China."

中文总结（4 分）：

个人理解（5 分）：

Appendix II

Examples on how 'paraphrasing' skill is also applicable to beginner Chinese learners.

Dialogue 1:

A: 我家有爸爸、妈妈、两个姐姐、三个弟弟，还有爷爷和奶奶。

B: (你的意思是说……？) 你有很多兄弟姐妹。Or 你家人真多。

Dialogue 2:

A: 我喜欢打球、游泳、跑步、滑雪和骑自行车。

B: (你的意思是说……？) 你爱好运动。

Dialogue 3:

A: 今天晚上我想请你吃饭。

B: (你的意思是说……？) 你请客啊？

The Use of Peer Teaching in a Chinese Classroom

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Abstract

The development of learner autonomy has not received much recognition in the field of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Therefore, little research to date has focused on learner autonomy in this field. Traditionally, peer teaching (PT) mainly refers to more capable students teaching less capable students. It does not emphasise collaboration among classmates. Over the last few decades, PT has transformed from a one-way learning into a two-way learning process. Its new focus is on the engagement of all students in their learning process. The authors of this paper carried out two cycles of an action research project on the use of PT in a Chinese classroom in both 2009 and 2010. The data were collected from students' weekly journals. The authors try to demonstrate how students can effectively employ PT and how PT can possibly increase their enthusiasm for learning, develop their learner autonomy and still enhance language acquisition.

Keywords: Chinese, peer teaching, enthusiasm, acquisition, learner autonomy

1. Introduction

China has been experiencing continuing economic growth for the last three decades and became the world's second-biggest economy in 2010. The Chinese economic miracle together with the beauty of Chinese culture have been drawing a great deal of attention from all over the world and have

encouraged a growing number of institutions to offer Chinese or Chinese-related courses. The increasing demand for Chinese culture and language echoes the fact that learning Chinese has become part of many foreign people's lives. However, as a subject, learning Chinese should not only be about the increase of language competency, but also about learners' personal development.

2. Literature review

2.1 Introduction to Peer teaching

Peer teaching (PT) has a long history in the west. Its origins can be traced back to the period of Greek and Roman education (Wagner 1982, Topping 1996). In more recent times, PT emerged during the 18th century as a means of extending the reach of education to the masses. The two key figures in England who implemented PT were Andrew Bell (1753-1832) and Joseph Lancaster (1778-1838). The number of public schools grew rapidly in England during the late 19th century. Many children who had never attended schools began to receive formal education. Public schools took over the schools which were traditionally run through PT. After the second half of the twentieth century, PT began to revive. In recent years, many schemes of PT have adapted to different situations of education. Traditional one-way PT has become a two-way collaborative process. Now PT requires that all students make their contribution to both learning and teaching. The assumption based on using PT is that the student learners really want and need to learn. In order to teach effectively, student teachers need to understand and care for their peers. This understanding and care are referred to as both academic and emotional support. Boud (2001) outlines that "reciprocal peer learning emphasises the students simultaneously learning and contributing to other students' learning and such communication is based on mutual experience and so they are better able to make equal contributions" (p 4). The benefits of these are manifold:

- All students have the opportunities to learn;
- All students have the opportunities to reflect on their learning;
- All students have the opportunities to inject social values into their class.

2.2 PT and learner autonomy

One of the very benefits of PT, in particular, for language learning is the potential for enhancing autonomy as learners engaged in PT settings. Learner autonomy may be achieved in different ways.

PT presupposes a degree of autonomy. The PT setting of collaborative learning creates the conditions in which learners work with each other and learn from each other. The nature of the collaborative learning process allows the learners to have the chance to take responsibility for, reflect on and act on their own learning as well as the learning of their peers. If the implementation of PT is the process of learners taking charge of their learning, the outcomes of PT are likely to enhance learner autonomy. During the implementation of PT, learners move towards developing their autonomy as learners which allows them to have "the ability to take charge of one's learning, (the ability) to have, and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of … learning". (Holec, 1981: 3)

2.3 PT for language learning

In the field of PT for language learning, Professor Jean-Pol Martin is the notable figure in the west. He has been practicing PT for teaching French in Germany since the 1980s. Grzega (2005) summarises that PT ensures that the teacher transfers his power over the class to his students and trusts his students' capability for designing and implementing teaching activities if opportunities are given. Grzega and Schöner (2008) claim effectiveness and efficiency of PT by using online questionnaires over two years. According to them, a majority of the ninety seven participants have attested that PT helps them to improve across a rage of personal, social and methodological competences.

PT has also been used in the area of teaching English as a foreign language in China. Zhang (2006)'s two-weeks' PT course is designed as one of several interactive teaching approaches in an English classroom. One hundred and four students have participated in the project. The student teachers' focus is on lesson exercises. The results of interviews, class observation and questionnaires indicate that PT helps all students to learn English. However, student teachers have higher learning motivation than student learners. Liu & Luo (2008) find that their implementation of PT encourages students' active participation in learning activities, develops their collaborative spirit and responsibility for learning, increases their self-confidence, language competence and learning strategies. Ninety six students have taken part in their project. The project covers one unit of their English textbook and lasts for two weeks. Yan & Song (2010) argues in theory that PT can help to increase students' confidence and motivation for learning, create more opportunities to use English, develop collaborative learning and change the teacher' role. The activities which they suggest include peer correction of essays, information exchange, inter-group interview and survey. A study by Li (2011) involving twenty six students notes in particular a difference between students acting as student teachers or as student learners. The main task is to teach thirty five new English words of a particular lesson. The data show that PT allows

student teachers to learn better than student learners. Among the student teachers, the students with lower grades gain a better improvement that those with higher grades.

Little research to date has focused on PT in the field of Chinese language teaching. Nielson (1974) suggests that PT be used in order to develop individualised learning of Chinese. However, his suggestion has not gained much response from Chinese pedagogy specialists. This study addresses that gap.

3. Methodology

This paper reports the findings from two cycles of an action research project to explore the use of PT for language learning in a university setting. Action research is a form of an ongoing process during which some social or educational practices are tackled. It is "a form of self-reflective inquiry carried out by practitioners, aimed at solving problems, improving practice, or enhancing understanding". (Nunan, 1992: 229) In this project, the approach was used by the course teacher and course coordinator to address the following research questions:

- Can the use of PT increase students' knowledge of Chinese,
- Can the use of PT increase students' enthusiasm for learning and
- Can the use of PT develop students' learner autonomy.

The number of students was fifteen in both 2009 and 2010. Both years witnessed the same gender ratio of one male student and fourteen female students. They were all beginners (apart from one student in 2009 who had some basic knowledge of Chinese). The Chinese course lasted for two hours a week for seven weeks in each year. There were six groups of student teachers in cycle I, including one group of three who designed and implemented the course assessment. There were five PT groups of three in cycle II. They all did PT. The major difference between 2009 and 2010 was a reduction in the proportion of PT relative to much teacher led class as a result of student feedback. About 80 percent of the class learning was done through PT in 2009 while 20 percent of the classroom activities were completed by the native Chinese teacher. The class was mainly driven by the students. They performed in turn as both student learners and student teachers and the Chinese teacher acted as a facilitator. During the class, the teacher mainly did revision and summarised conclusions on what student teachers had taught. Outside the class, the teacher offered necessary assistance to the student teachers regarding their preparation for teaching (See figure 1 for PT Structure in 2009). One of the major suggestions made by the students was that the Chinese teacher should come more to the forefront in classroom.

Student teachers also felt overwhelmed by their preparation for PT. In response to student feedback from cycle I, in cycle II in 2010, PT took up about 20 percent of the classroom activities while the teacher played a more central role as the teacher and facilitator (See figure 2 for PT structure in 2010). He taught the whole class new learning content and the student teachers covered PT in the form of peer revision. The teacher also offered necessary assistance to the student teachers during their preparation for PT. The decision to focus on peer revision rather than new content was intended to reduce student anxiety in preparing and participating as student teachers.

In order to answer the questions raised in this project, the students of Chinese were required to write weekly journals which recorded their learning experiences and provided the data for this research work. Apart from the open questions in its last session, the journals included the following key questions which are relevant to this particular paper:

- Rate your enthusiasm for learning Chinese on a 1 (low) to 10 (high) scale:
- Before the lesson   After the lesson
- Did you (as the student teacher) manage to learn this topic before the class?
- Did you (as the student teacher) meet with any difficulty and what did you do about it?
- Did your teaching in the class enhance your own learning?
- Were the contents of my peers' teaching beneficial to me?

4. Findings

The main findings included the following three themes: learning enthusiasm, acquisition of Chinese and learner autonomy.

4.1 Theme 1: Learning enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is great interest in a subject. It is a driving force for intrinsic motivation and plays a key role in learning. It often decides on students' learning success. In both years, the use of PT allowed students to maintain or even increase their learning enthusiasm. In year 2009, students were asked to rate their enthusiasm for learning Chinese on a 1 (low) to 10 (high) scale. The overall ratio between the pre-class and after-class rate of enthusiasm was 1 to 1.04. Students had a higher rate after the class than they had had before the class, although the difference was not significant. One of the students described her feeling as follows:

I am happy to say I am still as enthusiastic about learning the language as I was last week. I believe this enthusiasm is a direct result of the positive feedback and affirmation received from my peers. (K, 2009: 2) (Note 1)

In 2010, the overall ratio between the pre-class and after-class rate of enthusiasm throughout the course was 1 to 1.1. It is evident that, after the adjustment of the PT structure, students' enthusiasm increased by 6 percent. The difference between the after-class enthusiasm and the pre-class enthusiasm was 10 percent. One of the students noted:

I think the fact that I was peer teaching this week really helped me as there was extra motivation there to concentrate on learning the concept of the tones so that I would feel helpful and competent when revising that with the others. (A, 2010: 2)

The sample size is not large enough to determine statistical significance, but there is a clear indicator in cycle II that PT was a contributing factor, if not a significant factor, in maintaining enthusiasm for learning Chinese.

4.2 Theme 2: Acquisition of Chinese as student teachers

The growth of knowledge of Chinese is one of the essential elements of this course. Throughout the course students are encouraged to actively participate in the learning process. However, it would appear from their journals that they are particularly active and experience greater language progress during their teaching week regardless of them teaching new learning content or doing peer revision. In 2009, six students (Note 2) clearly stated that PT enhanced their learning of Chinese during their teaching week. The following example shows how the preparation for PT helped a student teacher to learn vocabulary and increase her confidence in learning.

I can still remember quite a lot of the vocab(ulary) from class and really feel the benefit of having planned a lesson for Chinese. It has also made me more confident in my ability. (A, 2009: 4)

In 2010, all the fifteen students reported that PT helped them to learn during their teaching week in particular. The following example shows how the preparation for PT helped a student teacher to revise and reinforce her knowledge of the words 'gui' (expensive) and 'pianyi' (cheap). This student

teacher adopted the game *Prize is Right* for her PT. The knowledge of Chinese was developed through meaningful language use.

The peer teaching helped me learn. It was effective in reinforcing what I learnt last week. I am in charge of a section of the peer teaching this coming Tuesday so the pressure is on to really know the vocabulary from last week⋯ The experience of preparing an activity for peer-teaching has given me the opportunity to use the target language in a meaningful context. The words 'guì' (expensive) 'piányi' (cheap) mean something to me because I now think of them in terms of genuine and knock-off Jimmy Choos. (N, 2010: 5)

Overall, a majority of the students in both cycles acknowledged their definite increase of subject knowledge when they acted as student teachers. Their feedback shows that PT can play an important role in student teachers' language acquisition.

4.3 Theme 3: Learner autonomy and interdependence

The data collected from both research cycles show that PT has offered some students the opportunities to develop their learner autonomy. The following quote is representative of student responses to their experience of taking charge of, reflecting on and acting on their learning process throughout the Chinese course.

I made a significant jump towards becoming a more autonomous learner during this process. During class preparation I used the Chinese online dictionary for the first time. I had a mental block against using it but when I started using it, I discovered how easy it was. I find, as a student, that I can be intimidated by new processes before finding out how simple they usually are. (N, 2010: 6)

The data also suggest that the development of learner autonomy should not be considered only as independence from the teacher. Rather, the interdependence of students with the teacher as the teacher and facilitator is an important factor in the learning process. The findings suggest that autonomous learners also need appropriate collaboration with and support from their teacher due to their pronunciation and linguistic competences. This suggestion also corresponds to the fact that reflection on learning is part of student learning process. The following quote is representative of student intention to be interdependent with the teacher.

Weiming was also very encouraging to us during our presentation and this helped my confidence as the lesson progressed. (M, 2009: 3)

5. Conclusion

This paper aims to attest the effectiveness of PT. The data from both cycles have suggested that the implementation of PT in this context increases students' knowledge of Chinese and maintains their enthusiasm for learning. Furthermore, their active involvement in learning allows them to develop their ability to take charge of their learning. This development marks the possibility to promote learner autonomy. The implications of PT correspond to the essence of education in general as described by Kozulin:

•   Prospective education implies that students should be capable of approaching problems that do not yet exist at the moment of his or her learning. To achieve this capability, the student should be oriented toward productive, rather than reproductive, knowledge. Knowledge should thus appear not in the form of results and solutions but rather as a process of authoring. (Kozulin, 1998: 151)

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Notes:

Note 1. The information in the brackets refers to student K's quote in week two of the Chinese course in 2009.

Note 2. There were fifteen students in total. Three students were involved in the course assessment. One student did not feel much achievement. Five students' journals were missing for that particular week.

Figures:

Figure 1. PT structure in 2009
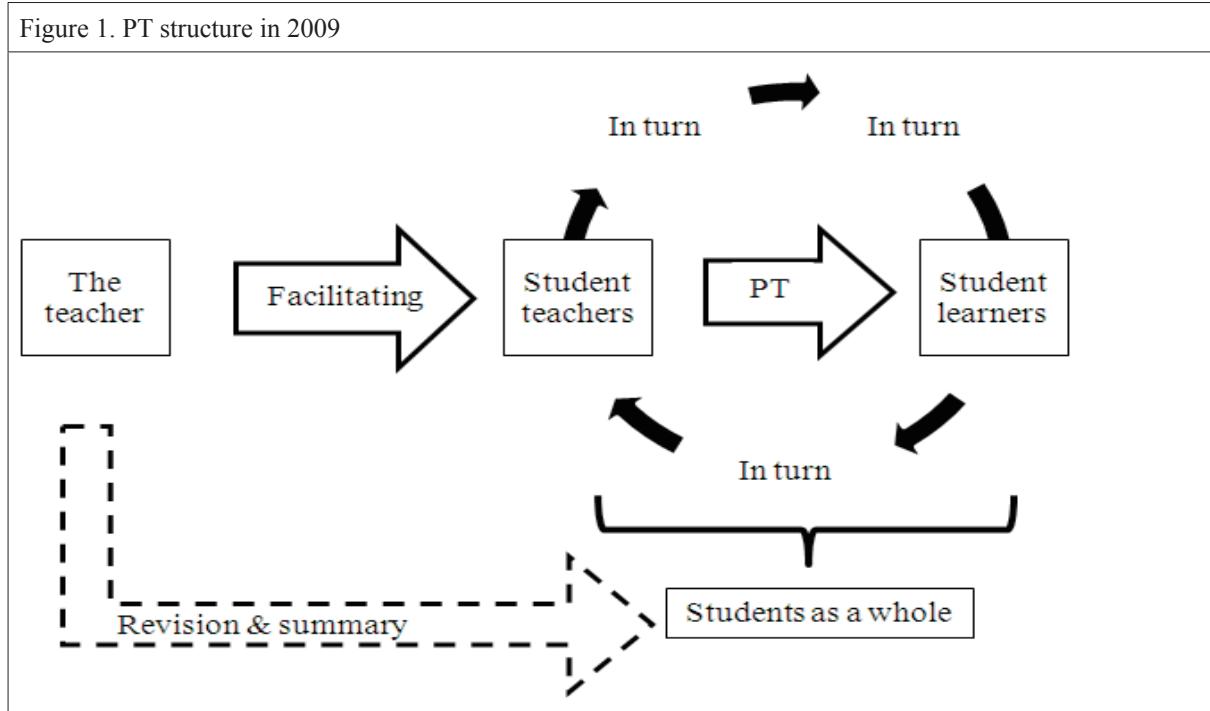
Figure 2. PT structure in 2010
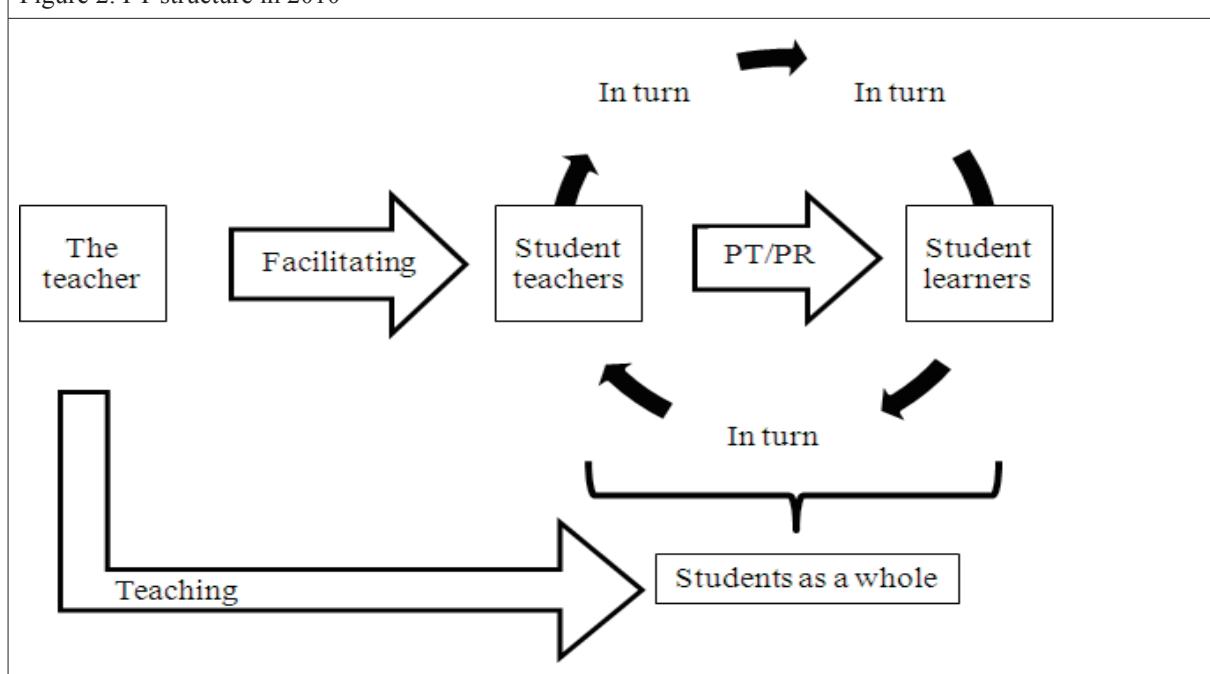
促进师生互动的教师话语策略

——以新加坡小二导入班华文口语课堂为例

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摘　要：新加坡小学华文导入班的学生多来自于讲英语家庭或外族，大部分时间用英语沟通，华文课是学生接触、练习使用华语的主要场所。本研究以一所小学小二导入班的华文口语课堂为研究对象，采用适合学生实际水平、激发学生学习兴趣的情境教学模式，让教师在课堂实践中着重关注教师话语在话语量、目的语输入和输出、提问方式、交互调整、反馈策略等方面的质与量，为学生提供更多用目的语进行交际和意义协商的机会，提高师生互动的质量。本文运用质性研究与量化分析相结合的方法，考察了实验前后口语课堂中师生互动的话语交流语段，探询教师的话语策略对促进师生互动产生的效用。

关键词：口语教学、教师话语、师生互动

1. 引言

教师话语（teacher talk）是教师在二语课堂上传授知识和组织教学活动时所使用的语言，通常具有语法简化、语速较慢、停顿较多较长、重复较多等特点，包括教师在组织课堂教学、讲解教学内容、师生交流互动、及对学生发出指令与评价时所使用的语言（Nunan 1991）。教师话语是教师和学生互动交流的媒介，也是课堂学习中学生语言输入的主要来源，其质和量在很大程度上影响着课堂教学的成败（Ellis 1985）。教师在课堂教学实践中的话语形式能够有效地帮助学生参与课堂互动，如向学生提问、根据学生课堂互动中表现出来的理解水平提供及时、恰当的反馈等，而积极的课堂互动则可以为学习者提供更多的语言输入和使用目的语的机会 (Lantolf 2000，Wertsch 1991)。

鉴于教师话语在二语教学中的重要作用，本研究以一所新加坡邻里小学小二导入班的华文课堂为研究对象，让教师在课堂实践中着重关注教师话语在目的语输入量、提问方式、交互调整、反馈策略等方面的质与量，为学生提供更多用目的语进行交际和意义协商的机会，提高师生互动的质量。

2. 研究方法与实验设计

2.1 研究目的

本研究运用质性研究与量化分析相结合的方法，考察了实验前后口语课堂中师生互动的话语交流语段，试图了解新加坡小学口语教学课堂中教师话语的使用现状，并探询教师的话语策略对促进师生互动产生的效用，着重分析如下几个方面：

（1）教师话语量
（2）目的语的输入和输出
（3）教师提问方式
（4）交互调整
（5）教师反馈策略

2.2 研究对象

研究对象为新加坡一所邻里小学二年级导入班的华文教师及其学生。该班学习者共 9 人，全部来自讲英语家庭或异族，华文程度低。实验者为该班华文教师，担任口语课的教学。此后，学生共接受 6 个星期的教学实验，周学时为 2 课时（共 60 分钟）。

2.3 数据收集与分析

为了能系统、真实地捕捉师生话语互动的过程和特点，本研究使用了两种研究手段：

课堂录像 / 录音。采用现场录像和录音的方式完整地录制了教师在正式研究开始前所进行的 1 次口语课（60 分钟）及整个实验过程的全部 6 次课（每次课 60 分钟）。在教学全部完成后，研究者分别对每节课进行回顾，选取研究前的那节课（前测）及正式研究阶段的最后一节课（后测），借助转写软件（Transcriber v.4.0）按照转写规范将这些语料全部转写成文字，对于转写后的语料，选取每一课时中师生互动的部分，就教师与学生话语的基本情况、教师提问与反馈的各项类别进行人工标注。

　　教师访谈。本研究在实验前后分别进行了一次教师访谈，采用录音的方式录制了实验前后教师访谈的全过程，并进行整理。在进行数据分析时，将课堂录音的统计结果与教师访谈的内容相参照，以便更准确地描述教师话语，增加研究结果的信度。

2.4 实验过程

　　研究者参考新加坡小学华文教材中具有代表性的语言形式和词汇，确定了学生感兴趣的教学主题、设置教学内容和活动。实验过程适时选取了 3 个教学主题（分别为：过新年、我的小书包、探望生病的小伙伴），分 5 次课进行教学，配合图片 / 真实教具，部分材料以多媒体形式呈现。针对正式研究开始前教师在提问与反馈策略运用上的不足，研究者在实验前进行了一次教师培训，让教师注重利用有效的提问与反馈策略、总结经验，建构互动型口语课堂。

3. 实验结果与讨论

3.1 教师话语量

　　教师话语量，指的是教师话语在课堂话语中所占的比例。在传统的语言教学课堂中，教师常常作为课堂教学的核心控制着各个学习环节，但与此同时学习者表达看法、进行输出的机会往往相应减少，课堂的互动性较低。

　　本项研究的结果显示，在本项研究正式进行前进行的口语课中，教师在课堂中处于主导地位，其话语量占全部课堂话语的 82.73%。实验后教师则根据小二学生的实际水平和不同课堂任务适当分配了其话语量，占课堂话语的 79.32%，把更多的话语权交给了学生。详见图 1：

图 1 教师话语量
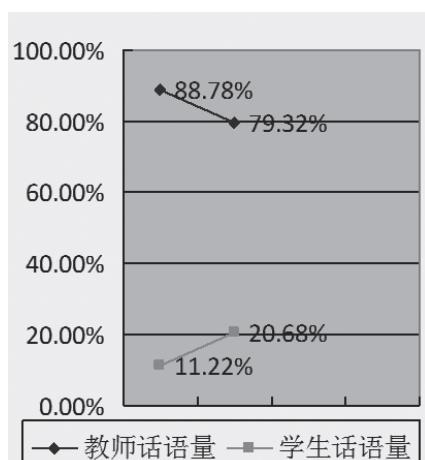
3.2 目的语输入和输出

在实验前的口语课中，教师较多地使用英文，往往先用华语陈述或提问，学生尚未回应旋即转用英语进行重新提问，目的语输入严重不足，随之学生也多用英语进行回答，教师追问和反馈也多用英语。比如：

(I) T：Today，林老师 is going to teach you something new. 你们记不记得第一天来学校时要做什么？

S：（学生保持沉默）

T：Do not understand? Do you remember when you first come in to school how do you feel?

S：Happy.

T：Happy? How about you, Nadia? How do you feel?

S：I am nervous.

T：Nervous, scared, 很害怕 right ?

实验过程中教师在与学生互动时特别注重加大华语的输入，只有在讲解游戏规则，或学生表示实在难以理解时才使用英语。图 2 显示了实验结果。实验后教师话语中使用华语的比例由 31.97% 显著地上升至 87.51%；学生话语中使用华语的比例也由实验前的 36.93% 显著上升至 84.46%，目的语华语的输入量和学生的产出量都有明显增加。

图 2 教师目的语输入与学生目的语输出

（实验前）　　　　　　　（实验后）
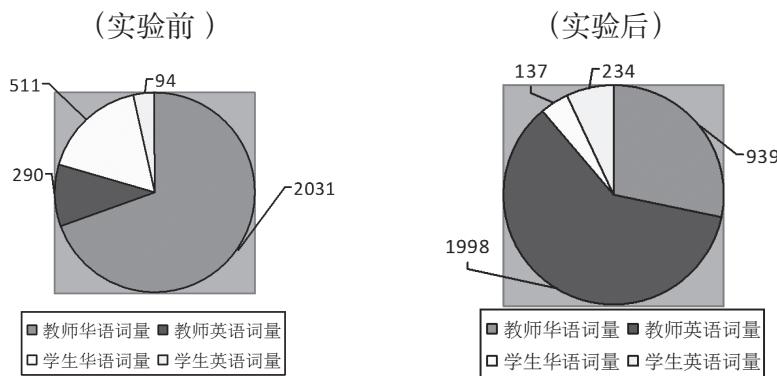
3.3 教师提问

根据教师是否预先知道答案可以将课堂提问分为展示性问题和参考性问题。其中，展示性问题的目的是引起注意，进行语言操练或考察学生对知识的掌握，教师往往不会针对已被限定的答案进行追问或扩展，学生难以继续参与到课堂讨论中，无法伴随以有意义的语言输出

（Long & Sato 1983）。在实验前进行的口语课中，教师较多地使用"明知故问"的展示性问题，而较少地使用寻求未知信息的参考性问题。例如：

(II) T：她在做什么？（教师指着 PPT 询问学生）

S：Dancing queen.

T：她在做什么？　What is she doing?

S：Ballad.

T：Play…?

S：I like ballad.

T：But what is she doing? 她在做什么？跳什么？

S：Dancing, dancing!

T：In Chinese, 她在跳什么？

S：舞。

在例 (II) 中，教师希望学生说出"跳舞"这个词，在这个过程中连续使用了 7 个展示性问题。由于这些问题的答案已被限定，因而学生的回答全部使用英文，最终只勉强地说出一个不完整的华文词"舞"。本项实验鼓励教师以更具有启发性和话语生发潜力的参考性问题来启动话题，即多提未预设答案、需要学生结合自身经验作答的参考性问题，允许多种答案出现，帮助学生积极回应问题，增强其学习兴趣，得到了令人满意的教学效果。例如：

(III) T：谁喜欢过新年？

S：我喜欢！（学生举手）

T：啊，你喜欢过新年！

S：嗯。

T：为什么呢？过新年时你会做什么？

S：Because 是，因为，因为我们的妈妈和爸爸要…Err…给我那个 money。

例 (III) 中教师先提出了一个较为简单的参考性问题，当有学生立即举手表示肯定时，老师先用目的语重复并补充出完整的句子，接下来又提出了 2 个较为深入的参考性问题，亟需激发学生更深层次地参与课堂活动："过新年时你会做什么？"这个问题老师并未预设答案，学生则努力地用华语说出了他过新年时的经验。可见，参考性问题可以帮助教师鼓励和引导学生有效地参与课堂的互动讨论。

表 1 教师提问的类型

	问题总数	展示性问题		参考性问题	
		频数	百分比	频数	百分比
实验前	95	67	70.53%	28	29.47%
实验后	114	69	60.53%	45	39.47%

实验后教师在扫清字词障碍时较多地使用展示性问题，而在师生互动环节则更为注意制造信息差，多提让学生联系亲身经验、有话可说的参考性和开放性问题。表 1 的数据显示，教师提问中参考性问题的比例由实验前的 29.47% 增至 39.47%。

3.4 教师提问的互动调整策略

理解核实、确认核实和澄清请求是当师生双方的交流出现障碍时教师所采用的最重要的三种互动调整策略。教师通常分别通过这三种方式来询问对方是否听懂了自己的话、核实自己是否理解了对方的意思、及要求对方提供更多信息澄清自己的观点（Long 1983）。实验前，教师较多地使用理解核实，不时地询问学生是否能够听懂自己的语言，较少地使用确认核实和澄清请求。如例 IV：

(IV) T：林老师今天要教你们怎么把自我介绍弄得更长。

S：Oh, oh.

T：<u>Do you all know what I say？你们明白吗？</u>

S：（学生保持沉默）

T：No?

S：No.

实验过程中，教师除继续使用理解核实确认学生的理解情况、控制课堂外，也尝试使用确认核实（见例 V）和澄清请求（见例 VI），确认自己是否听明白学生的话，为学生提供线索，或要求学生提供更多的信息，促使学生自觉地进行话语修正并调整师生互动的进行。

(V) T：你为什么喜欢过新年？

S：因为我们的妈妈和爸爸要…Err…给我那个 money。

T：<u>啊？新年的时候会给你什么？</u>

S：Err…给我钱。

(VI) T：你的书包里有什么？

S：有西瓜。

T：<u>啊？有西瓜吗？</u>

S：不是，不是西瓜。我的书包里有铅笔。

3.5 教师反馈策略

对学生的课堂反应和表现作出反馈，是教师话语的重要内容之一。Nunan（1991）在进行了大量的研究后认为，教师给予学生积极的反馈更加有助于增强学习者的学习动机、信心。表 2 统计了实验前后教师在师生互动过程中针对学生回答所给出的各种类型的反馈。在本项研究

的过程中，教师有意识地减少了负面的评价以及直接纠正学生错误的方式，对学生的回答以鼓励、赞扬为主。此外，教师也更多地用重复和强调，以放慢语速配合夸张的动作和音调等办法强调正确的词语和句型等。实验前后教师所采用的肯定反馈分别为 6 次和 35 次，分别占反馈总数的 6% 和 27.3%；否定反馈分别为 31 次和 8 次，分别占反馈总数的 31% 和 6.3%；直接纠错则分别为 15 次和 6 次，分别占反馈总数的 15% 和 4.7%。这对加大目的语输入、促进学生有效话语输出有着积极的影响。

表 2　不同类型的教师反馈

	肯定		否定		纠错		重复强调		其它		总数
	频数	百分比	频数	百分比	频数	百分比	频数	百分比	频数	百分比	
实验前	6	6%	31	31%	15	15%	33	33%	15	15%	100
实验后	35	27.3%	8	6.3%	6	4.7%	59	46.1%	20	15.6%	128

4. 教师访谈结果及分析

表 3 实验前后教师访谈结果

	实验前	实验后
学生的华文口语程度如何？	学生全部来自讲英语家庭或异族，华语程度很差，几乎听不懂华文，平时全部用英语进行交谈。	超过一半的学生有明显的进步，开始主动用华语与同学沟通和互动，听得懂时能够回应。
上课时是否会使用英文。为什么？	几乎每一句都是英语，学生就是在专注地听英语。 学生华文程度太差，必须进行翻译，否则学生不明白。	指示语 60% 可以用华语。深奥的游戏规则可能还得用英语。或用动作示范或用画或用图片。 全用英语的话学生没有机会听到华语。
上课时如何提问？是否尝试多提开放性和真实性的问题？如果学生不会回答，会怎么做？	会提问，但每次提问都是那几个人回答，主要是考察他们是否学会了词语或句子。没有注意提问的类型。 在学生听不懂的时候，我会尽量用他们小一学习过的字、词来解释。	现在比较注重提问开放性的问题，能够从学生那里得来答案。 学生不会回答时，会调整问题的深度，也会针对不同的学生提问不同程度的问题。也可以把学生分成小组，想办法让他们先讨论再回答。
学生作答后，您是否给出反馈？如果有，如何反馈？	会给出反馈。 如果学生回答得特别差，我会以鼓励为主。	会给出反馈，但做得还不够全面。会鼓励，但针对性和全面性的评估做得还不够。当学生用英语回答或回答不正确时，会进行纠正。 尝试在学生的答案上进行追问，使话题延续下去。

学生上口语课时有兴趣吗?	学生对学习华语没有兴趣。没有特别安排口语课。	学生的反应有改变。上口语课参与度高,表现很积极,很有兴趣。

表 3 调查了本项研究完成前后,教师就学生的华文口语学习能力和兴趣、教师课堂用语以及提问和反馈策略等方面的看法,给出非常正面的评价。教师认为,实验前过于担心学生程度差听不懂因此几乎每句话都需要用英语翻译,而学生用英语作答时也因为害怕打击学生学习的积极性和自信心而不予指出,此外,教师的提问往往都是"明知故问",学生不仅较少发言,也没有机会联系自己的生活经验来表达看法。但是在实验进行过程中,教师总结了经验,尝试使用各种有利于互动的提问、反馈策略,加大课堂上目的与的输入量,增加互动机会鼓励和引导学生使用华语回答问题,结果大大加强了学生的参与程度,说华语时掺杂英语的情况也明显减少了。

5. 结语

本文运用质性研究与量化分析相结合的方法,考察了实验前后口语课堂中师生互动的话语交流语段,试图了解新加坡小学口语教学课堂中教师话语的使用现状,探询教师的话语策略对促进师生互动产生的效用。经过实验分析可以看出:

教师话语使用现状:在目前的小学华文导入班口语教学中,教师占据着课堂的主导地位,其话语量占全部课堂话语量的 82.73%;教师为配合考试往往更注重对朗读、语音语调的训练,而较为忽视课堂的交流和互动:由于担心学生程度不足,往往在课堂话语中掺杂大量英语而减少了目的语的输入;在提问方式上,教师常常是"明知故问",展示性问题明显多于参考性问题;在互动调整策略上,教师为保证对课堂的掌控,多运用理解核实来确认学生听懂了自己的话,而极少运用确认核实和澄清请求策略;针对学生应答,教师多给出否定反馈或直接进行纠错,而较少运用促进话题互动继续进行的肯定、重述强调、其它(提示、重述、延展)等反馈策略。

教师用语如何推动课堂互动:教师是目的语输入的主要来源。在语言教学过程中,尽可能多地增加目的语输入的剂量,将话语权适量地交给学生,可以帮助和鼓励学生在运用中习得语言;教师以更具启发性和话语生发潜力的参考性问题问题启动话题,能够有效地促使学生积极参与课堂讨论,增加学生有意义的话语输出;当师生交流出现障碍时,通过互动调整策略(尤其是确认核实和澄清请求策略)进行意义协商,能够及时调整师生互动的过程、提醒学生进行话语修正;针对学生的应答,相较于直接提供否定反馈或直接纠错,运用肯定、复述、提示或延展等反馈方法能够更有效地延伸对话,引导学生进行自我修正,鼓励他们更多地关注和参与课堂互动。

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意大利汉语初学者的学习偏误探析

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摘 要：当前，意大利国内正在学习汉语和学过汉语的人数约两万余人，其规模仍在不断扩大。如何提高汉语教学质量已为当务之急。不过中国学界目前比较重视教材建设和教师培养等外部因素，对学习者的研究却寥寥无几。外因通过内因起作用。为更好的提高意大利汉语教学质量，需系统研究该国汉语学习者存在的学习偏误。经过前期对意大利学习者和教师的问卷调查和访谈，发现意大利汉语学习者在语音和语法等方面存在一些具有普遍性的偏误，例如：语音上的"a、e"、一声和四声不分，语法上滥用"是"字句等现象。据此，本文提出一些教学法上的改进原则和具体操作建议，以就教于方家。同时，本文对其他母语源于拉丁语的汉语学习者也有一定的启发意义。

关键词：对外汉语教育，意大利汉语学习者，语音学习偏误，语法学习偏误，教学法

意大利国内学习汉语热潮的兴起，向对外汉语教育者提出了挑战。有效地提高汉语教学质量已势不容缓。在中国学界仍旧比较重视教材建设和教师培养等外部因素的情况下，对学习者研究的重要性已日益凸显。外因通过内因起作用。要提升意大利汉语教学效果，其汉语学习者存在的学习偏误就成为关键。

偏误分析又称错误分析，有很长的历史。早期的偏误分析主要是将常见错误搜集起来，从语言结构的角度进行归纳分类。偏误分析有助于对第二语言获得过程的了解，有助于对中介语的研究。它除了提供中介语发展情况的信息外，更重要的是能提供中介语获得的心理过程方面的信息，提供有用的线索来帮助了解学生是如何利用各种策略来简化学习任务和完成交际活动的。（注释1）

本研究资料来源于对40个意大利学生一学年的作业、考试情况分析以及个人访谈。本文尝试从语音、语法角度进行探究，并初步提出一些改进策略。文章挂一漏万，敬请方家指导。

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1. 语音学习上存在的偏误

众所周知，不管是中国人学习外语，还是外国人学习汉语，大多数人都会存在"洋腔洋调"的问题。不经过长期、刻苦的训练，这种"洋腔洋调"现象会伴随着所学外语的应用一直存在。究其根源在于，学习者受母语发音的影响。因此，要帮助意大利汉语初学者更好的掌握汉语拼音字母的发音，首先就要对两种不同语言的发音系统进行有针对性的比较，以借助母语发音进行正迁移影响，削弱其母语的负迁移影响。

意大利汉语初学者在语音上主要存在以下几方面的问题：

1.1 字母发音中的问题

意大利语是在公元 1200 年前后形成的。现代意大利标准语就是以托斯卡纳地区的方言为基础发展起来的。意大利字母有 21 个，其中元音字母有 5 个，即 a, e, i, o , u；辅音字母有 15 个，即 b, c, d,f, g , l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, z；5 个外来字母 j, k, w, x, y，以及一个不发音的字母 h。

在汉语中，有 6 个韵母字母，即 a, e, i, o , u, ü；有 18 个声母字母，即 b, p, m, f, d, t, n, l, g, k, h, j, q, x, r, z, c, s，以及用来拼写外来语、少数民族语言和方言的字母 v。下面就汉、意字母发音详情作一比较，详见表一。

除了字母所带的发音以外，汉语和意大利语还有一些独特的发音：

-- 汉语声母中还有 zh,ch,sh 的发音；同时，汉语有很多字母组合成的韵母， 即 ai,ei, ao,ou,an, en, ang, eng, ia, ie, iao,iou, ian, in, iang, ing, ua uo, uai, uei, uan, uen, uang, ueng, ong, üe, üan, ün, iong,er, 等。

-- 意大利辅音中还有 gn,gl,sc

上述所列汉、意字母是其不同的发音详细对照，从中我们可以看出两种语言发音的区别所在，它们极少有相同或交叉之处。

笔者从日常教学和学生的反馈中了解到，学生发音的难点在：首先，集中在字母 ü，包括 ü 组合字母的发音和 ,zh,ch,sh 上；其次，在 h,j,q,x,r 和鼻韵母 -ng 上；第三，略需注意的是 a,e 及其组合字母的发音。究其原因，主要是意大利语中没有以上发音或者发音不尽相同。因此我们在教学中应有针对性地对学生进行训练，例如：

-- 针对 ü 的训练。由于毗邻法国，不少意大利人对法语比较熟悉，汉语中的 ü 与法语中的 u 发音近似。如果学生不知道法语，我们则可以通过对 i 发音口型的变化来训练。ü 跟 i 发音部位气流均类似，仅是口型的有异。ü 比 i 发音时的口型相对较圆一些。据此，我们可以训练学

生通过不断的发 i 音，然后改变口型来获得 ü 的发音，继而进行 ü 组合字母的发音训练。

-- 针对 zh,ch,sh 的训练。首先通过图示法将舌位和气流方向让学生知道三个音的不同，并要求学生不断的模仿。为了增强模仿频率，可以通过将学生的中文名取为含 zh,ch 和 sh 发音的汉字的方法来加强训练。

-- 针对 h,j,q,x,r 和鼻韵母 -ng 的训练。这几个发音，不会太难，但由于意大利语中的发音不同，学生会出现母语负迁移的现象。因此，需要特别提醒 h,j,q,x,r 和鼻韵母 -ng 的发音，学生基本上能够掌握。例如 :h 在意大利语中不发音，汉语 h 的发音与英语 hi 中的 h 发音相同；j 在意大利语中是外来字母，汉语中的 j 与意大利语中的 gelato 中的 g 类似；q 与意大利语 cocci 中的 cc 相同，x 与意大利语 sciare 中的 sc 的发音类似；r 在意大利语中是颤音，在汉语中是擦音，因此不少学生在发汉语 r 的时候会出现大舌颤动的现象，在训练时，对此应特别强调，或举出英语中的 rosa 为例；意大利学生在发鼻韵母时常常把 ng 中的 g 发为 g ē ge(哥哥) 的 g，但是这个音本身对于他们来说没有问题。

--a,e 及其组合字母的发音训练。对于这个两个音，意大利学生主要存在开口度不够的问题，发出的 a 像 e，e 就变得含混不清了。这个只需特别强调并略加拼音训练，一般意大利学生都较易掌握。

总体来说，在这个阶段主要让学生多听、多说，辅以听写练习，就能使学生得到较快的提高。

1.2 . 声调的问题

跟其他国家的学习者遇到的问题一样，声调是语音中最难的部分。通常的情况下意大利汉语学习者中大多数能够分辨中国人读出某个字的声调，也能够模仿，但是他们自己读的时候就会"跑调"。其"跑调"主要表现在 (参见图一)：

-- 所有的发音都是同一个调，没有高低起伏，即中平调。部分学生自己却认为"有调"，还有部分学生因为觉得声调太难，就放弃对声调的学习、掌握，只希望通过所讲的词和语境让听众明白他在讲什么。

-- 一声 55 ，被发成 33。这个缺点普遍源于意大利语中只有重音和非重音的区别。学生觉得一声 55 很高就像唱歌。如果不是特别注意发音，学生就会偷懒将 55 降成 33。

-- 二声 35 也跟一声 55 一样，会被降调，发为 24。

-- 三声 214 则会被简化为拖长了的 24，或者发为二声或四声。

-- 由于整个音调下降了，所以四声 51 也就跟着变为 41 甚至 31 了。意大利学生通常认为自己的第四声没有问题，因为意大利语中有重音。但意大利语的重音是语气重，而不是声调从 5 度到 1 度，这样大幅下降。

-- 轻声的发音相对较为容易且准确些。

从上可以看出，意大利汉语学习者在声调发音上主要存在，不适应跳跃的音高而有意或无意的将其拉平声调的现象。

在初次的声调教学中，笔者首先让学生不断的模仿来产生声调的感性认识，然后给出五度音高图，让他们慢慢自己找调，产生理性认识。之后，通常会在黑板上画出右图，学生发音的时候，会据学生实情提示他们或需高一点儿，或需低一点儿，使他们自己能找到调。同时，还要求他们尝试用手势来控制自己的声调。经过反复训练，总结出每个学生容易犯错的地方，让他们模仿课文录音进行练习。在学生有声调控制感之后，进行绕口令练习。例如"妈妈骑马去赛马，马慢，妈妈骂马"等。经过这样的训练，学生五度音发音的正确方法就显得自然了。还可以借助多媒体教学工具，通过对学生发音录音的音频分析，可以让学生对自己的发音情况一目了然。

综上，笔者认为要有效地提高汉语教学质量，首先，两种语音的发音方法要注意区别：汉语发音时，发音器官通常肌肉放松，自然、显得较轻松，控制得当；意大利语发音时，发音器官肌肉约显紧张。意大利学生在进行成段表述的时候，容易出现过分用力的情况。这种情况与声调不分的情况又互相影响，形成一个恶性循环。因此在语音教学初期，我们不仅要进行基本的语音知识普及和练习，还要对中国的文化进行适度的介绍，例如观看油画、太极拳等让他们理解中国文化中优雅、舒缓、清淡、张弛有度的元素，以养成对汉语发音跳跃、轻快、灵活的意识。

其次，针对不同的学习对象和其学习目的，教师要调整对语音学习的要求。例如，笔者同时在意大利精英大学和社会班任教。精英大学里的学生非常优秀。社会班的学生中甚至还有六七十岁的老爷爷。笔者对前者的要求就比较高，但是对后者的要求就比较宽松。在初级阶段，保持学生对学习汉语的兴趣比过分要求语音准确性更为重要。

2. 语法学习上存在的偏误

意大利汉语学习者在语法的学习和使用上在一定程度上会受到母语负迁移的影响。以下例举部分有代表性的偏误作一说明：

2.1 滥用"是"字句

在意大利语中，没有形容词谓语句、名词谓语句和主谓谓语句。因此学生就出现了滥用"是"字句的情况。例如：

　　-- 这座城堡十分古老。意大利语是：Questo castello è（动词，是）antichissimo. 于是学生在

表达时就会说"这座城堡是十分古老"。这就显得语气上不完整。

　　-- 今天星期天。意大利语是：Oggi è（动词，是）Domenica. 学生在表达时会说"今天是星期天"。这里表意虽不别扭，但句型变了。

　　-- 你身体怎么样？意大利语是：Come Stai(动词，处于……状态)？学生在表达时会说"你身体是什么样？"这种说法表意既不明白，又有些别扭了。

2.2 误用"有"字句

　　在意大利语中，形容词一般与 avere(动词，有) 搭配出现，因此在汉语教学中，有时还会出现滥用"有"字句的情况。例如：

　　-- 我头疼。意大利语是：ho（动词，有）male di testa. 学生在表达时会说"我有头疼。"不仅表意不准确，且句式不完整。

　　-- 我饿了。意大利语是：ho（动词，有）fame. 学生在表达时会说"我有饿"。说话表达不明确，易发生歧义。

　　针对类似以上两种错误，笔者建议应多给学生做看图说话或者短文写作的练习，从中找出类似句子，加以分析，让他们自己感受、区别其不同点，以增加其印象。

2.3 语序混乱

2.3.1 表示时间的状语与补语顺序颠倒

　　例如：昨天我就应该结束工作。意大利语是：dovevo finire il lavoro ieri（昨天）. 由于受母语负迁移的影响，不少学生会说"我应该结束工作在昨天"，所言表意不明白；又如：九点钟开始上课。意大利语是：La lezione comincia alle nove. 学生就会说"上课开始九点"。

2.3.2 表示地点的状语位置不当

　　例如：我们在那家饭馆吃得很好。意大利语是：Noi mangiamo bene a quel ristorante. 学生就会说"我们吃饭吃得很好在那家饭馆"。

2.3.3 "跟……"介宾的位置错误

　　例如：我可能跟 Guido 去舞厅。意大利语是：forse vado in discoteca con Guido. 学生就会说"我可能去舞厅跟 Guido。"状语改补语表意不确切。

　　鉴于此，笔者认为首要任务是多给学生提供句子排序并对其分析练习。这样才能更好的让

学生掌握汉语的句法结构特点，使之尽可能的表意准确无误。

2.4 形容词使用中的一些问题

由于意大利学习者存在滥用"是"的情况，经过老师和学生自己的努力，逐渐克服了这个问题，随之新的问题又出现了。例如：学生开始说"他马虎"和"他忙"。

汉语中形容词在句子中做谓语时，习惯上不单独使用，通常在此类形容词前要加副词修饰，"非常"、"很"、"比较"、"有点儿"和"不"等。如"他很马虎，他有点儿忙或他不忙"这样才符合汉语约定俗成的说话习惯。

2.5 人称代词的重复使用

意大利语中的物主形容词使用得十分广泛。例如：io vivo con i miei genitori. 直译就是：我跟我父母住。这不符合汉语的说话习惯，通常的说法是"我跟父母住"。因此学生经常会说：今天晚上我跟我朋友出去玩儿；我跟我的同学们上学。

前面 2.4 和 2.5 存在的问题都可通过要求学生多做翻译练习和写作练习及句式表意分析来得到一些改进。

2.6 时态

意大利语源于拉丁语。拉丁语以其严谨闻名于世。同样，意大利语也继承了这个传统。其中最具有代表性的一点就是严格的时态系统。意大利语有八种时态，分别是：现在时、简单将来时、先将来时、近过去时、未完成过去时、近愈过去时、远过去时和远愈过去时。每种时态动词的变化都不一样。因此，在意大利语中，有时不用出现时间状语，仅凭动词不同的变位就能区别时态。因此，意大利汉语学习者在遇到想表达特定的时态时就会感到汉语的模糊性。

例如：在意大利语中，"Ho bevuto una tazza di tè verde"（我喝了一杯绿茶）通过动词 beverare 变化为 ho bevuto，可以知道，这是近过去时，也就是这件事儿刚刚发生过了，也许对现在还有一点儿影响。较为准确的中文表达应该是加上时间状语，例如"我刚才喝了一杯绿茶。"

"Avevo beveto una tazza di tè verde"（我喝了一杯绿茶）。动词 beverare 变化为 avevo beveto，可以知道，这是未完成过去时，也就是过去持续或经常重复发生的动作。较为准确的中文表达应该是加上时间状语和数量或频率补语，例如"我过去常喝绿茶。"

其他还有很多问题，比如形容词、动词的重叠，量词的使用，"的"的使用，"了"的使用、"把"字句等等。这都需要我们在教学实践中加以关注。

　　以上两方面的研究仅是一个尝试，还需要我们特别注意的是汉语教学中的文化因素。意大利文化与中国文化相比，有相当大的异质性。只有充分了解学生可能在语音、语法和文化方面存在的问题，才能充分、有效地推动意大利乃至全球汉语教育更好、更快的发展。

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注释

1 转引自 http://media.openonline.com.cn/media_file/rm/huashi0703/yuyanxgl/yyxgl52.htm

表一 汉语和意大利语字母发音表

韵母字母和元音字母	汉语	A[a]-t ā	O[o]-fó	E[e]-wéi [ɤ]-féng [ɛ]-yüè	I[i]-y ī	U[u]-w ū	ü[u]-yú
	意大利语	A[a]-lana	O[ò]–sòdo [ɔ]-dóno	E[e]-séme [ɛ]-sète	I[i]-nido	U[u]-luna	
声母字母和辅音字母	汉语	B[b]-bái	P[p]-pái	M[m]-m ā	F[f]-f ǎ	D[d]-du ō	T[t]tè
	意大利语	B[b]-bène	P[p]-papà	M[m]-mamma	F[f]-fama	D[d]-dópo	T[t]tòno
	汉语	N[n]-nà	L[l]-lái	G[g]-g ě i	K[k]-k ā i	H[h]-h ē	J[j]-j ī
	意大利语	N[n]-nònno	L[l]-luna	G[g]-góla			
	汉语	Q[tɕʻ]-quài	X[ɕ]-x ī	Z[ts]-zì	C[ts']-cì	S[s]-s ō u	R[ʐ]-rì
	意大利语	Q[kw]-quale		Z[ts]-pazzo [dz]-azzurro	C[k]-caro [tʃ]-cibo	S[s]-sole [z]-rosa	R[r]-raro

其它字母	汉语	Y[i]	W[u]	V[v]			
	意大利语			V[v]-vóto			

图一　五步音高图

Tones 声调shēngdiào

5 ——①——→ 5	55: 1st tone
4　　　4	35: 2nd tone
②　　④	
3　　　3	214: 3rd tone
2　　　2	51: 4th tone
③	
1　　　1	light tone
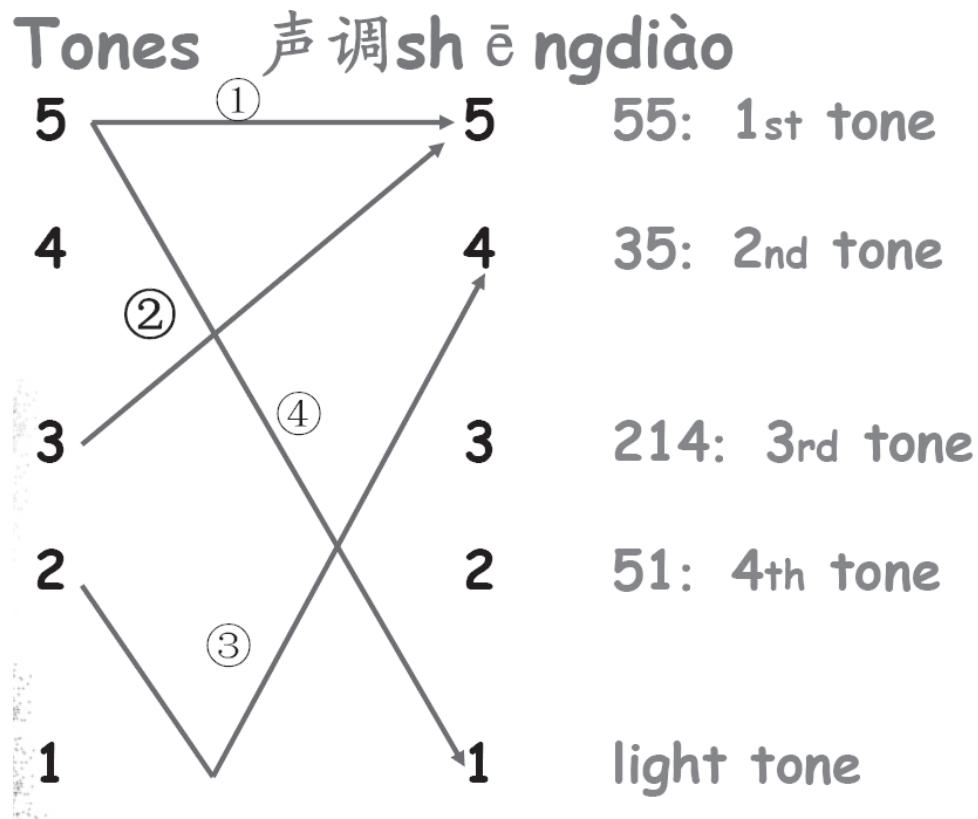
Teaching Lexicon Integrating
Focus on Form with Formulaicity

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Abstract

This paper reports the findings of an empirical study aimed at understanding which kind of instruction turns to be more effective to teach L2 near synonyms and couples or groups of words having the same translation in learners L1. Taking into consideration the well-established distinction between FonFs and FonF, we extended it to lexicon, integrating it with the recent research about lexis formulaicity. A pre-test/post-test research design involving 23 Italian learners of Chinese was carried out and a t-test analysis revealed that the combination of a Focus on Form and on Formulaic Instruction turned to be more effective than the traditional teaching method and than FonFs.

Keywords: Chinese as second language, lexicon, formulaic sequence, FonF, FonFs.

1. Introduction

The interest in Focus on Form Instruction (FFI) in SLA studies raised when from research findings it was clear that

a) instructed learners generally learn more rapidly and achieve higher levels of proficiency than

non-instructed learners (Long, 1983);

b) some linguistic structures do not ultimately develop to targetlike levels when classroom second language learning is entirely experimental and meaning-focused (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

In Italy, in particular at University level instruction, L2 Chinese is usually taught following a grammar oriented approach, with a special focus on translation tasks. Nevertheless, from students' oral and written productions it is evident a strong need for intensifying the attention to lexis and to word use. In particular, some Italian learners have difficulties in dealing with certain structures, that in Italian have one main translation. The differences in segmenting the meaning between Chinese and Italian lead students to make mistakes and confuse them, in particular when they do not pay attention to what precedes and to what follows.

Thus, contrastively to main research in FFI, our interest on this field did not start from a general question about what kind of instruction is more effective, but rather from a specific need to identify a more successful didactic approach to teach Chinese lexicon.

2. Background

Research on FFI developed according to several approaches. The variety of approaches is given by the interaction of different factors, such as attention to form or meaning and degree of planning and explicitness. Integrating these parameters a varied framework emerges, articulated as follows:

Table 1. Kinds of FFI

Type FFI	Syllabus	Primary focus	Distribution	Awareness
FonFs				
1. Explicit Focus-on-forms	Structural	Form	Intensive	Aware
2. Implicit Focus-on-forms	Structural	Form	Intensive	Unaware
FonF				
1. Planned Focus-on-Form	Task-based	Meaning	Intensive	Aware
2. Incidental Focus-on-Form	Task-based	Meaning	Extensive	Aware

Following Long's (1991), two main kinds of FFI should be distinguished: Focus-on-FormS (FonFs) and Focus-on-Form (FonF). FonFs involves a selection of linguistic structures based on the syllabus progression and their intensive treatment. The attention is therefore focused on the form. A typical structure of a FonFs lesson is usually organised on the 'PPP template', that is presenting the structure,

practicing it and producing it (Ellis, Basturken, & Loewen, 2002). According to the degree of explicit-ness, researchers usually distinguish between Explicit FonFs and Implicit FonFs: Explicit FonFs deals with an overt and direct teaching of a rule, addressed deductively or inductively, whereas Implicit FonFs, on the contrary, takes place without learners' awareness of what is being learned (DeKeyser, 1995).

In contrast, the heart of the FonF instruction is primarily meaning: indeed, the attention to form arises during a communicative and meaning-oriented activity. A tinier distinction is between Planned Focus-on-Form and Incidental Form-on-Form: the former involves the use of a pre-selected task, designed on purpose to elicit a given linguistic structure, whereas the latter involves the use of a task designed to elicit general samples of language and not a specific aspect. The Planned FonF is similar to FonFs as for the pre-selection of materials used during the lesson, but they differ according to the focus - on meaning and on form, respectively - and to the learners' role during the lesson - as users of a language in FonF and as learners of a language in FonFs (Ellis, 2001). Moreover, Incidental FonF is usually articulated in two kinds: Pre-emptive FonF, when the teacher or a learner draws the attention to a form considered problematic during a communicative task, even though no error is made, and Reactive FonF, when the teacher provides a negative feedback to a learner's error.

FFI is usually related to grammar teaching. In particular DeKeyser (1998), reporting (Ellis N. C., 1994), claims that FFI is not sufficient for pronunciation learning and may be not necessary for vocabulary learning, since he believes that it is possible to learn new words simply being exposed to input, as it usually happens to immigrants. However other researchers disagree with the 'default hypothesis' according to which most vocabulary in L2 is acquired from input, mainly reading input. Laufer (2006) criticizes all the assumptions laid behind this hypothesis; in particular she maintains that noticing new material is an essential condition for learning, since learners will not necessarily recognise unfamiliar words as such, or will get confused by homonyms, false cognates, or words with a deceptive structure (i.e. 'shortcomings' interpreted as 'short visits'). Moreover on noticing an unfamiliar word, it is not always the case that learners can infer its meaning from the context, since they may ignore the cues in the context for guessing the meaning or even may not know the meaning of the cues themselves. Besides, having guessed a new word, learners may not subsequently retain it, because they guessed it too easily to retain it. Finally, the idea that additional encounters of the word will increase the probability of retaining it is quite unpractical in classroom context since learners should be flooded with vocabulary in order to be sufficiently exposed to input.

For all these reasons Laufer (2003), together with other researchers (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Waring, 2003; Zahar, Cobb, & Spada, 2001) supports the idea that, since only a small number of L2 words can be picked up from just exposure without any vocabulary practice, vocabulary instruction

should also incorporate an FFI component. She proposes alternatively the following hypothesis: "in view of the special conditions which obtain in instructed language learning context, the main source of L2 vocabulary knowledge is likely to be word focused classroom instruction" (Laufer, 2005:321). As for grammar FFI, also form focused lexical instruction can be incidental or planned, can take place during a communicative task or in isolation.

Lexical instruction cannot exempt itself from considering the latest research about lexis and its formulaic nature. Starting from (Lewis, 1993, 1997), a lot of research has highlighted how knowing a word means also knowing the words it typically occurs with (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997; Carter, 1998; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2000). Relations between words can be more or less tight depending on the degree of fixedness. By the way, the idea of holophrases (Corder, 1973), prefabricated routines and patterns (Hakuta, 1974), formulaic speech (Wong&Fillmore, 1976), lexical chunks (Lewis, 1993) or formulas (Ellis, 1994) is so permeating SLA studies and, in particular, L2 vocabulary learning studies, that teaching vocabulary effectively seems not to have other way than relying on these patterns and on the way they are pieced together. More recently Wood (2010) underlines the importance of focusing not only primarily on meaning, and then on form, but also on collocational patterns and on formulas. This seems to be of crucial significance in particular when learners deal with the cases illustrated above.

A well-known and recent definition of formulaic sequence is the one formulated by Wray & Perkins (2000), according to which a formulaic sequence is "A sequence, continuous or discontinuous of words or other meaning elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar " (2000:1). Moreover Wray (2008:119-121) offers a set of criteria for identifying formulaic sequences related to different aspect of written and oral language:

1. There is something grammatically unusual about the word string;
2. All or part of the string lacks semantic transparency;
3. The string is associated with a specific situation or register;
4. The string performs a function other than or in addition to the meaning of its component words;
5. This formulation is typical of this speaker in conveying this idea;
6. This word string has an associated action, orthographic phenomena, or phonological pattern, and/or the speaker/writer is repeating something heard/read;
7. This word string has been marked grammatically or lexically to give it status as unit;
8. It is highly likely that the speaker/writer has encountered this precise formulation in com-

munication from other people;

9. While this string appears novel it is clearly derived from something which is formulaic;

10. This string is formulaic but unintentionally applied inappropriately;

11. This string contains linguistic material which is too sophisticated or not sophisticate enough to match the speaker's general competence.

This list of criteria is valid according to us for two main reasons. First of all because, given the problematic status of the concept of word in Chinese, it seems to fit very well since it does not rely on other theoretical aspect, difficult to define in a typological perspective. Secondly, because these defining criteria do not have necessarily to co-occur. Indeed, their interplay determines the degree of fixedness and of (dis)continuity of formulaic sequences.

3. Methods

3.1 RQs and Hs

The research question we started from was formulated to evaluate which kind of instruction turns to be more effective to teach near synonyms and couples or groups of words having the same translation in Italian. The hypothesis we wanted to verify was the effectiveness of integrating focus on form with formulaicity, giving therefore equal importance to meaning, form and collocational aspects of the words taken into account.

3.2 Participants

The participants were 23 Italian learners of Chinese, attending the second year of BA; all of them passed the first year examination of Chinese and have a competence corresponding to HSK level 2 (approximately A2 level of CEFR). Therefore, at the time of the experiment, all participants were identical in the curriculum they followed.

In particular, in each course of Chinese language at BA level, students have three teachers, two native speakers and an Italian one. For every of the three levels (first, second and third year), we provide every week lessons for a total amount of ten hours with the native speaker teachers and two hours with the Italian teacher. The two Chinese teachers have different linguistic targets: one of them is mainly concentrated upon pronunciation, writing and practicing lexicon and syntactic structures,

whereas the focus of the other one is instead the development of the communicative abilities. On the other hand, the Italian teacher explains grammar and guides students to develop their reading ability in Chinese and translation strategies into Italian. Obviously, the focus and the activities change according to the different competence levels, but, generally speaking, they can be summarised as follows:

Table 2. Chinese course organization

Teachers	Focus	Abilities
Italian teacher	Grammar, lexicon	Reading, translating into Italian
Chinese teacher A	Pronunciation, characters	Speaking, writing, translating into Chinese
Chinese teacher B	conversation	Speaking, listening

The textbook adopted by the Italian teacher and Chinese teacher A (Masini, Zhang, Bai, Di Toro, Liang (2006) *Il cinese per gli italiani*, Milano, Hoepli) is compiled by the staff of the Oriental Studies Institute of Sapienza University, and it is a book specifically designed for Italian learners of Chinese and it is quite grammar - oriented. The Chinese teacher B uses material drawn from different sources.

Each lesson of the book contains two texts, a dialogue and a brief description on/of the theme of the dialogue. The list of words after the texts contains the following information in this order: pinyin, characters, grammatical class, Italian translation, and two examples (only phrases, no sentences). Then supplementary words, lexical annotations, grammar explanations, characters and radicals explanations and exercises (divided into phonetic, grammatical, writing and translation exercises) are provided.

Chinese teacher A usually starts from explaining the list of words of the lesson, giving examples and reading the list of words on the book. Then she reads the two texts of the lesson, let students read and repeat the texts and gives them sentences to translate into Chinese, both in oral and in written form. The sentences usually focus on the grammar content of the lesson considered, such as aspectual particles, complements, *shi...de* construction and so on.

Italian teacher usually let the students translate into Italian the texts of the lesson, gives them other texts to read with similar lexicon and provides many examples in Chinese to illustrate rules and lexicon, trying, as far as possible, to let students deduce by themselves properties, regularities and rules.

As for the participants involved in this experiment, their attention is mainly concentrated on new grammar contents, such as verbal complements and particles. Therefore, although as it is known lexicon plays a key role in SLA, in this phase teachers and students tend to overlook meaning and usage of the words they encounter. Nevertheless, correcting students' homework, such as compositions and sentences, it was evident how many mistakes derive from the use of words, therefore our research

starts as an attempt to respond to such a practical need.

3.3 Materials

Nine target words were selected for investigation:

three near-synonyms adjectives: 高兴 *gāoxìng* 快乐 *kuàilè*, and 愉快 *yúkuài*, corresponding to the Italian translation '*felic*e'/ '*contento*' /'*allegr*o'[①];

two couples of verbs: 参观 *cānguān* and 游览 *yóulǎn*, corresponding to the Italian word '*visitar*e', and 了解 *liǎojiě* and 认识 *rènshi*, corresponding to the Italian '*comprender*e' and '*conoscer*e'[②];

two nouns: 时间 *shíjiān* and 时期 *shíqī*, corresponding to '*temp*o' and '*period*o'[③].

3.4 Procedure

A pre-test consisting of twenty sentences to fill with one of the above mentioned lexemes was distributed. Then participants were divided into three groups corresponding to the three different treatments, namely the traditional one (Group 1), focus on forms treatment (Group 2) and focus on form treatment (Group 3). To form the groups, students have been selected according to the results of the pre-test, avoiding to gather together only students who have obtained a similar result.

Group 1 (control group) was given no treatment at all, nor was provided any explanation of their errors. They continue the language programme following the traditional method mentioned above.

Group 2 (FonFs group), after the pre-test, was first given an explanation of each nine words, focusing attention on their different meanings, uses and correspondences to Italian translation. All these aspects were clarified by the Italian teacher in Italian, who also provided additional examples and information not contained in the textbook. Then, on a different day, they were given a filling exercise, similar to the pre-test. Therefore, according to research terminology they received an Explicit Focus on Forms instruction.

To the participants of Group 3 a text containing all the target words was provided. The students were requested to read the text and to answer five comprehension questions. Then the Italian teacher

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① The English translations we find in *Xiandai hanyu cidian- hanying shuangyu* are very similar, i.e.: 'glad, happy, cheerful' for *gāoxìng,* 'happy, joyful, cheerful' for *kuàilè* and 'happy, joyful, cheerful' for *yúkuài*. Nevertheless if we look at the Chinese explanations we read that *gāoxìng* means 'excited because happy', *kuàilè* corresponds to 'happy or satisfied' while *yúkuài* means 'pleased, elated'.

② The first two verbs are rendered respectively as 'visit, observe' and 'go sightseeing, tour, visit'. The objects selected by *cānguān* and listed in the bilingual dictionary are the following 'work achievements, utilities, facilities, places of interest', while the verb *yóulǎn* is often followed by nouns referring to 'places of historical interest and scenic spots'. The second couple of verbs *liǎojiě* and *rènshi* are respectively translated as 'understand, know, comprehend' and 'recognise, know'.

③ *Shíjiān* and *shíqī* correspond to 'time' and 'period of time'. The second often indicates periods of time having certain features.

let the students to infer by themselves the features and the differences among the items. Moreover, starting from the use of the target words in the text, participants attention was drawn to their collocational behavior, underlining, on one hand the most probable and frequent combinations, for instance *shēngrì kuàilè* (happy birthday), *yóulǎn míngshèng* (visit scenic spot) and, on the other, the semantic constraints they undergo as *yóulǎn gōngchǎng* (visit a factory), *liǎojiě yígè hànzì* (understand a Chinese character). After some days, the students had to complete an exercise similar to the pre-test and a week later students checked the results with the teacher reflecting on their mistakes. Therefore, according to research terminology they received a Planned Focus on Form instruction.

All students during the treatment continued to follow all the twelve hours of lesson per week as they usually do, so the treatments hours can be considered extra. The total amount of treatments is about 3 hours. All students, from all the groups, took part to the post-test consisting in twenty sentences to fill with one of the above mentioned target words plus nine sentences to form, each with one of the nine words. Dictionaries were not allowed at any stage of the investigation.

Table 3. Treatment organization

Group	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test
Group 1 Control Group	Fill-in-the-blank exercise	None	Filling-blank exercise and formulating sentences
Group 2 FonFs Group	Fill-in-the-blank exercise	Explanation of each lexeme, oral examples given by the teacher. Filling exercise.	Filling-blank exercise and formulating sentences
Group 3 FonF Group	Fill-in-the-blank exercise	Reading and comprehension. Regularities deduced by the students. Fillining exercise.and revision with the teacher	Filling-blank exercise and formulating sentences

3.5 Analysis

As described above, both pre-test and post-test were made of 20 sentences to be filled in; each correct sentence was scored 1 for a total of 20 scores. Since data were normally distributed (according to Kolmogorov-Smirmov test, pre-test: Group 1 $p = .08$, Group 2 $p = .057$ and Group 3 $p = .2$; post-test Group 1 $p = .2$, Group 2 $p = .14$ and Group 3 $p = .2$) t-test was ran three times in order to check significativity among the test results obtained before and after the treatment.

Moreover, in the production test we qualitatively analysed the use of the target words.

4. Results

Table 4 presents the results of Group 1, the control group. As can be seen from Table 4, participants obtained higher scores in the post-test, but the difference between the two means was not significant (t [6] = -1,87, p > .05, $\eta2$ =.36).

Table 4. Figures for Group 1

Group 1	N	M	SD
Pre-test	7	13.29	1.25
Post-test	7	15.29	1.98

Table 5 presents the results of Group 2, the FonFs Group; the pre-test mean and the post-test mean differed slightly and, indeed, there was not a significant difference between them (t [7] = - .497, p > .05, $\eta2$ =.03).

Table 5. Figures for Group 2

Group 2	N	M	SD
Pre-test	8	16,38	.91
Post-test	8	16,75	2.44

Table 6 presents the results of Group 3, the FonF Group; as can been seen participants outper-formed in post-test, the difference between the two means was significant (t [7] = -3.529, p < .05, $\eta2$ =.64).

Table 6. Figures for Group 3

Group 3	N	M	SD
Pre-test	8	14,63	2.2
Post-test	8	16,25	2.12

The results of the post-test concerning the production part, i.e. the nine sentences to make, reveal that Group 1 main difficulty consists in using the word *liǎojiě*, which is often wrongly used as *dǒng*, probably because the Italian correspondent word given in the list of the textbook is ‘*comprender*e’ (understand), and such an indication without further explanations turns to be misleading for the students, who produce sentences such:

（1）＊他　没　了解　今天　的　汉语　课

He not understand today nom Chinese lesson

Ne didn't understand today's Chinese lesson

（2）＊我　不　了解　这　个　汉字　的　意思

I not understand this cl character nom meaning

I don't understand the meaning of this character

Four out of seven students misused this word and one left it blank, revealing to fail to control this word. *Liǎojiě* is wrongly used also in the filling part of the post-test as the words *cānguān* and *shíqī*.

Very different are the sentences produced by Group 2, which shows that only one student out of eight misuses the word *liǎojiě*, whereas some students did not formulate any sentences, mainly with *shíqī*, *yóulǎn* and *yúkài*.

Also students of Group 3 did not misuse the word *liǎojiě* and, as Group 2, the word mostly left without sentences, is *shíqī*.

4. Discussion and conclusion

Recalling the results of the t-tests, generally speaking we are led to confirm the hypothesis according to which a Focus on form instruction with a special insight on formulaicity seems to be more effective than traditional and inductive kind of instruction.

Looking more closely the results of the filling part of the post-test, we can notice how adding information (Group 2) and let students reflect (Group 3) about the lexeme usually selected by the verbs *cānguān* and *yóulǎn* was beneficial for the students of Groups 2 and 3. Since the words *yúkuài*, *liǎojiě* and *shíqī* do not present the same degree of regularity in formulaicity as far as the preceding and following lexemes are concerned, the improvements in the use of these words are still not very relevant, although the number of mistakes is lower in Group 2 and 3 than in Group 1.

As for the sentence formulation part, since Group 2 in some cases did not formulate any sentence with *shíqī*, *yóulǎn* and *yúkuài* we deduce that students at the post-test phase still find these words problematic. This is partly confirmed by the filling part of the post-test, since the three words with the highest number of mistakes are just *shíqī*, *liǎojiě* and *yúkuài*. This holds true also for Group 3: from the mistakes done in the filling part of the post-test the two still confusing words are *yúkuài* and *liǎojiě*.

In conclusion we can confirm the hypothesis we started from: adopting focus on form instruction and giving at the same time importance to meaning, form and collocational aspects of the words, turns to be an effective way to teach Chinese lexicon, at least better than the traditional one. Much more has

to be done in this field, in particular at higher levels of linguistic competence, to let students get over the hump of Chinese lexicon, as rich as difficult to master. We have just started from some lexemes particularly difficult for Italian learners without considering the oral competence: it would be also useful, for instance, to individuate which kind of words, apart from the typology we took into account, namely those having one main counterpart in Italian, turns to be problematic, why it is so and which kind of didactic material is preferable to use. We hope to investigate these aspects by further research.

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Corpora for Mandarin
Chinese learning: a data-driven approach

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Acknowledgments

Abstract

Recently, there have been many studies on data-driven learning (DDL) for English. Little research has focused on DDL or other corpus-based approaches for Chinese learning. This is surprising, given the otherwise large choice of ICT applications, including online dictionaries, flashcards and character writing software: certainly people wish to learn Chinese with the aid of computers.

Certain features of Chinese render it especially suited for a data-driven approach. In DDL, learners normally explore patterns *among* words, but cannot delve into the structure of words using a corpus tool. We show how the nature of Chinese allows the learner to investigate the ways that characters/ morphemes pattern to form words.

We offered several corpus-based tasks to intermediate-level Mandarin learners, in an international

university in China. The tasks were presented as supplements to traditional-communicative conversation classes. We describe these tasks, as well as some of the corpora and corpus interfaces used in our approach.

Keywords: Data-driven learning, learner autonomy, Chinese as a foreign language, corpus linguistics, Sketch Engine.

1. Introduction

The use of corpora and data-driven learning has been widespread in language teaching and learning for many years now. The importance of deriving language dictionaries, grammars and teaching materials from authentic sources is widely accepted. Since Johns (1991), the value of autonomous, student-centred language learning has been much discussed, with most scholars agreeing that the use of corpora is a mainstay of learner autonomy and task authenticity. The use of linguistic corpora in language learning often takes the form of concordance analysis by students, or data driven learning (DDL). Johns (1991) likens the language learner (on the DDL model) to a researcher, analysing target language data and becoming familiar with the language through the regularities and consistencies encountered. Early users of DDL include Aston (1995), who assembled small corpora from CD-ROM collections of texts (on murder stories and hepatitis, among other topics), and assigned exercises on collocation and grammatical patterns on these topics. Tribble (1997) demonstrated so-called "quick and dirty" ways to assemble 30-40 thousand word themed corpora, using the Microsoft Encarta software. According to research (e.g. Bernardini, 1997; Cheng, Warren, & Xu, 2003), DDL can lend a strong sense of achievement to the serendipitous linguistic discovery experienced by some learners.

1.1 Literature review

Of over 70 empirical studies of corpus use in the classroom located by Boulton (2010), "The results are overwhelmingly favourable, the vast majority of studies finding learners (and teachers) responding positively to the approach, with very rare exceptions". Most studies examined by Boulton, moreover, were "encouraging" with regard to the learning outcomes of the DDL approach. A large proportion of DDL research and teaching practice, however, has been on English, given that language's position as international lingua franca. Chinese is also an emerging and widely studied world language, and many corpora of various sizes and purposes are available on the web and elsewhere (Chen and Huang, 2000; McEnery and Xiao, 2004; Sharoff, 2006). These resources have been used

in dictionary production (Xiao, Rayson, and McEnery, 2008) and grammatical exposition (Xiao and McEnery, 2004).

There have been some pilot studies on the use of authentic resources in Chinese, but corpora have not been used extensively for language teaching and learning. In one example, Wang (2001) developed a Chinese-English parallel corpus (a corpus where all the documents from one language are translated into the other). Wang uses extracts from the corpus to demonstrate differences between the English "now" and Chinese 现在. Students find that not only are there differences in shades of meaning, but the grammatical contexts in which they are used vary too.

Tao (2005), as part of the CALPER (Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research) project at Penn State, developed a 300000-word corpus of authentic examples of contemporary spoken Chinese. These materials were used to teach the features of natural conversation to advanced students, and to emphasize aspects of grammar such as the correct use of the particle 了.

1.2 Setting for this work

Despite the efforts of the above-mentioned Chinese corpus researchers, take-up of corpus approaches and DDL in Chinese teaching has been limited. One reason for this is that many Chinese teaching institutions are constrained to a highly traditional teaching model. Often as a result of institutional policy on curriculum and materials, and because of the content of available textbooks, teachers of Chinese may adopt what in the EFL world would be seen as rather outdated methods, including pattern drilling, repetition and memorization. Another difficulty is that longer serving teachers may have become set in their ways, preferring known and trusted techniques, and taking up new approaches only reluctantly. Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University (XJTLU), Suzhou, where we are currently piloting materials, does not suffer from these constraints. As part of a western style, research-led university, we are free to adopt the materials and approaches that teachers and team leaders deem appropriate, including task-based, corpus-based and other novel approaches to learning, taking into account the genuine needs of students. The same is true of Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, and the Liverpool Confucius Institute, where we are planning to conduct more far-reaching pilot studies with much larger groups of students than are available at XJTLU.

At XJTLU, almost all subject department courses are delivered in English. Students also take intensive EAP classes, taught by a 70-strong staff of native and non-native English speaking teachers. Nearly all students are from China, but there are some international students, mostly from Indonesia, who are required to take some credits in Chinese language.

A number of existing web platforms provide various corpus use functions for learners of English

and other alphabetic languages; one of the best known is Tom Cobb's Compleat Lexical Tutor, at www.lextutor.ca. We are not aware of any similar platforms for Chinese, but the Sketch Engine corpus query tool (SkE; Kilgarriff et al, 2004) is a useful DDL solution, having been successfully used in English classrooms by Smith (forthcoming) and Thomas (2008). SkE has some functions which can make corpus data more accessible to language learners than simple concordancing. The tool offers access to a large number of corpora in many languages, including the British National Corpus for English, and very large web corpora. For simplified Chinese, as used in mainland China, two corpora are available: the Gigaword Chinese corpus (250m tokens; Graff et al, 2005), and Internet-ZH (278m tokens; Sharoff, 2006). Gigaword consists of newswire texts published by the Xinhua Chinese news agency, and therefore represents a journalistic style of Chinese. Internet-ZH is a web corpus, with a relatively high proportion of blog and forum content, so is more representative of ordinary language.

In this paper, we describe a number of corpus-based tasks, which make use of two of the special SkE functions, Sketch Differences and Word Sketches, as well as some modifications to traditional concordancing. These tasks can be used as supplements to traditional textbook themed units. Tasks corresponding to Wang & Shen (2008) units 17 (weather), 18 (health) and 20 (transport) were prepared, as well as Qiu et al (2008) unit 19, which is about hiking. A brief lecture about the use of corpora in language learning was given before starting, and some introductory tasks using English and Indonesian corpora (not described here) were assigned for initial practice.

2. Corpus tasks and learners

Two groups participated in this study, an international student group of 8 and a foreign teacher group (attendance varied between 3 and 10). The students were all 2nd and 3rd Year students from Indonesia, mostly majoring in business or finance. They were of intermediate level, with some literacy skills, and had all been studying Chinese for at least two years (in some cases, before they arrived in China). The teachers were also of intermediate level, but not all of them were interested in learning to read and write.

The following sections describe the tasks in some detail. We used Gigaword for Tasks 1 and 2, Internet-ZH for Tasks 3 and 4, and the Academia Sinica Balanced Corpus (Chen and Huang, 2000; not available on) for Task 5.

2.1 Corpus task 1: Please compare the use of 结果 *and* 后果 [both meaning *consequence* or *result*]*, and find example sentences.* These two words were selected because they are near synonyms, but with very different semantic prosody. The use of the corpus helps the learner to differentiate between

the two, also giving an example of two similar words that share one morpheme.

The learner can complete this task by using two functions of Sketch Engine, Sketch Differences and the traditional concordance. The Sketch Differences output in Figure 1 shows the different collocational properties of two words meaning *result* or *consequence* (see Xiao and McEnery, 2006). Those words shown in green are more likely to collocate with 后果 , which has a negative connotation, while the red backgrounded items are more likely to pair with the more neutrally oriented 结果 . The learner will see immediately, for example, that 后果 tends to collocate with items such as 严重 (*serious*)，可怕 (*frightening*)，危险 (*dangerous*), and is frequently the object of the negatively oriented 造成 (*cause* [unpleasant consequence]). 结果 is associated with 比赛 ([results of] a *match*), 投票 (*election*), 满意 (*satisfactory*) and 公布 (*announce*).

Clicking on the blue link indicated by the ellipsis (871 is the frequency of the collocation in the corpus) takes the user to a concordance of sentences from the corpus in which 后果 is the object of 造成 , as shown in Figure 2.

We do not, of course, expect intermediate learners to be able to read and understand every sentence in the concordance. Instead, we hope that they will look at the collocations and absorb some of the recurring patterns. We also set some general questions about the concordance, for example

In the first concordance line, where and when did the events take place? [New Year's Day; Rhode Island]

In the fourth from last line, starting 美国…, what is 国务院 ? How about 发言人 ? [State Department; spokesperson]

Learners can make an educated guess at the answers and confirm by looking them up on the web. Discovering this information as part of an attempt to understand an authentic (admittedly very short) text means that the new knowledge is likely to be retained, we believe. Also, it may inspire learners to ask themselves questions about particular words or structures they encounter; indeed, one activity we found effective was to ask learners to create questions based on concordance output for their peers.

2.2 Corpus task 2: Please study the Word Sketch for 吃 [*eat*]. *Classify the objects into several categories, and study example sentences in the concordance.* The task deals with a familiar word from basic vocabulary, but which nevertheless has very interesting collocational properties and is therefore a good candidate for corpus study.

Figure 3 shows the most salient and frequent collocations in which the verb meaning *eat* occurs in this particular corpus, presented by grammatical relationship with the keyword. It is of interest that the most salient collocation is 吃药 [*take medicine*]. The objects can be classified by the learner into items that are literally consumed (饭、肉 [*rice/food*; *meat*]), metaphors (亏、大锅饭), and items that are not genuine objects but have been interpreted as such by the software (顿 [measure word for a meal,

normally followed by 饭 ; 吃水难 [a noun compound meaning *water shortage*]. Again, clicking on the links takes the user to the example sentences for each collocation.

2.3 Corpus task 3: Find out the usual measure words for the following nouns occurring in Unit 19: 石头、 山、 路 [*stone, mountain, road*]. It was desired to include a measure word task. Many nouns take a generic measure word 个 ; these are three examples of very frequent nouns that do not generally take 个 .

Chinese nouns are usually preceded by measure words (量词 , also known as classifiers) in the same way as rather marginal English cases such as *head* (of cattle) or *sheet* (of paper). The correct measure word varies from noun to noun, and therefore a nouns and the appropriate measure word have a strong collocational relationship. Measure words may also sometimes follow the noun, yielding a form similar to the plural in English.

Using a noun with the wrong measure word sounds unnatural, so learners are well motivated to learn the correct forms. Measure words learned through a process of research and discovery, rather than memorized from a list, are more likely to be retained. To answer the question, learners have to enter a corpus query language (CQL) command to request a concordance of all measure words in the corpus with the noun required. For example, they could enter [tag="q"] "石头" (q is the POS tag for measure word).

An extract from the resulting concordance is shown in Figure 4 (in total it is 99 pages long). The learner will notice from the first page that 块 appears to be the most common classifier by far. The generic classifier 个 , in the three instances where it occurs before the noun, refers to larger noun phrases that happen to include the following 石头 (for example in the third to last line in Figure 4, the reference is to "two people who looked as cold or expressionless as stone" . By inspecting this and later pages in the concordance, the learner may discover that the less common measure word 颗 is likely to refer to a smaller stone or pebble, often the kind that one might throw. To call up solid statistics on measure word usage in the corpus, the learner then requests a "Node forms" display, as shown in Figure 5.

The display shows that 块 is far and away the most usual measure word preceding *stone*. The learner may wish to reflect on why certain other measure words might appear (and can of course click on a link to a concordance for that collocation). The measure word 堆 would refer to a *pile* of stones, 种 to *types* or varieties of stones, and 些 to *several* stones, for example.

2.4 Corpus task 4: Please find frequent words which include character X. In this task, X is 果 : an interesting morpheme which participates in two types of compounds, representing concrete and abstract nouns.

Certain features of the Chinese language make it especially suited to a data-driven approach.

In DDL, learners typically explore collocational and colligational patterns among words, but would not expect to be able to look at the internal structure of words using a corpus tool. The logographic Chinese writing system, however, allows the learner to investigate the ways that characters/morphemes pattern to form words. Most Chinese corpora (certainly those annotated with part of speech) are segmented into Chinese words (词) of one, two or more characters (字); but Chinese learners normally treat *characters* as the minimal unit to be learned, often memorizing the written form, and studying the words (often with related meanings) that the newly learned character participates in. It is as if an EFL learner were to learn new neoclassical compounds (such as *biology*, *biography*, *telegraphy*, *telescope*, *microscope*) by predicting and discovering meaning from compounds with the same prefix or suffix as others studied earlier.

Thus it is useful for learners using corpora to be able to call up a concordance for a particular character, and see which words come up, how they are used, and what their relative frequencies are. This function has been recently implemented in the SkE Chinese corpus interface.

In Figure 6, the reader will notice the two words meaning *result* from Corpus Task 1. In fact 果 has the core meaning of *fruit*, which (as with the English expression *bear fruit*) also carries the sense of *result*. An interesting exercise for the learner, here, would be to determine which of the corpus examples are of the edible sort, and which are abstract. The learner can also request the "node forms" display, as per Figure 7 (perhaps predicting, before so doing, which word containing 果 will turn out to be the most common—as you the reader may wish to do before glancing down).

By far the most frequently occurring word, then, is that meaning *if*, followed by the neutral result word 结果 (it can also be used as a conjunction meaning *with the result that*). As low as seventh in frequency is *apple*, followed by the standard word for *fruit*, with 后果 (the "negative consequence" of Corpus Task 1) in ninth place.

2.5 Corpus task 5: Please identify the verb in these verb+object constructions. The choice of constructions here was actually motivated by order of appearance in the corpus. This explains why some not very useful items such as 当丘 appear in the concordance; we will rewrite this task to explore a concordance ranked by frequency.

There is an important class of morphosyntactic structures in Chinese known as V+O compounds (离合词). In fact, some members of this class have already been seen in Corpus Task 2: 吃饭 means literally *eat rice*, but has come to mean eating a meal which may very well not include rice. The verb and object components of a V+O compound can be contiguous, in which case corpus segmentation algorithms treat the compound as a discrete word. The components may also be separated by the aspectual particles 过 or 了 , yielding 吃过 / 了饭 , as well as certain other types of material.

In the Academia Sinica Balanced Corpus (Chen and Huang, 2000), available only in traditional

characters and on a web platform separate from that of SkE, the two components of V+O compounds are assigned a special tag [spo] or [spv]. It is possible to make a concordance of items with these tags, as shown in Figure 8.

In the first line, the V+O compound is 教书 *teach* (literally *teach book*). In the concordance line, information about the time (4 months) spent teaching is given between the two components. The second line refers to 上课 (to go to class). This time, the inserted material is a pronoun indicating which teacher's class is being attended by students. The task is for students to find the verb component; in order to achieve that, the learners will have to understand what kinds of material are, and can be, inserted between the two components.

The five corpus-based tasks described above motivate students to learn through reflection and discovery. We followed Boulton (2009) in keeping the instructions clear, the tasks simple, and the focus on acquiring language rather than learning about corpus linguistics (apart from a short introduction), as well as maintaining links with the textbook units being followed in the rest of the course. The questions are quite closely specified, and there are clear tasks to work on; however, there are many opportunities for motivated learners to go beyond the questions and discover the language for themselves.

3. Conclusions

3.1 Limitations

One limitation was that we did not have enough student participants to be able to conduct an effective pilot study. The tasks could not be a part of any credit-bearing study, so they were taken up by only a small number of keen volunteers. Most of these volunteers did, however, complete the tasks successfully, while reporting that they were both challenging and interesting.

It was pointed out above that Chinese study lends itself well to DDL because of aspects of its structure. One disadvantage, though, is that because of the challenging nature of the writing system, many students opt not to learn to read or write at all. This is regrettable, since it is clear that the lack of written input will impair the acquisition of speaking and listening skills, but it is a fact. There are some corpora available in Hanyu Pinyin transcription, such as the Lancaster Corpus of Mandarin Chinese (McEnery and Xiao, 2004) and the parallel corpora of Wang (2001), but for learners to derive any real benefit from corpus consultation, solid literacy skills are essential.

3.2 Future plans

We will provide training in the use of corpus interfaces to teachers and students in Xi'an and Liverpool. We will continue to produce a variety of tasks and exercises that will challenge and interest students, motivating them to learn autonomously and inductively.

We will conduct a mixed methods study, using a combination of pre and post tests and feedback questionnaires, to establish the success or otherwise of our approach in a scientific way. Research questions will include:

- What domains of Chinese motivate students most (academic, business, cultural, general)?
- To what extent does the use of corpora help with learning in each domain?
- Does corpus use help with acquisition of grammar? Vocabulary?
- Does corpus use reinforce perception of collocations and patterns?
- Is learning through serendipitous discovery successful, or must exercises and tasks be explicitly provided for acquisition to take place?

3.2.1 Sketch Engine as a DDL platform

In addition to the functions reported above, Sketch Engine has a number of other features which could be turned to the advantage of the Chinese learner, and use will be made of these in future task development. There is, for example, a distributional thesaurus, which shows which words commonly occur in the same context as a user-supplied keyword, and are likely to be near synonyms of that keyword.

Concordances themselves are enhanced by the availability on SkE of a sentence mode, as well as the traditional KWIC mode, so that more may be gathered from the context. When accessing SkE's English corpora, concordance lines can also be ranked by quality using the GDEX ("good dictionary example") feature: a "good" example sentence is defined by Kilgarriff et al (2008) as one which is neither too short nor too long, which doesn't contain a lot of rare words or anaphors (which can sometimes only be resolved by looking outside the sentence), and is constrained by a few other parameters specified by the team. This feature is available for English corpora under SkE, but not currently for Chinese.

Although there are two Chinese corpora available on SkE, only the Gigaword newswire corpus offers the full functionality of SkE, with Word Sketches, Sketch Differences and the statistical thesaurus. The other corpus, Internet-ZH, has access to concordances only. In collaboration with the Sketch Engine team, we will make the additional functions available in due course.

Braun (2005) notes that corpus annotation schemes, for example for part of speech, are aimed at corpus specialists, and are often too complex for the needs of learners. Certainly the Gigaword and Internet-ZH do have a large number of tags, distinguishing for example many different types of nouns and verbs, and it is not especially convenient for the learner to have to type these in (as, for example, was necessary in our Corpus Task 3). In a development currently being implemented by the SkE team, it will be possible to request a concordance based on a keyword followed or preceded by an item belonging to a POS specified by the user, from a simplified list (noun, verb, measure word and one or two others) presented as a drop-down menu.

DDL and corpus methods have growing currency in English language teaching and learning, but are as yet virtually unknown for Chinese. In this paper, we have shown some examples of DDL exercises for Chinese, and have plans to extend and evaluate their use, expanding the repertoire of corpus-based teaching methods available, and making a contribution to autonomous and learner-centred Chinese study.

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Figure 1 Sketch Differences for 结果 and 后果

Figure 2 Concordance for 后果 as the object of 造成

Figure 3 Word Sketch output for 吃

Figure 4 Concordance output for measure words followed by [*stone*]
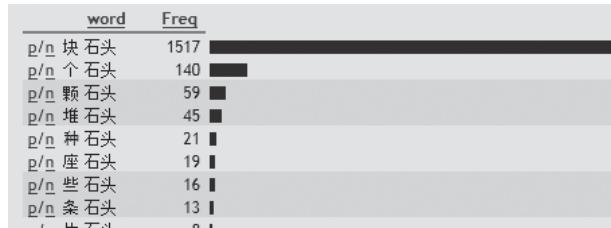
Figure 5 Node forms frequency display

Figure 6 Concordance of words including character 果
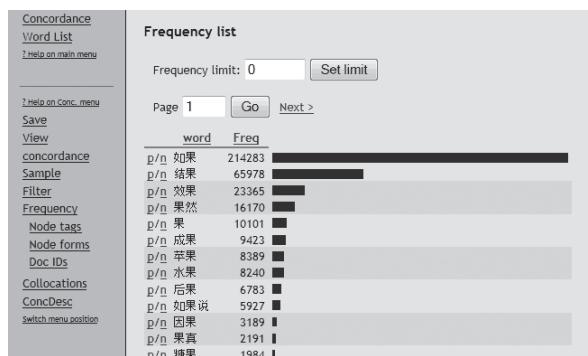
Figure 7 Node forms frequency display

　　：「去年吳大猷先生回來教了四個月的書，寫了一封長信給我說，台灣大學學生，
信給我說，台灣大學學生，尤其是上他的課的學生真是可愛。在他教書的四個月中，
　之後，在第三個五年計畫一開始便脫了線。在第三個五年計畫的架構下，我們籌設
此問題），當然也可以是某一個經絡受了傷，尤其是傷及筋骨，那麼此經絡的共振
幹就幹，管它流血流汗！」這是許多當過兵的男孩子所耳熟能詳的一首軍歌，也正是
　　的迷惑，使我憂心，也曾下了很大的決心與努力，到全省各地給中學生演講、
　這時在做什麼。但總不寬心地，想撥個電話。想念，如歲月的河流，湍湍地流入
　，但也不能被沉重的歷史壓迫得翻不了身。這就是當代藝術的困難處。」從方法論
人的無心的捉弄，廣告末，則是三人回過頭來，燦爛的一笑而收尾。不禁令我陷入
　是一個打了敗仗的士兵，掩著一把生了鏽的步槍，孱弱地走著。好幾次她走得太過
　子、集、詩、書、音律，他都下過一番功夫，其中對朱熹哲學鑽研最深。他親自
有二十五年時間躲在深宮之內不見外人的面，完全不理國事，連內閣首輔也見不到他

Figure 8 Sinica Balanced Corpus V+O compound concordance extract (Chen and Huang, 2000)

保加利亚学生汉语学习策略研究

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摘　要：本项研究旨在了解保加利亚学生的汉语学习策略，以期进一步促进保加利亚汉语教学。本文在综述汉语学习策略研究情况的基础上，通过问卷调查和数据分析，结合访谈和教学观察，得出了保加利亚学生的汉语学习策略的特点，并据此提出一些汉语教学建议。

关键词：汉语学习策略，保加利亚大学生研究生，保加利亚中学生

1. 研究背景

1.1 关于学习策略研究的背景

语言教学包括教师的教和学生的学两个部分，两者相互作用。自从 Harry·Harlow 提出了"学会学习"和 Jerome·Bruner 提出了"认知策略"这一概念以来，语言教学的研究角度不再仅仅只是关注教师的教，同时也开始关注学生的学。1 关于语言学习者的学习策略研究自此兴起，特别是上个世纪九十年代以来，关于语言学习策略的研究日益增多。

1.2 关于汉语学习策略研究的情况

从广义上说，第二语言是指习得了母语以后又学习的其他语言。2 本文提及的汉语学习策略是指汉语作为第二语言的学习策略。

1.2.1 汉语作为第二语言的学习策略研究概况

汉语作为第二语言的学习策略研究始于上个世纪九十年代，它以曹乃云（1994）所著论

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文《外国人如何学中文》为标志。该文以德国籍汉语学习者黎山为研究对象，进行了个案研究。此后，越来越多的研究者也进行了颇有价值的汉语学习策略研究。有一些学者对来自同一地区的汉语学习者进行了学习策略研究，比如：洪丽芬（1997）对马来西亚学生；保坂律子（1998）、孙俊（2005）对日本学生；Ke（1998）、鲁洲（2005）对美国学生；周磊（2004）、钱玉莲（2006,2007）对韩国学生；李雅梅（2005）对泰国学生；Roldán（2010）对西班牙学生进行了汉语学习策略研究。还有一些学者对来自不同地区的学生进行了汉语学习策略研究，比如杨翼（1998）、徐子亮（1999，2002）、江新（2000）、江新和赵果（2001）、李丽娜 (2004)、吴勇毅和陈钰（2006）、那剑（2007）、吴勇毅（2007）、郭志岩（2010）等。这些研究对于在非目的语环境下和目的语环境下开展汉语教学都提供了有说服力的数据和建议。

1.2.2 保加利亚汉语教学情况和汉语学习策略研究情况

保加利亚的汉语教学始于上世纪五十年代，它以朱德熙和张荪芬两位先生在索菲亚大学开始教授汉语课为标志。3 目前，汉语教学主要在保加利亚三所国立大学和三所国立中学常规进行，还有几家机构和培训班开展小规模的汉语培训。学习汉语的总体人数概有四五百人左右。今年下半年又将有一所大学和两所中学开设汉语课，学习汉语的保加利亚人日渐增多。了解保加利亚学生的汉语学习策略无疑将有助于该国汉语教学。尽管关于汉语学习策略的研究与日俱增，但是保加利亚学生的汉语学习策略却无人问津。本研究旨在了解保加利亚学生的汉语学习策略，以期进一步促进保加利亚汉语教学。

2. 研究问题

本文研究的问题是：（1）保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的总体情况如何？（2）保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的具体特点是什么？（3）保加利亚大学生研究生汉语学习策略的具体特点是什么？（4）保加利亚中学生汉语学习策略的具体特点是什么？（5）保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生汉语学习策略的具体特点有何异同？

3. 研究方法

本研究采取问卷调查、访谈和教学观察相结合的方法。被试都是在保加利亚学习或者学习过汉语的研究生大学生和中学生。汉语水平包含初级、中级和高级三种程度。调查共收回 276 份有效问卷，包括 75 名男生和 201 名女生。其中男研究生 1 名，女研究生 9 名；男大学生 38 名，女大学生 80 名；男中学生 36 名，女中学生 112 名。调查问卷由三部分组成：第一部分是

指导语，说明调查目的和答题方法；第二部分是在 Oxford(1990) 设计的语言学习策略量表的基础上转化成的汉语学习策略调查量表；第三部分是被试基本情况。本次调查 2010 年在保加利亚完成。调查结束后，又结合问卷进行了个别访谈。所有被试在 5 分制的李克特量表上评价各种策略陈述的内容与自己的符合程度。数据结果经 SPSS 软件统计得出。被试得分越高，说明使用学习策略的频率越高。

4. 研究结果

4.1 保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的总体情况

保加利亚学生使用学习策略的总体得分是 3.3 分，克伦巴赫系数是 0.93。

根据 Oxford（1990）对其设计的调查量表得分提出的评价标准（见图 1）可知，保加利亚学生有时使用学习策略，使用频率为中等程度。

学习策略分为直接策略和间接策略两类。被试的得分情况如图 2：

如图 2 所示，无论是直接策略还是间接策略，保加利亚学生的使用频率都处于中等程度，都是有时使用以上策略，只是间接策略的分数高于直接策略。经过方差分析，间接策略和直接策略的差异显著（F（1，1654）=26.07，p < 0.01）。

4.2 保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的具体特点

直接策略和间接策略又分别被分为三种分策略。直接策略包含记忆策略、认知策略和补偿策略；间接策略包含元认知策略、情感策略和社交策略，共计六种分策略。保加利亚学生六种分策略的具体使用情况如图 3 所示：

六种分策略的得分排序情况如图 4：

从图 3 和图 4 中可以看出，平均数从高到低的排列顺序是社交策略、元认知策略、认知策略、补偿策略和记忆策略、情感策略。对被试在各个分量表上的平均数进行方差分析的结果显示，策略之间差异显著（F（5,1650）=30.68，p<0.01）。

4.3 保加利亚大学生研究生汉语学习策略的具体特点

图 5 展示了保加利亚大学生研究生汉语学习策略的具体特点

从图 5 中可以看出，平均数从高到低的排行是社交策略、元认知策略、认知策略、记忆策略、情感策略和补偿策略。对被试在各个分量表上的平均数进行方差分析的结果显示，策略之

间差异显著（F（5,762）=27.12，p<0.01）。

4.4 保加利亚中学生汉语学习策略的具体特点

从图 6 可见，保加利亚中学生汉语学习策略的具体特点

从图 6 中可以看出，平均数从高到低的排行是社交策略、元认知策略、认知策略和补偿策略、记忆策略、情感策略。对被试在各个分量表上的平均数进行方差分析的结果显示，策略之间差异显著（F（5,882）=10.84，p<0.01）。

4.5 保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生汉语学习策略的特点之异同

从图 5 和图 6 中可见大学生研究生的学习策略和中学生学习策略的得分，既有相同之处，也有不同之处。大学生研究生和中学生的学习策略平均数从高到低的排序基本一致，依次均为社交策略、元认知策略、认知策略、记忆策略、情感策略；不同的是，中学生的补偿策略和认知策略并列排在第三位，而大学生研究生的补偿策略却排在了最后。在使用频率上，大学生研究生排名前两位的学习策略，即社交策略和元认知策略平均数均超过了 3.5，达到高使用频率，但是中学生只有排名第一位的社交策略超过了 3.5，属于高使用频率。从六项分策略得分上看，大学生研究生的各项策略平均数均超过 3.0 分，而中学生有五项策略得分超过 3.0 分，情感策略得分仅为 2.9 分。将平均数进行比较以后，得到如下结果（见图 7）：

从图 7 的曲线分布和平均数情况来看，元认知策略、情感策略和社交策略这三种间接策略走向明显趋于一致，且大学生研究生对以上三种学习策略的使用频率均高于中学生。记忆策略和认知策略得分相同，走向完全重合。中学生只有补偿策略的得分高于大学生研究生的补偿策略。经方差分析，差异显著（F(1,274)=9.428，P<0.05）

5. 讨论和结论

5.1 关于保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的总体情况

从总体情况上看，保加利亚学生在学习汉语的过程中，能够做到有时使用学习策略，使用频率达到中等，此次调查结果信度很高。

保加利亚学生能够有时运用直接策略和间接策略学习汉语，使用频率为中等。其中，他们更喜欢通过间接策略来指导自己的汉语学习。间接策略并不能直接落实在具体的学习内容上，它只是帮助学生规范和调整自己的学习过程。直接策略是指一系列有利于学生记忆和储存知识

的策略，帮助学生理解、记忆和使用汉语，它直接落实在具体的学习内容中去。Oxford（1990）把直接策略和间接策略的关系形容为演员与导演的关系，间接策略处于指导和协调汉语学习活动的地位。在访谈中，有的学生表示自己时常反思学习汉语的方法，然后调整自己的学习策略，有的学生提到愿意向老师和同学请教如何学习汉语，有的学生喜欢通过和中国朋友用汉语聊天交流学习汉语等等。学生们使用的这些学习策略都属于间接策略，这也能表明保加利亚学生在学习汉语的过程中更常用间接策略。

5.2 关于保加利亚学生汉语学习策略的具体特点

在具体的汉语学习策略中，保加利亚学生最常使用社交策略，其次是元认知策略，使用频率均达到高频率。社交策略是重要的汉语学习策略之一，学生们最喜欢通过和他人一起合作、请求他人帮助和指导汉语学习等社交策略来提高汉语水平。元认知策略能够帮助学习者了解、规范和评价自己的学习，比如探索成为较好汉语学习者的方法、寻找机会以便尽可能多地学习汉语、安排和计划自己的学习过程和学习效果。元认知是认知的认知。这两种策略在汉语学习中都能起到指导性作用，它们的高使用频率表明保加利亚学生在汉语学习中比较重视协调汉语学习，监控规范自己的汉语学习过程。

保加利亚学生有时使用的策略依次是认知策略、补偿策略、记忆策略、情感策略，使用频率居中。这四种策略，除情感策略属于间接策略外，其他三种策略都属于直接策略。认知策略帮助学习者理解汉语和生成汉语，比如通过多次书写汉字记忆汉字和所学知识。补偿策略则帮助学习者补偿已经忘记或者无法表达的汉语知识，比如用其他词语代替不能表述的汉语句子或者单词。记忆策略帮助学生有效记忆汉语知识，获得新的内容，比如利用动作、形象和声音等记忆汉语知识。这些策略在汉语学习中起到了直接作用。

情感策略属于间接策略，它关注学生的情感需求，比如说汉语出现错误时鼓励自己不断改错等。保加利亚学生最少使用此种策略和他们的认识和习惯有关。在访谈中，很多学生对于奖赏自己的行为表示惊讶和奇怪，有一位学生坦言他从没有给自己买过任何礼物奖赏自己。

5.3 关于保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生汉语学习策略的具体特点和异同

调查结果显示，保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生都是有时使用学习策略。在六种分策略的使用中，大学生研究生和中学生既有相同之处，也有不同之处。

5.3.1 相同之处

保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生最常使用的学习策略均是社交策略。无论在大学生研究生中，还是在中学生中均达到了高使用频率。喜欢社交策略的学生愿意在与他人的合作中学习汉

语，通过和他人合作学习，提高汉语水平。通过教学观察，我们发现保加利亚学生比较喜欢和同学们一起练习说汉语，比如：尽管初级水平的学生汉语表达能力有限，但是在课堂上他们还是非常愿意和同学们一起合作、进行句型操练、互问简单问题等，表现出较高的学习热情和参与意识；汉语程度较高的学生则愿意通过在课前搜集资料以后，在课堂上积极参加与同学一起进行的演讲、辩论、表演等活动。

保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生最不常使用的学习策略均是情感策略。这表明，学生在学习汉语过程中，不是很关注自己的情感需求。比如，不善于奖赏和鼓励自己的进步，也不够关注自己在学习过程中的情绪。经皮尔逊相关系数分析，情感策略的使用和学生的学习成绩无显著相关。4

5.3.2 不同之处

保加利亚中学生的补偿策略排名靠前，而且远高于大学生研究生的补偿策略得分，且呈显著差异。笔者认为，大学生研究生年长于中学生，有着更丰富的学习经验和一定的学习定势，有着更多的知识，理解能力强，所以最不常用的是补偿策略；中学生虽然年龄偏小，外语学习时间和经验有限，但是思维灵活，受束缚较少，想象力丰富，所以补偿策略排名靠前。

5.4 结论

保加利亚学生在学习汉语的过程中，能够做到有时候使用学习策略，并达到中等使用频率。他们最常用的汉语学习策略是社交策略，其次是元认知策略，均为高使用频率。此后，保加利亚学生依次使用的策略是认知策略、补偿策略和记忆策略，最不常用的是情感策略；保加利亚大学生研究生最常用的策略是社交策略和元认知策略，均为高使用频率，其他依次使用的策略是认知策略、记忆策略、情感策略和补偿策略。保加利亚中学生最常使用的策略是社交策略，且为高频率使用；此后依次是元认知策略、认知策略和补偿策略、记忆策略，最不常用的是情感策略。保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生使用学习策略的程度持平。大学生研究生和中学生的汉语学习策略相同之处是，最常用的策略均是社交策略，其次使用的策略均是元认知策略、认知策略、记忆策略、情感策略。中学生更常使用补偿策略，而大学生研究生不常使用补偿策略。补偿策略使用情况的不同呈显著差异。

6. 启示

一是提高对学习策略重要性的认识。很多研究结果表明，汉语学习策略的使用和汉语学习成绩相关。5 学习策略有助于提高学习效率和学习水平。无论对学生还是对老师来说，都应多

加关注学习策略。终身学习和学会学习已经成为当代社会的重要教育思想，教师和学生了解学习策略后将把上述教育思想落实到实际行动中去。

二是力争做到学习策略和教学内容有机结合。学习策略能促进汉语学习，所以有学者建议进行专门的学习策略培训。笔者认为，如果仅专门开展专门的汉语学习策略培训的话，对于学生来说，会很枯燥，尤其是对于尚在成长中的中学生来说。最好是教师在教学过程中，把学习策略与汉语教学结合起来，做到润物细无声，比如可以通过布置在卡片上写汉语句子等多种形式的作业让学生巩固所学知识，提高汉语水平。6 总的来看，无论是保加利亚大学生研究生还是中学生，他们都常用社交策略学习汉语，比如通过和他人合作提高汉语能力。这就提示教师们在汉语教学过程中，可以尽量多预设和创建合作的环境和氛围，让学生集体参与到汉语教学活动中去。

三是了解不同学生的学习策略喜好，加强有针对性的策略指导。没有最好的学习策略，只有适合不同学生的不同学习策略。不同的学生适应和喜欢不同的学习策略，因此教师最好在了解不同学习者个性差异的基础上，保护和调动学生的汉语学习热情，个别指导他们运用恰当的学习策略学习汉语，同时注意不断协助学生调整学习策略，进而不断提高学生们的汉语学习能力和汉语水平。

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注释 1. 参见史耀芳 2001.:586.；钱玉莲 2007:1-2.

注释 2. 参见 Richards et al 2002:472.

注释 3. 参见吕必松 1990:1；董淑慧 2005:15；张纪艳 2009：6-7.

注释 4. 参见孙永红（2011b）

注释 5. 参见杨翼 (1998)、江新 (2000)、吴勇毅 (2007)、钱玉莲 (2007) 等论文

注释 6. 参见孙永红 . 徐向东 (2008) 、孙永红（2009、2011a）

图表

图 1 学习策略评价标准 (Oxford 1990)

得分	评价	使用频率
4.5 到 5.0	总是或者几乎总是使用	高
3.5 到 4.4	经常使用	高
2.5 到 3.4	有时使用	中
1.5 到 2.4	不常使用	低
1.0 到 1.4	从不或者几乎从不使用	

图 2 保加利亚学生汉语学习策略总体情况

排行	策略名称	平均数	标准差	评价	使用频率
1	间接策略	3.4	0.86	有时使用	中
2	直接策略	3.2	0.68	有时使用	中

图 3 保加利亚学生六种分策略使用情况（N=276）

策略名称	平均数	标准差	克伦巴赫系数	评价	使用频率
记忆策略	3.1	0.62	.64	有时使用	中
认知策略	3.3	0.71	.82	有时使用	中
补偿策略	3.1	0.71	.50	有时使用	中
元认知策略	3.5	0.87	.88	经常使用	高
情感策略	3.0	0.71	.53	有时使用	中
社交策略	3.6	0.86	.73	经常使用	高

图 4 保加利亚学生六种分策略排序（N=276）
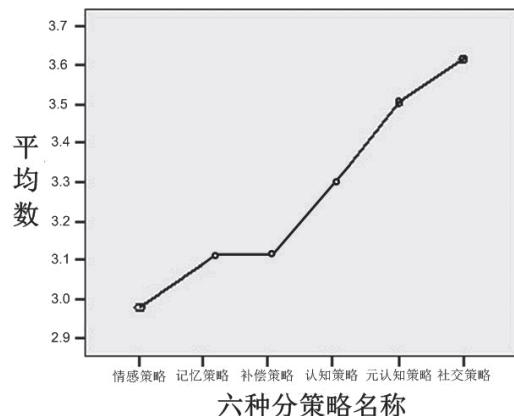
图 5 保加利亚大学生研究生汉语学习策略情况（N=128）

策略名称	平均数	标准差	克伦巴赫系数	评价	使用频率
记忆策略	3.1	0.50	.47	有时使用	中
认知策略	3.3	0.65	.81	有时使用	中
补偿策略	3.0	0.72	.56	有时使用	中
元认知策略	3.6	0.77	.86	经常使用	高
情感策略	3.0	0.60	.41	有时使用	中
社交策略	3.7	0.76	.66	经常使用	高

图 6 保加利亚中学生汉语学习策略情况（N=148）

策略名称	平均数	标准差	克伦巴赫系数	评价	使用频率
记忆策略	3.1	0.70	.72	有时使用	中
认知策略	3.3	0.75	.84	有时使用	中
补偿策略	3.3	0.68	.41	有时使用	中
元认知策略	3.4	0.94	.89	有时使用	中
情感策略	2.9	0.79	.60	有时使用	中
社交策略	3.5	0.93	.76	经常使用	高

图 7 保加利亚大学生研究生和中学生汉语学习策略比较
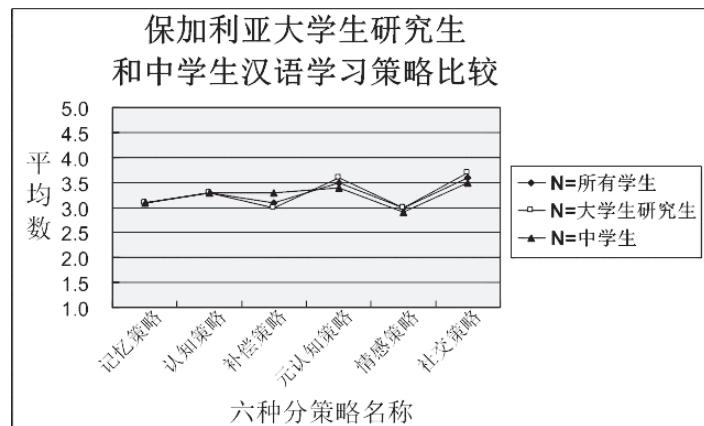
致谢

Learning Business Chinese via a Wiki Platform

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Abstract

This study aims to examine how students' interactions with native speakers (NSs) on a wiki platform facilitate language learning in a Business Chinese course and in what aspects students benefit. It reports on the interaction between English speaking students in the UK, and Chinese students in China, who were learning each other's languages. Data sources include the archive of interaction messages on the wiki platform, participant observation and a focus group interview. The triangulated data indicate that students perceived the wiki project favourably in that it not only helped them to organise and reflect on their own learning, but also allowed them to learn from each other in addition to learning from NSs. Students received more feedback in vocabulary, grammar structure and cultural concepts than in overall coherence. A number of advantages associated with wikis are reported, including the wide audience, peer mentoring and professional development. Students also pointed out challenges such as technical difficulties and the amount of work they had to put into the wiki project. In light of these findings, the study suggests that wikis can be an interesting experience that language learners enjoy, while enhancing opportunities for interaction with NSs and peers. However, the wiki activities need to be monitored constantly to ensure that the quality of interactions is sufficient to impact on language learning.

1. Introduction

With the fast-paced changes brought about by advanced technology and globalization, education professionals need to understand current socioeconomic factors and their influence on language learning and language teaching. The new post-industrial economic order is replacing the previous industrial societies with more globalized manufacturing and distribution, flexible and customized production, greater application of science/technology, and superior information management (Carnoy, Castells, Cohen, & Cardoso, 1993). People's lives are increasingly affected by international networks, operating via financial markets, transnational corporations, and the internet. In response to the increased power of global networks, it has become an advantage for people in general, and business people in particular, to know relevant foreign languages in order to conduct business in the target language, and to be able to communicate over the internet.

The increasing expectations that companies have of graduates create, in turn, the need for an intercultural and competence-oriented redesign of learning activities in university programmes (Schneckenberg, Ehles and Adelsberger, 2011). Consequently, much recent research in language learning has focused on the importance of input and interaction in the target language and the immersion-simulation environment in which languages are learnt (Bitchener and Knoch, 2008; Hooper, 2003, Hung, 2011) and intercultural communication competence is developed (Andrew, 2011; Crossman, 2011).

The immersion simulation environment brought two aspects of interaction in language learning to the fore: authentic input and negotiating meaning. NSs' authentic input is a valuable asset to facilitate learners' language acquisition, whereas negotiating meaning fosters learners' interactional adjustments in language and intercultural awareness (Wang, Zou and Xing, 2011; Long, 1996). Furthermore, negotiating meaning between NSs/NNSs (non-native speakers) helps learners construct concepts and ideas, and eventually internalise them as part of their knowledge structure (Lee, 2011; O'Rourke, 2008). In the process of negotiating meaning, language learners and NSs co-construct and co-mediate with each other (Yang, 2011) in an open space or shared space for the negotiation (Darhower, 2007; Schneider & von der Emde, 2006).

Negotiation of meaning in previous researches has suggested that lexical negotiations are far more common than grammatical ones (Smith, 2003; Tudini, 2003), and that negotiations focus more on overall meaning than on structure (O'Rourke, 2008). Based on the authentic input from NSs and negotiation of meaning with NSs, language learners can produce adjusted output. Chapelle (1997)

suggested that it is important that learners have an audience for the linguistic output they produce so that they attempt to use the language to construct meanings for communication rather than solely for practice. Indeed, what is needed is an authentic environment where language learners can use the target language to communicate with the real NS audience and to interact with them, so that NSs and NNSs can both expand their language and intercultural communication skills. For NSs' input and the interaction with NSs, an authentic context is required.

2. Wiki-supported pedagogy

Wikis can provide such an authentic context because they allow language learners and NSs to work together in a shared environment, with the progress of the work visible to all students, and the teacher at any time (Endean et al., 2008). This visibility and sense of creativity and progress is highly motivating (Trentin, 2009; Wheeler, Yeomans, & Wheeler, 2008). Students can provide feedback on each others' work, and help to improve it (Lundin, 2008). Language learners can use the wiki to share and explore their ideas with the help and assistance of NSs. Especially, the "history" feature in wikis enables users to trace the arguments, opinions and ideas from different wiki users obtaining feedback from multiple entries displayed in reverse chronological order.

As feedback is one of the most crucial means to facilitate language learning, language learners react and respond to the wiki entries through interactions viewed as one-to-many. In addition, the chronological displays of the comments make it easier for the users to notice the most recent comments and revise their writings accordingly.

Wikis enable learners to publish their own writing, discuss group assignments, peer review each other's work, collaborate on projects and manage their assignments. They invite users to comment on the items they have read and to move from observers to participants. Participatory practice is greatly emphasised in public wiki spaces. Since wikis encourage feedback from anyone connected to the wiki space, they represent language practice. This type of online practice promotes authentic input of viewpoints, fosters the discussion of issues and cultivates critical thinking. Learning environments, which integrate wiki technologies, support communication involving authentic input and social interaction.

In the wiki open learning space, more experienced or more competent learners or experts can assist new language learners by providing them with encouragement and with guidance in improving language and communication skills. By dispensing with time and location constraints, wikis can further simplify and enliven the feedback-giving process for peers in a significant way, thus enhancing bi-directional communication among peer learners (Huang and Hung, 2010). Also, because in the wiki

platform everybody can see each other's work, students take more careful account of what they write and how they write, improving their written communication skills.

Since language learning needs authentic input and negotiating meaning with NSs, and wikis can provide this kind of learning environment, this study explores how the interactions with NSs on a wiki platform contribute to language enhancement. Two research questions guide this study: 1). How do students perceive wikis for language learning? 2). How do the interactions on the wiki platform contribute to language practice and what do students gain from the interactions?

3. Research methodology

In this study, language learners' contributions to the wiki platform were archived for the record of interaction and language development. The researchers and language tutors acted as participant observers, who actively contributed to the mixed-mode environment and introduced students to the wiki platform, functioning as guides. To triangulate the data and to gain more reflective insights into the experience of the language learners, a semi-structured interview was carried out at the end of the project. Language learners were encouraged to provide reflective evaluation of the learning experience in the form of feedback to six representatives, who were invited to take part in the interview. The interview data were analysed via a thematic analysis approach to focus on salient data and jointly discussed on selected relevant extracts. The interpreting and analysis were maintained as a continuing critical discussion of the collaborative process, considering our own participation in the project and students' views and findings.

Research context

This twelve-week partnership wiki project was conducted throughout the spring semester of the academic year of 2010-2011 in two different courses at two universities: a Business Chinese course in the University of Manchester, the UK; and an English language course in Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University, China. The objective of the Business Chinese course was to develop students' Chinese language and intercultural competence related to business. Through the wiki project, the language tutor encouraged students to get actively involved in the language practice, and to connect their intercultural exchange experience with their interest in Business Chinese. Students were asked to make their wiki posts accessible to their readers in China. The English course in China aimed to improve students' English skills while engaging with English NSs. Students on both sides were guided to use the target languages on the wiki platform throughout the semester. To this end, in the wiki project the language

tutors helped students understand the wiki platform and used the wiki tools to connect with others.

Both courses included the wiki project as required course assignments. The wiki assignment was 10% of the course grade in the course in Manchester, the UK. The language tutor assessed the students' wiki performance based on their efforts in the wikis and the quality of their wiki messages. In the English course in China, the language tutor evaluated students' wiki performance based on the regularity of their wiki posts and their efforts at commenting on the wiki messages from the students in the University of Manchester, and also their English essays reviewed by English NSs.

Participants

Participants in this study included 48 language learners, with twenty-four English students learning Chinese from the University of Manchester, and twenty-four Chinese students learning English from Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University, China. Students in both universities were in their early 20s. Students in the University of Manchester were all final year Chinese majors who enrolled in the class of Business Chinese as part of their degree course. Students in Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University were non-English majors who studied in different departments in the university. They enrolled in the English language class as a compulsory course. The participants' online language learning experience varied. Prior to this project, all the students from the University of Manchester used Web 2.0 blogs, but not many used wikis; while not many students from Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University used online live exchanges with English NSs. They were acting as language partners, making corrections and comments on the Manchester students' work on the wiki platform. Chinese students could use this opportunity to practise their English and communicate with English NSs. Students on both sides communicated on the wiki platform in the target languages, and they were expected to get involved in real communication with the aim of developing their language skills as well as their intercultural communication competence.

Procedures

Before the project started, the researcher and language tutor in Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University created the wiki platform by setting up the ground rules, trying out assignment topics, and piloting with a small number of students. A step-by-step instruction on the front page introduced students to the wiki platform.

When the spring semester of 2010-2011 started, the classes on both sides began their preparation. Students tried and analyzed the wiki submissions within their own class prior to the partnership exchange. In addition, students on both sides submitted a wiki proposal for their wiki project before they started to submit their work to the wiki platform. Topics were finalized after this trial phase.

Tutorials for the wiki platform were also offered during the preparation phase. Although some students expressed their interest in using e-mail or Microsoft Messenger (MSN), they were required to use the wiki platform first, and using other tools later, after language partnership was set up.

4. The study

As the purpose of the project was to motivate students to communicate in the target languages, peer reviews were highly encouraged and feedback from NSs was well arranged by one-to-one matching.

During the semester, each student was required to upload their assignments relating to the setting up of their business companies. The topics for these assignments were office environment, employing new staff, training new employees, business communications, international exhibitions, trade fairs and symposia, the organisational structure of the company, price inquiries and negotiation, and goods delivery and payment. Students from the University of Manchester submitted each assignment to the wiki platform on a weekly basis where students from Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University made corrections and comments. It was made explicit to the students on both sides that, at the end of the course, the messages in the wiki would be archived and analyzed, and that the data obtained would be triangulated with participant observations and interviews. Students understood that all these activities were intended for improving their language skills and intercultural communication competence and they were willing to get involved and make contributions. Students on both sides were encouraged to post their comments and responses to others promptly, well in advance of assignment deadlines.

Data collection

Twelve joint company projects were submitted to the wiki platform by students from the University of Manchester. The biggest contribution was from a student who described the setting up of his company in great detail, and made all corrections after feedback from the NSs. The smallest contribution was from a student who submitted only one message. The content of the submissions ranged from the Red Carpet Events Company (arranging events such as weddings), the Intellectual Agency (introducing graduates between China and UK), China Doll (importing Qipao from China to the UK), Health and Fitness (Traditional Chinese Medicine Treatment), a travel agency (arranging tourism between China and the UK), a wine company (introducing western wine to China), and G-LED Lighting Limited (using China's high-tech developments to save energy in the UK). All the companies that students set up went through the business management procedures covered in the Business

Chinese course, and all of the students completed the tasks in the assignments and submitted them (with at least one submission) to the wiki platform.

The researchers and language tutors involved in this wiki project reviewed all the written data, and counted all the written messages from each student and generated codes for each of the messages that represented the students' experiences in the archive. For example, "网路费——网络费" is grouped in the vocabulary category because both words mean 'fee' for the internet, yet the emphasis of "网路" is on "path", while "网络" is a more general term. For the sentence of "我们找最好的学生然后我们问他们如果他们要不要跟我们工作", a NS changed the sentence into "我们找最好的学生并问他们是否愿意为我们工作". This kind of correction is grouped as grammatical structure category because it is more than word choice and involves re-organizing the sentence structure. The message exchange of "起爬旗袍公司 --- 奇葩旗袍公司" is grouped as cultural concept category. Because "起爬" (qipa) has similar pronunciation as "Qipao" (girl's dress), the student was trying to use "起爬" (qipa) as the name of her Chinese Girl Dress Company. After she put it in the wiki, a Chinese student pointed it out for her that the word "起爬" (qipa) means "starts to crawl". If a company is named as "起爬" (qipa) 'start to crawl', the implication for Chinese people is that the company will not grow fast and make a profit. However, with the same pronunciation, another word "奇 葩" (qipa) means extraordinarily beautiful and therefore her company named "奇葩" (qipa) would be most appropriate for a Chinese Girls' Dress Company. For the rest of the messages exchanges, such categories as vocabulary, grammatical structure and cultural concepts were applied. After the first researcher had coded all the messages, the other researcher re-examined the codes and categories until agreement was reached on all the coding.

Among the submissions of 480 messages and 35,293 words in total, 260 comments from NSs were about word choice (54.2%), 132 comments were about word order or grammatical structure (27.5%), and 88 comments were about cultural concepts (18.3%). The archive of the wiki messages revealed that students experienced a transition from basic to more advanced quality of writing. As far as vocabulary is concerned, in the first messages, they were using words such as "不一般的" (not ordinary) because the limitation of their vocabulary. In later messages, they were using words like "有特色的" (with features), "别具一格的" (with characteristics) and "有竞争力的" (powerful). It can be seen from the wiki message archive that these words appeared again and again in Chinese students' comments and these NSs' input had an impact on language learners' acquisition. This shift, as a result of intercultural communication, can be seen in many more examples, such as the change from the simple word "物品" (items) to "最宝贵的财富" (the most precious asset). Language learners absorbed not only the surface meaning of the words, but also the connotations behind the words, and they were influenced by NSs' word choice and their way of expressing themselves. Consequently, students' writ-

ing was moving from simple expressions to more complex structures expressing more sophisticated ideas. The wiki platform empowered students with the knowledge of the target culture, which was accumulated via real intercultural communications. The wiki platform thus proved to be a valuable venue for hosting participative learning activities enabling the students to practise the language.

Interview

To triangulate the data obtained from the wiki message archive and participant observation, and to further explore the research questions by eliciting information, a 30-minute semi-structured interview was followed at the end of the project. Six students were invited to take part in the interview. Of these, two were the most active participants and contributed most in the wiki, two were least active and two were in between and they collected students' reflective comments before they came to the interview. This way of selecting interviewees allowed the researchers to respond to the situation at hand and to the emerging perspectives from the participants. The following themes emerged from the interview:

Favourable attitudes towards the wiki project

The interviewees reported that most of the students in this project favoured the wiki project. They appreciated NSs' authentic input and enjoyed the process of negotiating meaning on the wiki platform, as they viewed each other's work on the wikis, gave peer feedback on their assignments, and suggested further improvements. As one interviewee said, "it is good to know that I have an audience and a faithful friend on the other side, who can always read my message and point out my mistakes." Another maintained that "I feel a part of a group as there are always new ideas coming up from somewhere, much better than working on my own" . In this learning environment, the participants learned from multiple perspectives, and collaborated with each other. Centring around authentic input and the negotiating meaning among students, the archives of interaction messages on the wiki platform illustrated that wikis enhanced student engagement. Students were actively representing their own companies. Based on the initial ideas about their companies, they were seeking advice and suggestions from NSs and make corrections accordingly.

Openness for wider audience

Students on both sides shared interests and a sense of belonging. Since wikis were accessible both in the UK and China, they could be viewed not only by the English students at the University of Manchester but also by Chinese students beyond the classroom settings in the UK, and reached as far as China. With wider audiences, the students had more interaction with different wiki users and received feedback from diverse perspectives. One student commented that "I am trying to best present

myself"；another said "I have to write with my best knowledge to establish my image". This is consistent with Pullman's (2002) findings that increased audiences helped participants take greater pride in and responsibility for perfecting completion of their learning tasks. As Bloch (2007) pointed out, the openness of wikis can give students a greater sense of the variety of audiences they can reach so that they can better understand these audiences and learn strategies to respond to them.

Professional development

In addition to enabling participants to reflect on the process of setting up business companies, wikis also helped them to display their learning to their future employers. As one of the interviewees suggested, "I have put my activities in this wiki project in my job application and hope the manager has a chance to see my talents in language, communication and technology". In the same vein, another student commented that "the wiki project increased my competitiveness in job-hunting. I can show my achievement to my future bosses". It became clear that the wiki project in this Business Chinese course served as an archive of their learning process which recorded their language improvement, and created a link to their future job search. As indicated in the students' comments about their future learning, they believed that wikis would help their future independent learning and that they would help with their work in future. Therefore, they decided that they would use wikis in the workplace in future.

5. Discussion and conclusion

This study has examined students' interactions on a wiki project for a Business Chinese course and discovered that students perceived the wiki project favourably, especially the authentic input and negotiating meaning with NSs. Students reported the advantages of wiki such as wider audiences, and, they have linked the wiki experience with their professional development. The results of the study support the findings from Smith (2003) and Tudini (2003) that lexical negotiations are far more common than grammatical ones. However, in this study, student focused more on grammar and sentence order than on overall structure, which contradicts O'Rourke (2008).

While students enjoyed the benefits that wikis provide, such as openness and real communication opportunities with NSs, they also pointed out problems that they encountered. The main challenge of using wikis from their viewpoint was technical difficulties and the great amount of work involved with this wiki project. Some students uploaded their assignments to the wiki but found that they had been accidentally deleted by someone else. These files could be found by using the history function and

could be brought back, but it took time and students were concerned that they might be deleted again. Another problem was that because the wiki was an open space, anyone could make comments and some students received more feedback than others. Those who received fewer comments would have liked to have had an equal share. One possible solution to this might be to match each language learner with more than one NS in an organized structure while still keeping the floor open for others who are more interested in this topic.

Learning as a form of exchange can be experienced as frightening as well as fruitful. NSs in this project offer a more equal power system through reciprocity: the expert in one language becomes the novice in the other language, and scaffolding (Schwienhorst, 2002) can be employed by all.

The findings in this project contribute to the literature of cooperative learning from learners' perspective. It demonstrates that many students took initiatives to connect with NSs through the assignments in this project. Students also emphasised the importance of feedback from NSs at word level, sentence level and from cultural perspective. This finding sheds light on the intentions of the students who participated in this mutually beneficial project.

The disadvantages in terms of technical aspects and workload could be resolved by training on Web 2.0, especially on wikis before the projects start, so as familiarise students with the procedures of uploading files and making corrections.

Based on the results of the study, two pedagogical implications may be drawn: wikis can be used as a platform where a community of practice can be established, so that opportunities for students to practise the target language can be increased; and wikis can be employed as a platform where real intercultural communication can take place and intercultural communication competence can be developed.

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Speech Error Correction from the
Perspective of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language

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Abstract

The issue of speech error correction in the second language classroom has been a controversial one (Hedge 2000:15). In the current literature, many linguists tend to offer a range of theories which attempt to issue questions such as whether speech errors should be corrected in the class or not, and if so, when and how to correct them. So far these issues have been discussed within a number of theoretical frameworks regarding teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL); however, little of the literature covers these phenomena in the Chinese as a foreign language classroom. In order to address these issues within the framework of teaching Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL), this paper concentrates on three main areas: namely, a re-examination of error corrections from both theoretical and practical perspectives, the treatments of speech errors in the area of TCFL and suggestions for teachers of TCFL.

Keywords: speech error correction, teaching Chinese as a foreign language

1. Introduction

The problem of whether errors should be corrected has been a controversial one in the area of both

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first and second language teaching. The reason is that both the advantages and disadvantages of error correction are obvious. The issue of how to keep the balance between correcting learners' errors and encouraging them has been the focus of much research and comment.

1.1 Definition of speech errors

Although a number of studies and researches go over the issue of error correction, few of them provide specific definitions of errors. According to Hendrickson (1978), the definition of an error, which this essay will use, defines a speech error as an utterance that a particular language teacher and most native speakers deem unacceptable because of its inappropriate use or its absence in real-life discourse.

1.2 Outline of this paper

In the past three decades, the five fundamental questions posited by Hendrickson (1978) have been considered as the main focus in previous research, namely,

-Should errors be corrected?

-If so, when should errors be corrected?

-Which learner errors should be corrected?

-How should learner errors be corrected?

-Who should correct learner errors?

In order to address these issues within the framework of teaching Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL), this paper will concentrate on two main areas. Firstly, a brief survey of literature is given; error correction shall be examined from various theoretical, as well as practical, perspectives. The next focus concerns the treatments of speech errors in Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL), followed by some suggestions for teachers of TCFL.

2. Review of the literature on error correction

Given the aims of this essay, this section reviews the current literature in the topic area and identifies the most relative sources. A survey of the literature reveals a range of perspectives. In general, these can be divided into three theoretical or practical aspects, namely: the necessity of error correction; the approaches to the correction of errors; and other issues on student errors.

2.1 The necessity of error correction

As one of the most complex aspects of classroom management, the value of error correction has been much debated. The main argument against error correction is that both children and adults do not need explicit negative feedback on the accuracy of their output. Researchers holding this view believe that constant correction might harm the learner's level of enthusiasm and motivation. Hedge (2002:288) points out that this stemmed largely from Krashen's (1982) suggestion. The famous suggestion holds that adults and young children share a similar process in acquiring a language, no matter whether it is a first or second language. According to the suggestion, a child's ignoring of parental correction implies the uselessness of teacher's correction in a classroom for adults.

On the contrary, the majority of scholars tend to highlight the value of error correction in the classroom, as it is widely believed that feedback on errors is useful, especially when students cannot recognize the errors they made (George 1972, Corder 1973, and Allwright 1975). Allwright (1975) proposes that only when learners are made aware of where an error is, can they acquire the language in classroom. Hedge (2002) indicates that learners progress faster with error correction by the teacher or instructor. Dekeyser (1993) assesses the efficiency of oral error correction in a classroom of French as second language and provides evidence supporting the role of error correction during oral communicative activities in the second language classroom. There are also some articles, which present findings of surveys on students' attitudes toward error correction, all of which claim that the majority of learners show a positive attitude to correction, and even wish to be corrected more than their teachers or native speaker friends correct them (Cathcart and Olsen 1976; Chenoweth, N. A., Day, R. R., Chun, A.E., and Luppescu. S.1983). Another important factor, pointed out by Holley and King (1971) , Birckbichler (1977), Walker (1973) and George (1972), is that some oral errors should be tolerated to help learners communicate fluently and confidently.

2.2 How to deal with errors

During the early period of researching student errors, there has been a tendency for scholars to focus on correction. As the development language teaching theories have progressed, more researchers believe that errors play a significant role in acquiring a language and should be learnt and used.

According to the previous literature, many studies offer useful insights into the methods of correcting spoken errors in the L2 classroom, such as Holley and King (1971), Cohen, & Andrew D. (1975), Fanselow (1977), Robbins (1977) suggest. Among various methods, a widely used technique

is the "direct" method, the advantages and disadvantages of which have been debated by Allwright (1975), Cohen and Robbins (1976), and Hendrickson (1978).

In addition, several attempts have been made by Allan, D. (1991) and Freda M. Holley and Janet K. King (1971) etc., to demonstrate that using video or audio tapes to provide feedback on students' oral errors is a good method. Other researchers try to find a certain model for the correction of linguistic errors, such as Chaudron (1977) and Lantolf (1977).

2.3 Other issues on students' errors

Aside from the methods of error correction, some analysts (e.g. Burt and Kiparsky, 1972; Anthony Bruton and Virginia Samuda 1980) have attempted to draw the hierarchies of errors; whereas other commentators concentrate on error analysis, for example, Burt and Kiparsky, 1972; George, 1972; Richards, 1973; Wyatt, 1972; Bhatia, 1974. There have also been some studies, such as Corder (1973), Allwright (1975), and Cohen (1975), which focus on the teacher's role in correcting errors.

3. Treatment of speech errors in the classroom of teaching spoken Chinese as a foreign language

Influenced by the western theories about student error correction, the majority of researchers and teachers in the field of TCFL believe that oral error correction plays an essential role in helping students to learn to speak standard Mandarin Chinese. But in the CFL spoken classrooms, the situations vary based on different teaching styles. For example: some teachers pay more attention to the accuracy of learners' output and even overcorrect; while others are more tolerant toward students' oral errors. This generates much discussion about what should be suggested to teachers of CFL spoken classes.

In order to address the above issue, this section will be divided into four parts: the first three parts present a description of the basic information of CFL oral errors correction; followed by the fourth section in which strategies for correcting speech errors in the CFL spoken classroom will be given.

3.1 Whether speech error should be corrected in CFL spoken classroom?

As mentioned in 2.1, nowadays most theoreticians and language teachers believe that it is essential to correct learners' oral errors. This has been supported by several surveys on the attitudes of both language teachers and learners. My first hand data supports it as well.

My survey on adults Chinese learners' attitudes toward grammar teaching involves a question as

follows:

Do you think it is necessary for the lecturer to correct students' grammatical mistakes in front of the whole class when they answer questions orally?

      ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐   4 ☐ 5

Totally unnecessary ◄————————————————► absolutely necessary

It surveyed twenty-six first year students in the East Asian Studies department of the University of Sheffield whose major is Chinese Language and first languages are not Chinese. Of the twenty-six respondents, eleven and seven ticked ☐ 5 and ☐ 4 respectively, six ticked ☐ 3; while only two chose ☐ 2 and nobody chose ☐ 1. Based on the findings, it is obvious that the majority of students view the correction of grammatical oral errors as a necessary element in grammar learning. Although it only supports the above argument partly, it at least proves the necessity of speech error correction in the classroom under certain circumstances. It is therefore safe to propose that speech error correction is required in the teaching of Chinese as a second language.

3.2 Should all speech errors be corrected? If not, what kind of errors should be corrected?

Although insufficient evidence has been provided, a number of commentators and teachers believe that it is beneficial to tolerate some student errors in the classroom. As Chastain, Kenneth (1971) suggests, creating an atmosphere in which the students want to talk is of more significance than correcting all errors. According to my experience of TCFL, immediately correcting students' errors in front of the whole class is more likely to generate a high-level pressure as well as nervousness which means students are not able to be corrected so easily, especially for phonological errors. Therefore, it is desirable to ignore certain speech errors appropriately and create a relatively free talking class environment for learners.

When referring to the types of errors, Burt and Kiparsky's (1972) distinction between global error and local error has been widely used. It can be argued that in the limited time allotted to decide whether an error is global or local, at high level of generality or not, high-frequently made or not, it is particularly hard for teachers, even experienced teachers, to make the right choice in the spoken class.

While another classification of spoken errors is suggested, namely: phonological errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors. At the beginner's level of TCFL spoken classes, phonological errors should always be corrected to avoid fossilization. At the intermediate and high level spoken class, phonological errors correction is encouraged as well, and only when the teacher has made sure the error has been fossilized, he or she may stop correcting. As for lexical errors and grammatical errors, an issue that should be raised is whether the corrected forms are several levels higher than students'

competence. If not, it can be corrected in accordance with the aspects discussed in other parts of this paper.

3.3 Who should correct speech errors in the CFL spoken class? To whom should corrective procedures be addressed?

Of particular relevance to the issue of error correction in the classroom are two questions, namely: who corrects the errors and correct whose errors.

3.31 Who corrects speech errors?

In general, error correction in the classroom should be the role of teachers or instructors. But teachers find that this is sometimes hard, as it can be difficult to keep an eye on every student, especially when group discussion or practice is used. In order to address this issue, several scholars, such as Corder (1975), Hendrickson (1978), and Anthony Bruton and Virginia Samuda (1980), suggest that peer correction and self-correction with teacher guidance are helpful.

It is advisable to utilize peer correction to improve the accuracy of students' output. But peer correction has its limitations. It has been proved that students are able to recognize grammatical speech errors and lexical speech errors of other students, but less evidence has been provided for their abilities of correcting errors, especially for pronunciation errors. As a tonal language, Chinese pronunciation is quite difficult, especially for learners whose first languages are of the 'non-tonal' classification. What's more, various accents may exist in an international student class. Therefore, it is dangerous to encourage learners to correct the pronunciation errors of each other.

As for self-correction, it might be beneficial to correct written errors, but apparently, it is difficult for language learners to recognize their oral errors within time limitations.

3.32 Whose errors should be corrected?

When deciding whether and how a student's speech error should be treated in the classroom, the teacher has to consider many issues. The individual nature of the student is an important one. If the student's anxiety level is very high or if he or she is extremely introverted, it will be unwise for the teacher to correct his or her error directly. A good way may be asking for other students' answers and transferring the treatment to the one who made same or similar mistake. After that, it would be better to see whether the original student, who made the error, recognizes it and knows how to correct it.

It is generally accepted that when teachers correct errors in the classroom, the focus should be on the error rather than the individual who made it. As Holley and King (1971) and Allwright (1988)

suggest, corrective procedures should be addressed to the whole class. It is beneficial to correct an individual's error for the whole class because of the following reasons: on one hand, it is a big opportunity for drilling the relevant pronunciation, word or grammatical pattern, which students have not fully acquired; on the other hand, it will create an easy atmosphere and keep the balance between correction and encouragement.

3.4 When and how to correct speech errors in CFL spoken class

With regard to the issue that errors should be treated immediately or delayed, several researchers (e.g. Holley and King,1971) claim that students should be allowed to complete their utterance without interruption, no matter if it is correct or not. Although this requires teachers to record a students' state-ment carefully, it is beneficial for both teachers and students, as it keeps balance between the teachers' correction and the students' creation.

A number of decisions have to be made when teachers consider speech errors in the classroom. With regards to the issue of how to correct speech errors, scholars tend to highlight the following aspects:

Firstly, errors should be corrected systematically. Cohen and Robbins (1976) hypothesize that a systematic correction is more effective than random correction. This has also been proved by my experience of TCFL. Those errors which have been corrected comparably and systematically are more likely to be remembered, while those being corrected randomly were quickly forgotten. However random correction is essential in spoken classes. Therefore, a good way is to use both, to be specific, correct random errors when they are made and review and conclude them systematically.

Secondly, hints should be given rather than correct answers directly. In most cases, students just fail to recognize their errors, and once they recognize the errors they are then able to correct them by themselves. Therefore, in these cases, the teachers' role should be a marker to signal to the learners that an error has been made and encourage them to provide the correct forms by themselves. It is widely accepted that students' active participation is better than passive repetition.

Thirdly, comparisons should be provided and drills should be carried out after correction. When a correction has been made, teachers have to make comparisons between the correct and incorrect forms to help learners become aware of the reasons for the change. After that, a drilling technique is generally required to make the correction effective. Although some researchers, such as Gorbet (1974), do not view drills as a beneficial way to correct errors, most TCFL teachers, find drills helpful in the spoken class. My experience supports this conclusion as well.

4. Conclusion and suggestions for teachers of a CFL spoken class

This paper summarizes the main arguments of speech errors, and discusses how to treat speech errors in a CFL spoken class. Based on the above discussion, following suggestions have been provided for TCSL spoken teachers:

- Keep a balance between correction and encouragement,

- Make careful notes of students' errors in the classroom,

- Correct errors selectively,

- Correct errors randomly and systematically,

- Imply errors by eye contact or body language and encourage self-correction rather than directly correct them.

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Dynamic Assessment of L2 Oral Proficiency:
A Case Study of Advanced Business Chinese

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Abstract

This article reports a case study of dynamic assessment of L2 oral proficiency in an Advanced Business Chinese course at the university level. As part of Modern Foreign Language Certificate programme, the Business Chinese course has strong features of short-term, quick-effect and business-oriented. In order to meet learners' need, particular attention in the course design is given to the development of L2 Mandarin Chinese oral proficiency. Dynamic Assessment (DA) is an approach to assessment and instruction derived from Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). A case study conducted with one advanced Business Chinese learner is described with the purpose of illustrating the implementation of DA for the advanced L2 Mandarin Chinese learners. A qualitative analysis of the results shows that DA can effectively help the learners get awareness of the problem areas and assist in making individual learning plans related to second language oral proficiency.

Keywords: Dynamic Assessment, Oral proficiency, Advanced Business Chinese

1. Introduction

As part of Modern Foreign Language Certificate programme, the Business Chinese course has strong features of short-term, quick-effect and business-oriented. In order to meet learners' need, particular attention in the course design is given to the development of L2 Mandarin Chinese oral proficiency.

This article reports a case study of dynamic assessment of L2 oral proficiency as the final oral test in an Advanced Business Chinese course at the university level. Dynamic Assessment (DA) is an approach to assessment and instruction derived from Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Since Aljaafresh and Lantolf (1994) studied how the negotiation of negative feedback in the context of the ZPD facilitates L2 learning by tutoring essay writing in an ESL course at a university on the east coast of the US, discussions and applications of DA to L2 contexts are very promising with different view angles. The specific focus in present study is on the use of DA as a way to help the learners get awareness of problem areas and assist in making individual learning plans related to L2 oral proficiency.

First, the present paper reviews literatures of DA application in the area of L2 studies. Then this case study conducted with one advanced Business Chinese learner is described with the purpose of illustrating the implementation of DA for the advanced L2 Mandarin Chinese learners. Finally, the study proposes a comprehensive plan for assessment in advanced L2 oral proficiency as a model to make individual learning plans.

2. A review of dynamic assessment in L2

Developed by Soviet psychologist and social constructivist Lev Semenovich Vygotsky, the definition of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is often quoted as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky,1978). Dynamic Assessment (DA) follows the proposal of ZPD by offering learners external forms of mediation in order to help them perform beyond their current level of independent functioning (Vygotsky, 1986). DA focuses on learner modifiability which involves both the amount of change made by the learner in response to the interventions provided, and the learner's

increased implementation of relevant metacognitive processes in problem solution (Lidz, 1991).

The application of DA in L2 settings is growing. But to date, there have been relatively few L2 DA studies supported by empirical data or longitudinal L2 studies that closely document changes in learners' language development over time reporting on the effects of DA on L2 acquisition processes (Ableeva, 2010).

In a paper presented at the conference of American Association for Applied Linguistics, Antón(2003, 2009) pioneered DA theoretical and methodological principles and integrated them into an L2 university placement test among advanced Spanish learners. Students took a five-part diagnostic test. Two parts of the test, the writing and speaking sections, were conducted following dynamic assessment procedures. There were four sessions in the 10 to 15 minute oral interview with the examiner. The second and fourth session were conducted by DA. The whole procedures were videotaped and scored using rubrics that included the following areas: pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, content and comprehensibility. The interviews were also evaluated considering descriptors of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. To assess advanced L2 Oral proficiency, in traditional non-dynamic testing situation, they may be perceived as being at similar levels of language development. However DA can go deeper into the language abilities of each learner and reveal important differences. The mediation phase will provide a richer description of the learners' abilities and thus design individualised plans of development according to the learners' needs (Antón, 2009).

Pohner (2005) conducted an empirical DA study of advanced French L2 oral communication. In the research, he recruited six students in an advanced French foreign language course at a university level and conducted seven one-to-one tutoring sessions, including two sets of static assessments and dynamic assessments, an enrichment programme and two transfer tasks. The oral proficiency of the participants was assessed by narrating the story of the film Nine Months after watching short video clips in French in the past tense form. After the first set of DA and SA, the tutor provided an individualised Enrichment Programme targeting the participants' linguistic problem areas that emerged from SA and DA. After the enrichment programme, the second set of SA and DA were carried out. Finally, the participants were asked to compose a past-tense narrative in French of brief scenes from the movie The Pianist and an excerpt from Voltaire's Candide as two transfer tasks, with mediation from the tutor. The findings suggest that DA is an effective means of understanding learners' abilities and helping them to overcome linguistic problems. The approach is especially relevant to L2 classrooms as a method for rendering formative assessment practices more systematic.

In a longitudinal study conducted in 2010, the DA application in L2 permits not only the diagnosis of specific sources of difficulty but also provides insights into the process of listening and promotes listening ability by tracking its development through microgenetic analysis (Ableeva, 2010). The

research reported on an implementation of DA in listening comprehension at university level for intermediate French L2 learners. 7 intermediate enrolled in a French Oral Communication and Reading Comprehension course took part in the research. There were 8 sessions and a 4 weeks enrichment programme. In the three pretest sessions, one static DA (called NDA in the paper), one DA and a very near TA. The researcher acted as the tutor for the enrichment programme, followed by NDA2, DA2 and another three TA sessions as posttest. The researcher paid special attention to select authentic listening comprehension materials and included new methodological tools into L2 DA application. Three TA sessions gave a better view of DA affects.

The present study now tries to apply DA into L2 oral comprehension with the aim to get learner awareness of the problem areas and help making individual learning plan. After a set of simplified DA procedures, a reflection of the whole procedures from both the researcher and the learners were made together. In this research, DA helps not only the mediator to diagnose of the learner's problem area, but also the learner to get awareness of his own. From the both sides, they can make an individual learning plan effectively.

3. Case study

3.1 Participants

This study has two participants: the researcher as tutor/mediator (L1 Mandarin Chinese) and a learner (L1 English and Cantonese Chinese). John, 23, mixed blood with half British and half Cantonese, born in Hong Kong and grew up there till Senior High, then came to a UK university for undergraduate, graduated and is currently working in a UK consultancy company. The purpose of his Business Chinese learning is to improve oral proficiency in Mandarin Chinese especially in a business context in order to work with China or in China in the future career development. He received formal Mandarin instruction from Junior High and attended a 4 weeks` intensive language programme in Beijing, China. As a heritage speaker, he enrolled in the Advanced Business Chinese course at the very beginning of the academic year. After 40hours' group instruction, his oral proficiency in Business Chinese enables him to communicate with native speaker quite fluently and effectively. He volunteered to participate in the research whilst receiving 4 weeks' free Business Chinese lessons for compensation.

3.2 Procedures

As this research was conducted by the end of the academic year as final oral test, the researcher as the tutor had already observed the development of the learner's Mandarin Chinese L2 oral proficiency in 40 hours' group instruction. In order to better diagnose the learner's problem areas in oral proficiency and make an individual learning plan for the learner, there are four sessions in the research design.

Session 1, the learner was asked to write an essay around 250-word in 25 minutes with a Business Chinese topic. It was one pie chart and one line chart to show the trend in wearing business suits in different occasions from 1997-2007 in China. Then he was given 5 minutes to present his opinions with the help of his writing. Session 1 (static assessment) was used as a pretest to search for the learner's grammatical competence and potential problem areas of grammatical features, by observing his solo performance without assistance from the mediator.

Session 2 was a discussion between the researcher and learner. The researcher asked him several questions according to the writing and his presentation in 30 minutes. Session 2 (dynamic assessment), the mediator provided prompts, hints, suggestions, explanation etc. where necessary. The mediator paid attention to the problems showed from Session 1 and additional problems that the learner revealed through interactions in Session 2.

Enrichment Programme (EP) was one hour one-to-one course followed by Session 2 with a break. In the EP, the researcher worked as tutor to help the learner to improve his oral proficiency through correcting the problem areas showed in above two sessions.

Session 3, the learner was asked to promote a new type of mobile phone to the researcher, it was also a dialogue with mediation. Session 3 (dynamic assessment) took around 10 minutes. The learner was allowed to take note while preparation.

3.3 Analysis

All the sessions were conducted one-to-one at two separate lessons. Session 1, Session 2 and EP were conducted in one lesson. Session 3 was conducted in the lesson one week after the previous one. In order to create a real communication environment, note-taking by the participants, the learner's writing and the reflection from the participants were the ways to record. Oral proficiency includes the ability to communicate verbally in a fluent and accurate way in the target language (Stein, 1999), the analysis of all sessions was guided by this principle. Compared the writing and the presentation in Ses-

sion 1, the researcher analysed the learner's language abilities including vocabulary, grammar etc. In Session 2, the researcher got a better understanding of the learner's problem areas in oral proficiency including discourse, culture etc. The Enrichment Programme reflected the development of learner's oral proficiency and assisted in making individual learning plan. A high degree of oral proficiency implies having the ability to apply the linguistic knowledge to new contexts (topics) and situations (Omaggio, 1986). In the analysis of Session 3, the focus was the development over three sessions and the learner's awareness of some of the problem areas in L2 oral proficiency.

3.4 Discussion

Session 1(SA) served as a pretest to analyse the learner's linguistic ability and potential problem areas. John managed to describe the two charts in Mandarin Chinese using correct verbs and adverbs of degree such as "20% go up", "fall down dramatically". But in his presentation, many sentences were correct in English but wrong or improper in Mandarin Chinese. From his reflection, he did try to translate English sentences into Mandarin Chinese while doing the oral task. He had a sufficient vocabulary which enabled him to talk freely, at the same time, some of the Mandarin Chinese words he selected were from Cantonese Chinese.

Session 2 was a DA session. It focused on analysis of the problem areas that emerged from Session 1 and additional problems in Session 2. In the dialogue, John doubted the authentic of the numbers showed in the two charts. He cannot believe the total percentage of man wearing business suit at work was only 30%. This problem cannot be diagnosed from a tradition, non dynamic assessment, but it reflected the lack of background knowledge played a main role for the advanced L2 oral proficiency. As the goal of the study was to make an individual learning plan, the focus was always put on which kinds of questions the learner tended to seek during the meditation. John had phonetic problems of "zh-z", "ch-c" and "sh-s", but after several times' correction, he got awareness and paid attention during the dialogue. Then the general phonetic appearance improved a lot.

The enrichment programme was one hour one-to-one lesson. Firstly, the researcher introduced the background of modern Chinese business culture, in a word by word translation; business suit should be Western Clothes in Mandarin Chinese language. The name clearly showed its' own history. Secondly, the researcher pointed out his tends to borrow vocabulary from Cantonese and make sentences in English grammar structures. Finally both the researcher and the learner reviewed the Session 1 and Session 2 together. In John's Mandarin learning history, he was lack of formal Chinese grammar education. And he had few chances to use Mandarin Chinese in business occasions; he can easily hold a daily conversation with a native speaker, but for business purposes he need more formal sentence

structures and more background knowledge in conversation principles.

Session 3(DA) served as a posttest to analyse the development of L2 oral proficiency. Obviously John did a much better job than Session 1 and 2. He tried to use simple sentence structures with proper linking words, paid attention to phonetics problems and kept a general idea of Chinese business culture in his head. Finally the researcher was persuaded by him to purchase the new style of mobile phone.

4. Conclusion

The present study has indicated that DA in advanced L2 oral proficiency helps the mediator and the learner work together to diagnose the learner's language problem areas and make an individual learning plan for the learner.

To define oral proficiency, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines (1986) was taken into consideration: 1) quantity of speech or length of the learner's utterance per response, 2) "flow" of the learner's speech measured by pauses, 3) evidence of struggle with the language. As revealed by long-term studies, younger is better in the most crucial area, ultimate attainment, with only quite young (child) starters being able to achieve accent-free, native-like performances in L2 (Larson-Freeman & Long, 1991).DA provides the conceptual basis and assessment procedures to diagnosis and follow-up which differs from non-dynamic assessment in the way to get learners' awareness through the procedures. In this way, the development of the advanced level L2 learners' oral proficiency seems like a mission possible. In an interaction that typically involves speaking and comprehending at the same time, L2 learners need to self-monitor so that they can identify and correct production problems at the fast pace of a real conversational exchange (Huges, 2002). After the DA procedures, L2 learners will interpret his sources of problem areas and moves in the mediation. All the information is crucial to assist in making an individual learning plan.

However the present study has limitations to fully investigate DA in making individual learning plan. Firstly there was only one learner in this study; more case studies should be done in the future to better understand the DA application in making individual learning plan. Secondly an extended study with one or two transfer assessments will be important to track the development of L2 learners. Finally, although Vygotsky does not define the group ZPD in his published work, the importance of the ZPD application to a massive schooling is mentioned as "the optimum time for teaching both the group and each individual" (Vygotsky, 1998). Group DA(G-DA) is one of the new directions that re-cent L2 DA research has begun to explore(Ableeva, 2010). It applies the same principles of mediation as in individualised interactions but broadens the focus to potentially an entire class (Poehner, 2009).

It will further the understanding of how to make an effective learning plan for L2 oral proficiency if more research can be done by G-DA.

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中文的同步性现象初探

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Abstract: 语言中的同步性现象是与时间紧密联系的。Schmiedtová(2004) 对同步性问题进行了系统地分析，并将其进行了分类。Schmiedtová 认为同步的事件可以直白或含蓄的表达。直白的表达包括用表示时间的语境和用非时间性的语境。但是 Schmiedtová 对事件同步性的表达的分类的划分界限比较模糊。事实上，同步性的分类可以做有标记性和非标记性的区分。中文中的同步事件既可以用词汇直接表达，也可用体对比或者体连用 (note2) 的语法现象表达。

Keywords: 同步性，标记，体对比，体连用

1. 引言

同步性问题在一些外国语言中研究的比较深入，比如英语，德语和捷克语 (Schmiedtová, 2004), 法语 (Leclercq, 2007) 以及阿拉伯语 (Saddour, 2010)。其中 Schmiedtová (2004) 的研究最系统，也最详细。对中文的同步性问题的研究包括 Ross and Ma (2006) 的词汇表达，以及 Li and Thompson (1976) 和 Chief (2005) 对非完整体标记'着'的分析。然而，这些对于中文的同步性系统的分析只是冰山的一角。本文以 Schmiedtová (2004) 的理论框架为基础，对中文的同步性问题进行进一步的讨论。

2. 同步性理论

2.1 什么是同步性

同步性是指两个或两个以上的事件的发生时间相重合 Schmiedtová (2004: 9)。这种重合不一定是时间上的起点和终点的完全一致，事实上这种重合有五种可能性。 Schmiedtová (2004) 将其归纳为 (i) 事件的时间起点和终点完全重合，比如'我在看书，同时他在看电视', (ii) 一个事件的时间和其他事件的时间部分吻合，比如'我在看书，他在看电视', (iii) 一个事件的发生时间包含在另一个事件的发生时间里，比如'他进来时，我在看书', (iv) 事件有相同的时间起点，比如'他进来时，我开始做饭', (v) 事件有相同的时间终点，比如'他进来时，我刚做完饭'。

2.2 同步性分类

Schmiedtová (2004) 将同步性的表达方式分成直白与含蓄两大类。其中直白的表述可以用与时间有关的语言现象，包括词法的变化 (像英语中的 -ing)，时间性词汇 (比如 when, while)，句子结构 (比如体对比和体连用); 直白的表述还可以用非时间性的形式表述，包括语气助词 (比如 too), 空间的表达 , 感知动词 (比如 see) 及首句重复法。含蓄的表述主要靠人们对事物的认知或者靠所表达的上下文的信息。 如果仔细分析 Schmiedtová 对同步性的划分，可以发现她将感知动词归于了非时间性的表达。然而，在体的研究领域，动词是和时间紧密相连的 (Vendler, 1957; Binnick, 1991; Smith, 1997; Xiao and McEnery, 2004)。Vendler (1967) 曾将感知动词划分到成果类动词。 这类动词的语义特点是短时性和结果性 (Smith, 1997)。因此，Schmiedtová 对感知动词的分类并不严谨。更进一步来说，Schmiedtová 的分类完全依靠时间这种抽象的概念作为标准使得分类不易于理解。如果换一个角度来看 Schmiedtová 的分类，可以看出同步性的表达可以从语言的使用角度做有标记和无标记的区分。如图表 2 所示，同步性的标记可进一步分为词汇标记和语法标记。词汇标记包括使用时间副词 (如同时，正在这时)，从句连词 (如当 ... 的时候)，起始动词 (如开始) 以及感知动词来表达事件的同步。语法标包括完整体标记和非完整体标记。根据 Schmiedtová 的研究，动词的完整体和非完整体的对比使用，以及完整体的连用或者非完整体的连用都可以表达事件的同步性。比如英语中'When I came in, he is reading a book.'属于体对比；'When I came in, he closed the window.'属于完整体连用。除了这些和时间紧密联系的标记，其余的非时间性的表达方式都可以归于无标记的同步性。因为这些表达方式都不直接表示时间上的同步，而是需要将其转化为时间概念之后，才能确定事件的同步性。比如'他在厨房做饭，他的猫也在厨房。'，在这个句子中，他和他的猫都在厨房表示了

空间的重合，因此可以进一步诠释成时间的同步。 因此，这种表达对时间上的同步是间接的。基于以上对同步性的探讨，下面将分析中文的同步性是如何表达的。由于篇章有限，本文只对有标记的同步性进行讨论。

3. 中文的同步性

中文的同步性既可以用词汇表达，也可以用语法现象表达。 两者可以单独出现在句子中，也可以共现在句子中。

3.1 词汇标记

Ross and Ma (2006) 列出了六个可以标志事件同步的词。但是这六个词只能够表示 Schmied-tová 列出的五种同步类型中的四种。第一种表示事件的完全重合的词有 ' 同时 '，' 一边 ... 一边 ...' 和 ' 一方面 ... 一方面 ...'，这几个词既有语意上的相似，又有语法使用上的不同。' 同时 ' 可以用在不同的施事者产生的事件中，而 ' 一边 ... 一边 ...' 只能用在同一个施事者的事件中。比如 ,1. 我听音乐，同时他看书。 2. 我一边听音乐，一边看书。' 一方面 ... 一方面 ...' 则通常是用来解释前一个事件的原因（Ross and Ma, 2006）。比如，3. 他能行，一方面他年轻，一方面他聪明。

在例子 (3) 中，他年轻和聪明是同步的情状，也是他能行的原因。第二种表示事件的部分重合的词有 ' 又 ... 又 ...'，这个词既可以用来表示动态事件的重合 (4)，也可以表示情状的重合 (5)。比如，4. 他近来很忙，又读书，又工作。 5. 她又聪明又漂亮。

第三种表示事件的包含的词有 '... 的时候 '. 通常用 ' 的时候 ' 标记的事件包含于其他的事件中。因此，Ross and Ma (ibid) 认为 ' 的时候 ' 不能用来表示连续的事件。比如 (ibid: 266)，*5. 你吃了晚饭的时候，请给我打电话。第四种表示事件有同一个终点的词有 ' 等 '，' 等到 '。比如，6. 等到三月，他就回来。在以上四种类型中，Ross and Ma 没有考虑感知动词。实际上，感知动词也可以表示事件的同步性，这种同步通常是事件的部分重合，比如，7. 我看见她走进屋里。除此以外，Ross and Ma 还忽略了第五种表示事件有同一个起点的情况。这种同步性的标记词汇在中文中是可以找到的，比如在句子中使用 ' 开始 '，' 刚开始 '，8. 他进来时，我刚开始做饭。

以上的对词汇标记的分析可以用一个图表进行归纳 (见图表 3)。 这个图表清楚地显示了事件的同步类型和词汇标记之间的关系。

3.2 语法标记

在中文的完整体和非完整体的标记中，'在'，'着'，'了'和'过'是最常用的。这一小节主要分析这四个体标记是如何表达同步性的。首先看一下非完整体标记'在'。

3.2.1 进行体标记'在'

句法上'在'常常出现在动词前面，表示事件的进行 (Yip and Don, 1998)，因此 Xiao and McEnery (2004) 称其为进行体标记。中文中，'在'后面的动词必须是动态的和延续性的 (Xiao and McEnery, 2004)。 而且，因为'在'用来标记事件的发生的过程，所以它不能和有明显的时间限度的句子共现。比如，

*8. 我在聪明。 *9. 我在喝十分钟茶。

在例子 (8) 中，'聪明'是非动态的动词，所以不能用'在'来标记这个动作的进行。例子 (9) 中，'十分钟'标志了时间的限度，这与'在'所标志的事件的进行相冲突。

由于'在'表进行的特性，它所标记的事件毫无疑问的传达同步性。比如，

10. 我在看书，他在看电视。 11. 他进来的时候，我在看书。

句子（10）中的两个事件'看书'和'看电视'由'在'标记，构成了非完整体的连用。 当'在'标记的动词与另一个完整体事件形成对比时，也能够表达同步性如 (11)。 另外，'在'可以和大部分词汇标记共同使用，但是它不能和标记事件终点的词合用。原因是'在'和这类词标记的事件范围不一样。一个标记事件过程，一个标记事件终点，两个事件没有重合的部分。

3.2.2 延续体标记'着'

句法上'着'通常在动词后面，表示动作或情状的延续的状态 (Yip and Don, 1998), 所以称其为延续体标记 (Xiao and McEnery, 2004)。'着'不能与非延续性的和结果性的动词连用 (ibid)。如，

11. 我赢着。

句子 (11) 中，'赢'表示结果，而且是短暂的事件，他不能用'着'标记。此外，'着'不能与表示关系的动词，表示心理感受的动词，形容人的动词形容词连用，比如'姓'，'觉得'，'诚实'(Xiao and McEnery, 2004: 189)。但是，Li and Thompson (1976: 222) 指出当句子后面有语气助词'呢'出现时，'着'可以与动词形容词一起使用，这种情况下，'着'起到了加强程度的作用。比如，

12. 我胖着呢。

对于'着'对同步性的标记，首先，'着'可以通过体连用或体对比表示事件同步，比如，

13. 他在看书，我在床上躺着。　14. 我在床上躺着，他走进来。

例子 (13) 中，'看书'和'躺'分别与'在'和'着'两个非完整体标记作用，形成非完整体的连用。例子 (14) 中，'躺着'和'走进来'构成非完整体和完整体的对比，也表示了两个事件的同步。其次，'着'也可以单独连接两个动词或动词和动词短语表示同步性。Li and Thompson (1976) 认为'着'与它前面的动词一起为它后面的动词或动词短语表示的事件提供了背景信息。比如，

15. 我听着音乐看书。

例子 (15) 中，'看书'是主要事件，'听音乐'为'看书'提供了延续的背景。 虽然以上三种情况都可以表示事件的同步，但是他们的一个区别就是体对比和体连用的事件可以有不同的施事者，而 '着'连接的两个事件必须只有一个施事者。

与 '在'相同，'着'也可以与多数的词汇标记共同作用表示事件的同步，但是它同样不能与表示事件终点的词连用。

3.2.3 完整体标记'了'

完整体标记'了'的用法比较复杂，句法上'了'可以出现在动词之后，以可以出现在句子末尾。 但是他们的功能完全不同。动词'了'常被看作是表示事件或情状的完结或终止 (Zhao, 1968; Lü, 1980; Lin, 2003; Jin and Hendriks, 2005)，因此有些研究者认为 (Lin, 2000, 2006; Ren, 2008)'了'潜在地标志过去时态。然而，这种说法并没有足够的说服力，Xiao and McEnery (2004) 对'了'的语料库进行分析，发现'了'不仅用在表示过去的语境，也常常出现在表示现在或将来的语境。因此，Xiao and McEnery 认为'了'的功能是表示事件或情状的实现而不是完结。句尾'了'的功能也有不同的解释。有些学者认为句尾'了'表示事件或情状的改变或情状的初始状态 (Lü, 1980; Soh and Gao, 2004)，有些学者认为句尾'了'还应该表示事件或情状与当前状态的关系 (Xiao and McEnery, 2004; Chen, 2010; Chen and Shirai, 2010)。比如，'我吃饭了'表示吃饭事件已经改变，并且表示了这个事件的影响延续到了现在。

关于'了'的同步标记功能，动词'了'和句尾'了'都可以与非完整体标记之间的对比实现同步性表达，比如

16. 我在做饭，他来了。　17. 他笑着走了进来。

句尾'了'的连用也可以表达同步性，但是这种表达不如体对比的表达明显，比如

18. 他高了，也胖了。

但是动词'了'的连用同步性就十分不清楚，除非有明显的词汇标记出现，因为动词'了'只表示事件的实现，而不表示两个事件时间上的联系。比如，

19. 我喝了水，吃了饭。　20. 我喝了水，同时吃了饭。

动词'了'和句尾'了'的连用不表示事件的同步，但是他们可以表示事件的连续性，比如

21. 我吃了饭就饱了。

3.2.4 非完整体标记'过'

非完整体标记'过'常常用在动词后面，表示经历，所以也被称之为经历体标记 (Xiao and McEnery, 2004)。'过'标志的事件是和现在的情状是断开的 (Smith, 1997)。因为'过'着重于事件的经历，而不强调事件本身的延续与短暂。所以'过'标志的事件很难与其他体标记标志的事件共同表示同步性。即使可以表示同步性事件，也需要其他词汇标识或其他含蓄的同步性表达方式的连用。

4. 结论

本文在 Schmiedtová 对同步性分析的基础上，将同步性重新进行了分类。新的分类从语言的标记入手，不仅突出了同步性与时间的关系，也使得分类更加清楚。同时，在新的分类的基础上，本文还对中文的同步性表达进行了分析，构建了一个针对中文同步性研究的基本框架。通过分析，可以看出词汇标记和语法标记在中文中既可以独立的使用，也可以共同出现来表达事件的同步性。值得进一步研究的问题是汉语作为母语的人倾向于用词汇标记还是用语法标记实现同步性表达？学习中文的外国学习者如何使用这些标记来表达同步性？

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Notes

Note 1. 感谢 Dr Emmanuelle Labeau 关于同步性问题的建议。

Note 2. 体是指从时间的角度对一个事件的情状的表示（Comrie,1976: 3）。体有完整体 (perfective aspect) 和非完整体 (imperfective aspect) 之分。体对比 (aspect contrast) 是指事件的完整体和非完整体动词或者事件的非完整体和完整体的动词的对比 (Schmiedtová, 2004: 41)。体连用 (aspect juxtaposition) 是指两个相邻的动词同时用完整体或者用非完整体形式表达 (ibid: 43)。

图表 1 Schmiedtová (2004) 的同步性分类

```
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │  Simultaneity   │
                        └─────────────────┘
                 Schmiedtova (2004)
          ┌─────────────┐              ┌─────────────┐
          │  Explicit   │              │  Implicit   │
          └─────────────┘              └─────────────┘
      ┌──────────┐   ┌──────────┐
      │ Temporal │   │Atemporal │
      └──────────┘   └──────────┘
```

Inflectional morphology	Particles	World knowledge
Lexical items	Spatial expressions	
Constructions	? Verbs of perception	Contextual clues
	Anaphors	
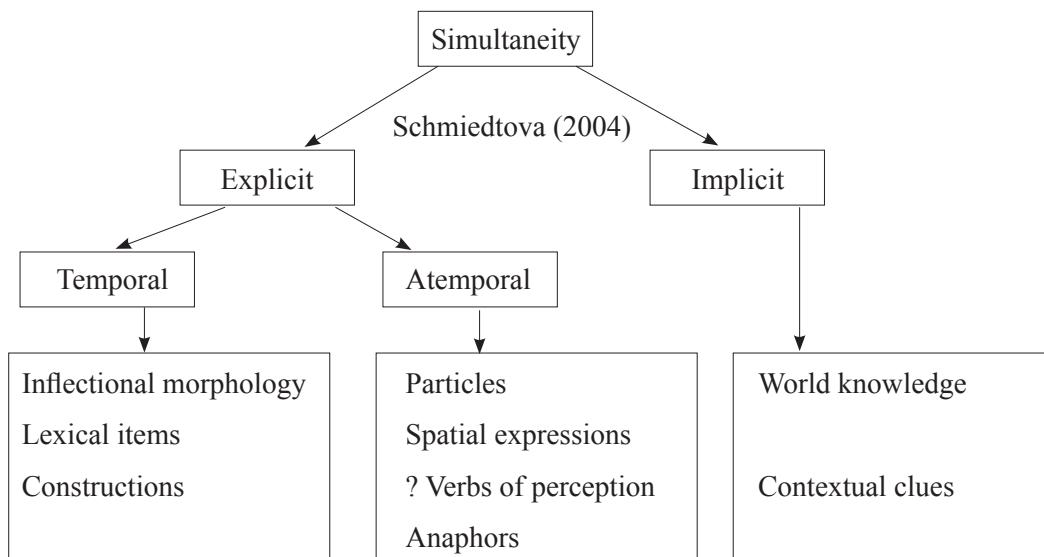
图表 2 对同步性表达的重新分类
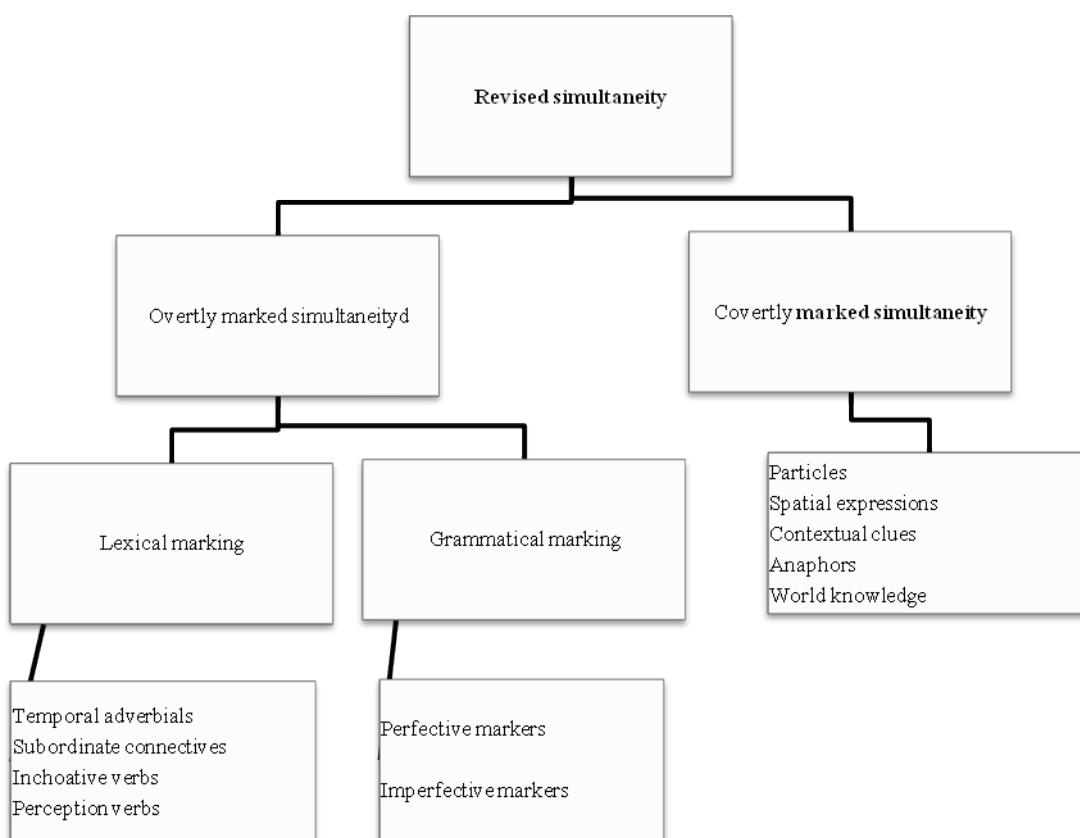
图表 3 词汇标计与同步类型比照

同步类型	词汇标记
事件完全重合	同时，一边 ... 一边 ...，一方面 ... 一方面 ...
事件部分重合	又 ... 又 ..，感知动词
事件包含	... 的时候
事件同起点	刚开始 / 开始
事件同终点	等 / 等到

英文字母与汉字学习—网络技术下的汉字互动教学探索

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摘　要：各国的文字都是语言的符号化呈现，每个人对自己熟悉文字都有亲切感。每一个中文的学习者都会把中文和自己的熟悉文字进行异同分析。我们从外形上比较英文字母和汉字会发现，英文字母不仅在书写笔顺上与汉字相同，而且有的英文字母也可以做汉字的部件，英文字母可以解释汉字了。比如：H 可以看作是"艹（草字头）"，P 可以看作是"尸卩阝"，汉字"下"可理解成"T+ 一点"，汉字"之"字可理解成"一点 +Z"。一个汉字就可以分解成英文字母组合了，而且是正确的笔画书写顺序，汉字将变得易解、易写、易识，并增加亲和力。本文将结合通过我多年的网络远程教学经验，探讨应用 FLASH 和其他网络技术，对这种方式进行互动教学研发。

关键词：英文　英文字母　汉字　书写　互动　网络教学

一、英文字母书写与汉字笔画书写

文字从诞生发展到成熟，都经历从形象图画到抽象符号的转变成过程。现在能见到的字母、数字、汉字，它们全都是由基本笔画组成的。汉字笔画是构成汉字楷书字形的最小书写单位，比如横、竖、撇、捺、点等等，通常是只用一笔写出来。在对英文字母和汉字的最小书写单位进行比较分析过程中，发现它们不仅有相同的笔画，而且书写笔顺也是一样的。

1. 字母中的汉字笔画

现在开始对字母书写进行分析，看看字母的笔画和汉字的笔画有那些相同的地方。

请看右图，大写的字母"A"的书写来：

第 1 笔，起笔向左下方，这和汉字的撇相似；

第 2 笔，起笔向右下方，这和捺相似；

第 3 笔，从左向右的直线，这和汉字的横画完全一致。

大写的字母"T"中，横画书写从左向右，竖画从上往下。字母笔画和汉字笔画完全相同。

在字母"X"中，撇画和捺画也是非常清晰。这三个字母中，不仅笔画相同，书写的笔顺也和汉字笔画相同。

2. 英文字母对应汉字笔画和部件

依照英文字母笔画和汉字笔画相对应的方法，把 26 个英文字母的大写和小写全部进行笔画对应分析，列出了笔画名称、对应笔画、和字母相似的汉字，全方位来考察，得到了《英文字母对应汉字笔画》表，注：本表中的字母对应汉字笔画是以字库中的字形为依据准进行归纳总结的，参照手写字母来对应归纳的。如右图：

综合上面的这个表的信息，可以得出下面两点结论：一个是英文字母的基本笔画有横、竖、折、点、弧线五种；另一个是，除 C、O、S 这 3 个字母之外的英文字母都包含有汉字基本笔画。

二、英文字母与汉字笔画、部件的外形相似

1. 能够代表汉字笔画的字母

先来看英文字母与汉字笔画。能够代表汉字笔画的字母，如右图。简单一说，如果汉字笔画中出现了"竖钩"，就指定他的新名字叫"J"。

如果汉字笔画中出现了"竖折、撇折、竖弯钩"，就指定他的新名字叫"L"。这样看一个字母就可以代表三个汉字基本笔画。

如果汉字笔画中出现了"竖、横、撇、捺、点"，都可以用字母 I 来代表。也可以看成是数字"1"。

2. 英文字母与汉字部件相似

汉字部件的定义是：由笔画组成的具有组配汉字功能的构字单位，简称部件。例如木、心、口、也等。现在找出一组英文字母和汉字的部件进行外形比较。如下图：
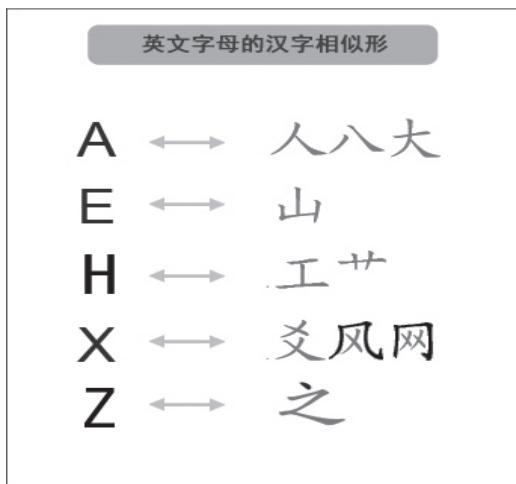
"A"和"人、八、入"外形相似；

"H"和"工、艹"外形相似；"E"往左转和"山"外形相似；"X"和由"撇捺交叉"的汉字部件外形相似。"Z"和"之"的下部外形相似。字母和数字中还有很多这样的例子，在此就先不一一举例说明了。
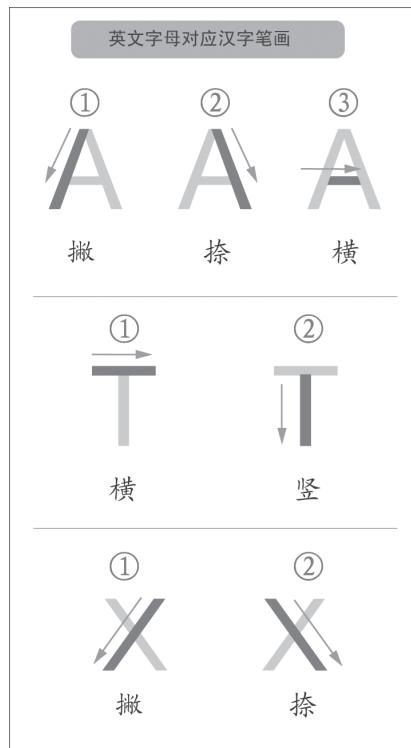
三、用英文字母解析汉字

通过了分析对比，我们看到字母包含有汉字的基本笔画，字母和汉字笔画、部件在象形上有相似，可以进行相互代表的理解。只要汉字里出现了这些相似的外形，就可以把他们转化成英文字母去理解。英文字母可以解释汉字了。

英文字母解析汉字可以分为两种情况：一种是字母稍稍变形，不用和别的字母组合，就形成了一个汉字。比如：① E 往左转九十度就是"山"，E 横画向左延长就是王；② F 横画延长就是"干"；③ H 进行九十度的旋转可以看作是"工"，在 H 的横画延长时就是"艹（草字头）"等等。另外一种就是两个或者两个以上的字母组合形成一个汉字。而且这种组合与汉字的书写的笔顺不矛盾。比如：①"T+ 一点"可组合成汉字"下"；②"一点 +Z"可组合成汉字"之"；③"I+u"可组合成汉字"山"；④"H+E+A"可组合成汉字"美"；⑤"H+n+A"可组合成汉字"英"等等。

英文字母对应汉字笔画							
大写	对应笔画	名称	相似形	小写	对应笔画	名称	相似形
A	ノ ＼ 一	撇 捺 横	人八大	a	乀	弯钩	
B	｜	竖	β 8	b	｜	竖	6
C				c			
D	｜	竖		d	亅	竖提	
E	一 乚	横 竖折	山	e			
F	一 ｜	横 竖	干于	f	一	横	
G	フ	横折		g	亅	竖钩	9
H	｜ 一	竖 横	工	h	｜ フ	竖 横折	
I	｜	竖	1	i	、 ｜	点 竖	
J	亅	竖钩		j	、 亅	点 竖钩	
K	｜ ノ ＼	竖 撇 捺		k	｜ 捺	竖 捺	

代表汉字笔画的字母

|	
竖钩	亅 — J
竖折 撇折 竖弯钩	L ∟
竖 横 撇 捺 点	I

四、英文字母解析汉字的网络化应用

国际汉语学习中，汉字学习的重点是识与写。识包含了音、形、义。写这一方面历来是国际汉语界的教学难题，不光学生头痛，老师也对写汉字感到为难，不好处理。通过上面部分的分析，现在我们找到了用英文字母来解析汉字的方法。这对母语是英文的学习者会有相当大的亲和力，并为学习者提供了新的选择。两三个字母的拼写就成了一个汉字，按写英文字母的习惯进行书写就能写出一个汉字，这是多么有趣的事情阿！用英文字母解析汉字，汉字学习将变得易解、易写、易识、有趣。这将会大大增加汉字的亲和力。

这么好的一个学习理念，要进行有效的传播，还得借助现代科学技术的发展。在网络化的时代里，我依靠多年来的网络远程经验，对这一种方法进行了网络化应用探索。

有关网络化应用探索的说明：强调格式规范化，视觉形象化，操作互动化。格式规范化，是说做出来的应用文件能够符合网络标准；视觉形象化，是说尽量使用动画效果，合理的界面布局，让学习者能很容易地看到要表达的内容；操作互动化，是基于人机交流的设计，让学习者可以方便地使用。

在注意了以上原则的同时，本着体现中华文化特色的观念出发，在汉字的书写上采取了毛笔书法效果，分解书写和正常书写两种选择。目前的多媒体汉字书写演示所采用的是电脑字库字体，平均匀速播放。这种形式就好像是主持人在字正腔圆地播音，但是生活中没有人那么说话。写字演示也是这样的道理，要给学习者一个现实中的汉字是怎么手写出来的。最后，要展现的网络化应用探索详细内容见附件的 Flash 格式的文件。几个主要界面如下。

英 = H + n + A

H ⺌ n 节 A 英
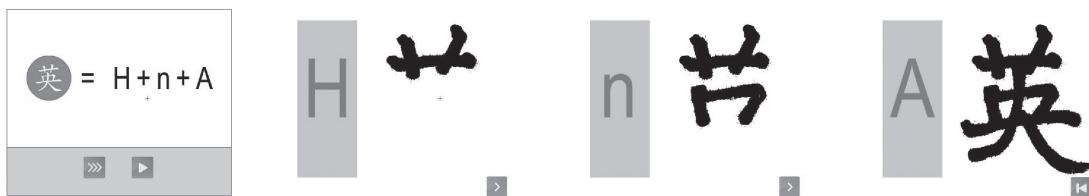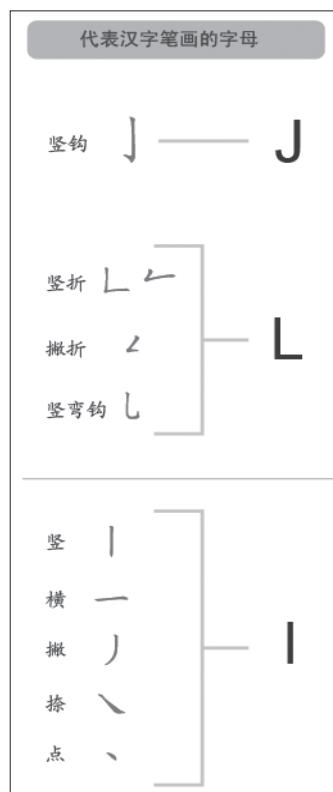
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Quxiang-thinking of new words of Chinese language

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Abstract

In the international context, Chinese native speakers are still creating and using new Chinese words by the way of Quxiang-thinking. As in the following examples: sometimes we create Pidgin English which later is transformed into Chinese character word; sometimes we transcribe the English prefix into Chinese quasi prefix firstly, and then transform the foreign words into pure Chinese words by the way of homophonic Quxiang-thinking or imagery Quxiang-thinking; Sometimes we transcribe the English word into Chinese morpheme to become quasi suffix, and then to create a series of Chinese words with it by the way of Quxiang-thinking. As for letter words, although there are only few words with the structure of "letter + Chinese Character", we can still see the strong Quxiang-thinking in it.

Keyword: new Chinese words, Quxiang-thinking, international context, Chinese native speakers

Introduction

Quxiang-thinking is one of the traditional ways of Chinese thinking. It is a way that the thinking always goes with pictures, by the imagine medium, to reason out some abstract ideas. This way of thinking was in the process of using and creating the ancient Chinese and ancient Chinese characters. In the international context, a number of new Chinese words have emerged with grammars different from traditional Chinese ones. Meanwhile Chinese native speakers still insist on creating new words,

transforming loanwords with Quxiang-thinking by the way of homophonic pun, analogy, relativity, etc., and using the lifelike Chinese Characters, lively Chinese words, Chinese word-building to transform the loanwords into the system of Chinese vocabulary. I have found some rules in the Quxiang-thinking by studying the newly appeared Chinese words in the latest five years and I will analyze them from four aspects as follows:

1. Self-created Pidgin English word and finally turned into common Chinese word

One of the classical examples is the Pidgin English word "ungelivable". It seems much like English word for its prefix "un" and suffix "ble", but "geli" in the middle of it actually is the Chinese Pinyin for Chinese Character 给力, which means strongly support, very cool, very good, etc. I believe nobody understands this "English word" without any additional explanation. The word ungelivable expresses some information to us: with the globalization, especially in the situation that English is compulsory course in the school in China, the thinking way of many Chinese has been tending towards that of English; Meanwhile they Still stubbornly keep their own traditional way of thinking which is called Quxiang-thinking. In this example, the core etyma geli is Chinese Pinyin, though the prefix and the postfix are English. In the etyma geli, one part of it is ge，and its Chinese character is 给, which means enough supply and this meaning was borrowed by way of Quxiang from silk bundle (系). Another part of it is li, and its Chinese Character is 力, in the same way from ancient dead stock lei (耒 ㇏), expressing the meaning of cultivating and making living with strength. The meaning of geli (给力) comes from the combination of the two morphemes ge (给) and li (力). The word 给力 has a visual character belonging to Chinese Quxiang-thinking. In the beginning, some young Chinese talk with the word ungelivable, gradually and eventually almost all Chinese people like to talk with the word 不给力 or 给力 in their daily communication.

Another explanation believes that 给力 is a pure Chinese word, and 不给力 is also a renewed ancient Chinese word. They said that 给力 is a word from Zhangzhou dialect of South Min, which came from ancient South Min dialect. The pronunciation of 给 is the same as 激 in Zhangzhou dialect. In South Min, 激力 is read [kik-lat], which means energize, force, push out strength, etc. 莫 in South Min dialect is read [bok], which means no. 不给力 came from "莫 + 激力"."不给力" means uninteresting, dull, meaningless, lack of wallop, not enough in shaking, and so on in dialect. Whether or not 不给力 is truly from Chinese dialect or ancient Chinese in Central Plains, this method of studying and deeply digging in Chinese historic words have disclosed their national and traditional mind connecting with Quxiang-thinking.

All of the researches on 不给力 in the area of Chinese Linguistic mainstream easily remind peo-

ple of another new net word 囧 . 囧 means embarrass, be pressed with, dead end online. The shape of the character is from people's face, eyes and his mouth when he is in quandary by way of Quxiang-thinking. 囧 is so popular that nearly every internet user likes it very much, mainly because of its shape of Quxiang. In fact, 囧 is an ancient Chinese Character which appeared early in the Shang Dynasty. But the meaning of it was much different from that of today. New popular word 囧 tells us, Chinese nation has always kept their Quxiang-thinking from the very ancient time to today. Let's go back to the word ungelivable (不给力), if we don't give extra explanation to it, no foreigner can understand it I believe. Ungelivable is obviously a Chinese native word covered by a foreign language coat.

2. Translating loanword into Chinese compound word by adding quasi prefix, and creating new word by homophonic Quxiang or imagery Quxiang

Popular new word 微 博 is translated from the English word micro-blogging. Micro is literally translated into 微 , which means little. Blogging is transcribed into 博 for its pronunciation. Blog or blogging is a weblog, which was translated into 博客 , and the abbreviation is 博 . 客 means some people in Chinese. So 微 博 is a typical loanword which is half transcribed and half transliterated. There are some other words like this are called Loanword in Form in the book *Modern Chinese Linguistic* edited by Zhang Bin such as 苹果派 (apple pie), 冰淇淋 (ice － cream), 剑桥 (Cambridge), 摩托车 (motorcycle), etc. The deep meaning of Loanword in Form is obvious: superficially, they are foreign words, because there is something in the word being translated by the way of pronunciation without any real meaning in it. But in reality, there is at least one Chinese morpheme in which trans-lated by free way, and the word building is complied with Chinese grammar. So they have become Chinese words by Chinese Quxiang-thinking.

The Quxiang-thinking is obviously in the series of derived words from 微 博 (micro-blogging). Some examples are as follow (the underlined words are homophonic morpheme):

围脖 (bib): it is 微博 (micro-blogging). Where there is 微博 (micro-blogging), there is 围脖 (bib), and updating micro-blogging is weaving bib. Though 微博 is Chinese word materially, Chinese would like to strengthen its Chinese linguistic character to transform it thoroughly into native word with the homophonic word 围脖 by kicking away its form of loanword. From 微博 (micro-blogging) to 围脖 (bib), homophonic, one of the way of Quxiang was used.

脖主 : blogging master. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

脖领 : neckwear. Leader in micro-blogging, who has a lot of fans. Homophonic Quxiang and im-agery Quxiang.

脖梗 : neck stem. People in micro-blogging are good at writing critical articles like the thorn of

the flowers. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

微波炉 : microwave oven. An oven often is used to cook or heat semi-manufactured food, similarly, these persons are good at writing inflammatory articles from title to content. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

铂金 : platinum. Platinum has a precious silvery-white metal, those famous micro-blogs are similar with it. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

长脖鹿 : Giraffe. One meaning, this kind of micro-blog is good at articles which are brief, original, and foresighted. Second meaning, blogging master is much arrogant. Third, the bolgging master focus attention up others' privacy by his stretched-out neck. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

伯爵 : landgrave. Nobles of micro-blogging are always famous men or experts in all walks of life. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

漂泊 : retail in micro-blogging. One meaning, there isn't any rules in their writings in timetable. Another meaning, articles of these kinds of blog masters are reshipments almost in whole. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

老伯 : forerunner of micro-blogging just likes an older. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

泊位 : berth. Though these kinds of blog masters are lower than 脖领儿 , 伯爵 , 老伯 in status, they also occupy some seats. Homophonic Quxiang and imagery Quxiang.

From the view of word building, 微博 belongs to compound word added to a quasi prefix. In the international context, there are other words added to the quasi prefix 微 , such as: 微软 (Microsoft), 微光束 (microbeam), 微克 (microgramme), 微伏 (microvolt), 微秒 (microsecond), etc. Similar to 微 as a quasi prefix, there are some other quasi prefixes which are translated from English word, and then become Chinese morphemes, for some examples: 半 (semi), 超 (super/ultra), 次 (sub), 单 (single/mono), 双 (di/bi), 反 (anti/counter), 非 (non/un), 类 (quasi), 前 (pre), 亚 (sub), 准 (para), 多 (poly/multi), 全 (all/whole), 泛 (pan), 后 (post), etc. Some compound words including these quasi prefix are: 半自动 (semiautomatic), 半元音 (semivowel), 超音速 (supersonic speed), 超声波 (ultrasonic), 次大陆 (subcontinent), 次声波 (infrasonic wave), 单细胞 (unicellular), 单晶体 (monocrystal), 双唇音 (bilabial), 双音节词 (disyllable), 反导弹 (antimissile), 反作用 (counteractive), 非卖品 (unsaleable), 非婚生 (illegitimate), 亚健康 (subhealth), 亚热带 (subtropics), 多方位 (multimode), 多角的 (multangular), 全自动 (whole-automatic), 全天候 (all-weather), 泛神论 (pantheism), 泛阿拉伯主义 (pan-Arab).

There are some words like these, they are: 裸婚 (naked marry), 裸奔 (streaking), 裸考 (non-extra-mark examination), 裸捐 (all-out donation), 裸官 (naked officer), 裸退 (naked retire); 亚疾病 (sub-disease), 亚熟男 (sub-mature man); 泛户外 (pan-outdoor); 洋腐败 (foreign corruption: corruption happens in multinational company), 洋漂族 (job-hopping foreigner); 医闹 (people making money by

helping patients to make troubles when medical accidents happen), 医诉 (medical treatment lawsuit); 晒客 (people share something online), 晒品 (share products online), 晒友 (friends come from sharing products on line); 潜歧视 (underlying discrimination); 菲佣 (servant from Philippines), 菲警 (police from Philippines)⋯

Obviously, more and more Chinese characters companied by quasi prefixes symbolize their trend of internationalization. We can see two sides from this phenomenon, one side is, Chinese is trying to adjust itself for better communication; the other side is, the adjustments are apt to absorb loanwords into Chinese grammar and Chinese word-building, and this is the main stream. QuXinag-thinking is stalwart in it, because these prefixes are almost substantive existence, but not empty words, not equal to English prefixes.

3. Translating English words into Chinese compound words by adding postfix to Chinese etyma

After Watergate scandal was translated as 水门事件 , a series of new words has appeared: 气候门 (climate gate), 艳照门 (Photo scandal), 拉链门 (Zipper scandal), 电话门 (telephone scandal), 监控门 (inspect scandal), 骷髅门 (death's-head scandal), 女友门 (girl friend scandal), 艳女门 (nuria scandal), 伊朗门 (Iran scandal), 虐囚门 (abuse war criminal scandal), 情报门 (emissary scandal), 国旗门 (national flag scandal), 翻译门 (translate scandal), 违法门 (irregularity affair), 白宫门 (white house affair), 歧视门 (discriminate affair), 秘书门 (secretary affair), 解说门 (comment affair), 暴风门 (cyclone affair), etc.

Besides scandal, there are other meanings in the Chinese morpheme 门，such as big affairs or huge news. The similarity among these new words is resounding or explosive like Watergate scandal. So the method in it is imagery Quxiang.

Meanwhile, the quasi suffix 门 is a Chinese word root, and it is an typical Chinese character with vivid Quxiang-thinking. 门 is a substantive. The ancient shape of it is 囲, which was made by a double-doors by Quxiang-thinking In modern Chinese language, 门 is a free morpheme, not only a morpheme which can be combined with other morpheme, but also a word can be used freely. There are some meanings in it like family, classification, etc. There is a popular saying: Not one family, not in one door. Chinese will associate it with something of family when you say some words like × × 门 . The deep reason why 门 is active and furtive as a quasi suffix is the Chinese Quxiang-thinking.

There are many active derivatives with quasi suffix in recent years. The quasi suffix such as: 族 (family), 奴 (slave), 客 (quest/visitor), 民 (riffraff), 日 (day), 节 (day/festival), 者 (person), 化 (ize/tion), 群 (group), 后 (post), 症 (symptom/disease), 党 (party), 霸 (holder), 卡 (card), 吧 (bar). New compound words with them like: 蚁族 (ant family), 装忙族 (pretend-to-be-busy family), 麦兜族

(Mcdull Family), 草根族 (grassroots), 捏捏族 (pinching-loving Family), 刷刷族 (mark-breaking family), 学租族 (rent-for-school family), 啃老族 [NEET(not in Education，Employment or Training), family (parent dependents)], 月光族 (paycheck-to- paycheck family), 和吃族 (a restaurant social gathering), 飞鱼族 (the flying fish family), 赖校族 (campus dweller), 奔奔族 [benben(traveling) family], 急婚族 (urgent marriage family), 啃椅族 (chair-biting family), 慢活族 (slow life family), 试药族 (drugs experimenting family), 网络晒衣族 (showing clothes on internet family), 洋飘族 (foreigners in China to better treatments keep changing jobs), 陪拼族 (shopping follower), 捧车族 (car owners leaving cars seldom used), 代排族 (hired queuer), 毕婚族 (marriage-upon-graduation family), 难民族 (the working poor), 考碗族 (examining for secure employment family), 转存族 (dump family), 试客族 (trial product fans), 晒一族 (internet sharer), 晒黑族 (disclose dark social realities group), 拒电族 (electro-rejecter), 爱邦族 [anticol (pectoral syrup) addict], 帮帮族 (helpers on the internet), 炒鸟族 (speculator on birds), 掏空族 (emptied employers), 懒婚族 (reluctant-to- marry group), 晒卡族 (card sharer), 淘券族 (discount voucher lover); 孩奴 (slave to children), 考奴 (slave to examinations), 房奴 (home mortgage slave), 车奴 (slave to cars), 白奴 (white collar slave), 节奴 (slave to festivals), 垄奴 (slave to monopoly), 墓奴 (slave to tomb), 证奴 (slave to certificates), 窑奴 (slave to coal cellar), 血奴 (blood seller), 婚奴 (slave to marriage); 拆客 (tear open lover), 换客 (exchanger on internet), 拼客 (partaker), 晒客 (internet sharer), 威客 (witkey), 印客 [inker(internet publisher)], 试客 (trial product fans), 群租客 (group rental), 淘客 (cappers of online shopping), 绿客 (environmentalist), 心理黑客 (psychological hacker), 职客 (job introducer), 刷书客 (book scanning); 草根网民 (grass root netizen), 成考移民 (migrants through college entrance examination for adults), 国际高考移民 (migrants through international college entrance examination), 网络暴民 (mobs on the internet), 基民 (fund investor), 新股民 (new stock investor); 排队日 (Queuing Day), 休车日 (Car Free Day), 礼让日 (Comity Day), 车辆排队日 (Vehicle Queuing Day), 无车日 (Car Free Day); 擒人节 (Kumquat Festival), 减压节 (decompression festival), 非遗节 (intangible heritage festival), 上海国际电影节 (shanghai international film festival); 福寿螺患者 (Pomacea canaliculata suffer), 新明星学者 (new scholar celebrity); 朝鲜半岛无核化 (Denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula), 核设施去功能化 (Disablement of nuclear facilities); 股市症候群 (stock market syndrome); 80 后 (post-80) s, 70 后 (post-70s) 90 后 (post-90s); 周末忧虑症 (weekend anxiety), 梦食症 (Nocturnal sleep related eating disorder); 寂寞党 (lonesome party), 盗版党 (The pirate party); 面霸 (interview holder), 麦霸 (microphone holder), 考霸 (examination holder); 蹭网卡 (high-power wireless network card which can search for nearby network for free), 迷卡 (mini-card), 拼卡 (card sharing); 眼吧 (eye bar), 爽吧 (decompression bar), 嚼吧 (gum-chewing bar), 自驾吧 (traveling-by-car bar), 手工吧 (handicraft), 熨吧 (ironing bar); 去功能化 [Dismantle(disable) nuclear facilities], 去核化 (Denuclearization). (The last two words not only has quasi prefix 去 , but also has quasi suffix 化)

Some quasi suffixes above are Chinese native morphemes like family 族 , slave 奴 , riffraff 民 , and some came from foreign words like 卡 (card)and 吧 (bar). The latter is pure syllable morpheme from English words. Their Quxiang-thinking is only kept in the word-building but not in the meaning of the morpheme. But the amount of this kind of quasi suffixes is limited. It seems that Chinese nation tends to dislike using this kind of meaningless morphemes. The former has kept the Quxiang of the Chinese character, so the new words are more picturesque. For one example: 民 (riffraff), the ancient Chinese character shape is 𝌀 , Quxianged from a sharp stabbing an eye. Tt has been demonstrated that its initial meaning was a blind slave who must do much hard work. That is to say 民 is almost a picture of one part of a face of the ancient slave. So the meaning of the compound words with 民 (riffraff) such as 庶民 (plebeian), 黎民 (common people), 贱民 (humble riffraff), 草民 (grass riffraff), 贫民 (pauper), 平民 (civilian), 暴民 (mob), 愚民 (stupid riffraff), etc., are all low among social classes. The new words like 草根网民 (grass net-person), 成考移民 (adult test immigrant), 国际高考移民 (international college entrance examination immigrant), 网络暴民 (net mob), 基民 (fund civilization), 新股民 (new stockholder) are negative in meaning more or less. Needless to say another net new word 屁民 (fart civilian) is infamy at all.

4. Absorbing amount letter words while keeping many words with word-building letter + Chinese character

E 两会 (E Two Meetings) is a new word in 2010. It was a net action, initiated by people.com. The E in this word is homophonic, adopted by the same sound from Chinese word 议 (discuss). So E 两会 has used homophonic Quxiang. This word is a combination with Chinese and English elements in the international context.

There are some other new words like E 两会 (A font): Π 型人才 , U 盘 (寄生虫), FTO 基因 , 3am 女郎 , etc. Π 型人才 (Π font talent) means a kind of high level compound talents who have at least two expert skills. The lower part of Π is the visual picture of them. They can digest and control many kinds of knowledge at work, and the up part of Π is the visual picture of them. The Quxiang-thinking in this word is obvious. U 盘 (USB flash disk), disk is translated as 盘 . The word-building of U 盘 is: the first letter of English word + Chinese morpheme. FTO 基因 is Fat Mass and Obesity Associated. Adding 基因 is to easily understand the word. 基因 is gene. The word-building of FTO 基因 is: the first letter of English word + Chinese word (plus for explanation). 3am 女郎 is 3am girl. The word-building of 3am 女郎 is: English word + Chinese word (translation). The Quxiang-thinking in these new words is obvious. Foreign words become compound words with meaningful Chinese morpheme.

There are some new words like QUID (Quasi Universal Intergalactic Denomination) (B Font, typical letter word), which was borrowed directly from English. Some Chinese scholars said that they are not Chinese new words. Others call all of them letter words.

In the book *Language Situation in China (2006)*, there are 192 A font words, and 1185 B Font words. This book said: "Letter word has become one part of our life.… Typical letter words are often used as jargon, in the area such as electron, medicine, auto, economy, chemistry, physical, institution, brand, computation, etc." "The main function of English letter in Chinese language is code name or order like A area, B building." "There are many mistakes in the writing of the letter words, because they are not Chinese native words, they lack of meaning in the font, the amount of them is few, and they lack of distinguishable character to lead wrong writing, for example: POS be written as POSE."

Conclusion from B Font: Chinese language always insists on its Quxiang-thinking, though the amount is small in total letter words.

Conclusion from A Font: typical letter words are often limited in some professional area, which are non-universal and will be tested for their lifetime in the future.

5. Conclusion

Quxiang-thinking is still the main stream of creating and using new Chinese words in the international context. As to a series of phrases in structure of "sth + 门" such as "气候门", they are created through 2 phases. In the first place, the English word "gate" is liberally translated into the Chinese morpheme "门", as the quasi suffix. Then, the Chinese morpheme "门" is used by the method of imagery Quxiang through its own quxiang system. As for the phrase "E 两 会", it embodies that the method of tone Quxiang of Chinese and English. Although the quantity of A Font words is much smaller than that of B Font words, A font words embody the tenacity of Quxiang-thinking of Chinese language.

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海外汉语教材生词编写与课堂实践的一致性

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摘　要： 目前汉语教材多把"课文"作为教材选编的中心，导致教材脱离课堂教学实践，教材的编写体例千篇一律，要想突破这种僵化的模式，就应该尊重汉语课堂教学实践，把生词作为教材选编的中心，构建起一个以生词为中心，以语法为组织方式，以言语既能训练为目的，从字到词、句、语段、语篇的立体化、全息化的网络式的全新的编写模式和教学模式。

关键词： 生词、课文、教材、编写模式、

一、汉语国际推广视野下的"三教"问题

"三教"（教师、教材、教学法）是困扰我们汉语教学和推广的老问题，其中教学法是无形的，它必须附着在教师或者教材之上，主要包括二个方面，一是教学内容的选择与安排，二是课堂组织，包括老师、学生、教学内容等在内的课堂互动。图一表示的是基于对外汉语教学理念的教师、教材、教学法和学生之间的关系。
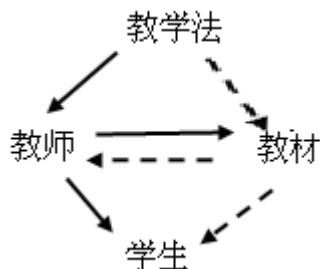

图一

这四者中以教师为核心，教师是受过专业的对外汉语教育或者系统培训的专业教师，他运

用自己掌握的知识和教学技巧去备课、备教材，对教材的内容进行补充并重新组织，然后教给学生，从这个角度来说，学生所学习到的是老师对教材进行大量补充和细化、提升的结果。所以就"三教"之间的关系来说，教师是核心。

这种对教师的严重依赖导致汉语教材作为"教材"功能的严重退化，教学法，也就是"怎么教"在教材中没有体现，谭春健（2010）认为"传统对外汉语教材通常把'学汉语'、'用汉语'的教材编成了关于'汉语'的教材，重视对汉语语言要素和语言运用的描述、分析和比较"。朱志平等（2008）调查了从1998到2008年十年间出版的对外汉语教材就发现，一半的教材遵循的还是传统的编写体例：课文——生词——语言点——注释——练习，另一半的教材开始尝试着把"怎么教"编进来，但很有限，所以刘珣（2000）批评目前的教材"雷同和粗制滥造现象严重，在教学法的改革探索方面下的工夫不够"。相对于教师的劳动，目前的绝大部分教材只是一个"文本"和一堆"学习材料"，起不到引领教学、规范课堂的目的。

在汉语国际推广的新形势下，情况发生了很大的改变。目前全球的322所孔子学院有专兼职教师4100人①，这些教师中真正受过专业的对外汉语教育训练的比较少，任期通常是2到3年，时间上也很难保证他们成为教学的专家，也就是说在新形势下教师不再是以前的专业教师，这是一个大的改变。这样图一中"教师"地位就改变了，这种改变如图二所示：
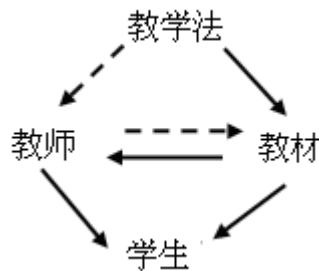
图二

教师并没有受过系统的汉语教学法的专业训练，吃透教材的能力就不如专业的汉语教师，这种情况下，如果还是像以前那样把教师作为全部教学活动的重心，就很难保证教学的质量和效果，实际山，现在"许多专家学者对汉语教学的质量和效果都表示出了不同程度的忧虑"。（马箭飞，2004）问题的解决之道除了花大力气培训教师，更重要的是把课堂教学中原先由老师来设计的"怎么教"，也就是图一中的教学法编进教材，由教材来保证课堂的教学质量，把对教师的要求转移到对教材编写者身上来，"教材编写者心中要有教学理念，他要懂得教育规律和语言学习的规律，心中要有教学法，编写教材的时候其实已经预想好如何教"，这样编出来的教材才能做到"教材的后面隐藏着教学法的考虑，而教学法的背后隐藏着教学理念的考虑"，（崔希亮，2010）要编出这样的教材，编写者首先要熟悉课堂、尊重课堂实践，进而把它提升为自己的编写理论，概括出编写模式。

二、以课文为中心的生词编写体例的局限性

受传统的教材编写体例的影响和制约，课堂教学一般有这么几个教学环节，导入新课——处理生词——处理语言点、语法——处理课文——复述和表达——布置作业，这是典型的以课文为中心的教学模式，如图三所示：

图三

基于这种教学理念的课堂教学把生词看作为理解课文服务的，是课文的附属部分，所以绝大部分教材只是在课文之后或者之前给出一个生词列表，比如：

（1）出境卡 chūjìngkǎ 名词 exit card

出境 chūjìng 动词 to leave the country

卡 kǎ 名词 card（《长城汉语》第四册）

这样的编写体例作用只有两个：认读生词和理解词义，而对于用英文注释来帮助理解词义的效果，很多研究者都提出了质疑（卜佳晖，2004；王汉卫，2009）。首要的质疑是释义不准确，英汉之间很难做到完全的对译，再加上编写者对生词的英文注释又过于随意，对教学就会产生误导。比如汉语教材把"高兴"和"幸福"都注为"happy"，学生就会说出这样的句子"我一定要去上课，不然老师不幸福。"（卜佳晖，2004）有的释义甚至是错误的，比如"出境卡"翻译为"exit card"，而中国海关的外国人出境卡英文是"departure card"。其次是英文释义割裂了汉语构词规律。比如上边的三个词，教材列为三个生词，从英文注释来看，这是三个孤立的生词，而从汉语来看，这三个词是有联系的：出境＋卡＝出境卡，如果把这个构词的规律纳入生词的学习中，这三个生词实际上就是一个生词，学生的学习负担就减轻了三分之二，而英文的注释就无视汉语的这种构词规律，"出境卡"中的"出境"和单独的"出境"英文翻译是不一样的。那么有经验的老师在课堂上是怎么处理生词的呢？

三、课堂教学中生词教学的几种模式和方法

3.1 以字／语素为教学的最小单位。

课堂教学中老师在处理生词的时候，通常是从字开始的，"出境卡"中"出"是已经学过的字，学生学过"出来、出去"，"卡"的意思很好解释，老师可以借助实物展示来释义，展示一张银行卡，然后让学生自己替换出"学生卡、电话卡"等，"境"老师可以在黑板上画一幅中国轮廓图，然后指示出边境线，告诉学生"境"的所指是什么。至于"出境"的构词规律，可以根据由已知到未知的教学原则，引导学生说出已经学过的"出国、出口"，总结其构词规律是"从……出"，这样就不难理解和掌握"出境"的意思了。这样的教学实践蕴含着很重要的教学理念，就是一定程度上的"字本位"的教学思想。"字本位"就是把"字"作为汉语的基本语法结构单位来进行研究。（王骏，2005）是一种更能体现汉语本质的理论，它统领着汉语学习的其他各个方面，因为它超越了狭义的"语法"范畴，牵涉到了构词法乃至文字的领域。（王骏，2005）把"字"作为教学的基本单位还可以解决离合词的教学问题，离合词是词的问题，实际是字的问题。"帮助"和"帮忙"英语的翻译常常不去区分这两个词的构词方式，学生也常常将这类词视为复合词，会说：

＊（2）你能帮忙我吗？

而我们的教材因为是把词作为最小的教学单位，所以对离合词也有意回避，（刘春梅，2004）而破解这个难题的关键就是从字入手，刘春梅（2004）建议在生词表中，除整体标注外，对组成成分中的自由语素单独标注。

所以通过分析字的意思和用法能够达到把汉字教学和词汇、结构的教学有机结合起来。既弥补教材编写中汉字教学的薄弱环节，又把汉语的构词法纳入教学中来，这对于学生记忆和扩展词汇量大有帮助。

最新研制的《音节和汉字词汇等级划分》就改变了"词汇牵着汉字走"的传统做法，把常用汉字的筛选放在最重要、最优先的位置，注重汉字的常用性和造词能力。（刘英林、马箭飞，2010）这种转变的目的正是通过把"字"作为基本的教学单位来大力破解"汉语难学"的瓶颈问题，可以说是抓住了问题的关键。因为字才是汉语音义结合的最小单位。

3.2 图片、图表和生词互动。

多媒介教学技术的普及应用，使得图片的获得变得很容易。比如教颜色词直接出示一个色轮就可以了。而教"看"和"看见"的区别时可以用两幅图片，一个图片中一个人拿着望远镜

在看，同时从造字法的角度分析一下儿"看"是由"手"和"目"组成，意思是把手搭在眼睛上往远处看，另一幅图是出现在望远镜视野中的东西，比如一辆自行车，很形象地展示出"看见"表达的是"看"这个动作的结果"见"的意思，在这个基础上再复习或者学习"听／听见"，就很容易了，如果用英语简单地翻译成"look/see"就失去了一次训练学生汉语动补式构词法和思维方式的好机会，相比英语翻译，图片释义简洁而且一举多得，课堂质量和效率都有很大的提高。

除了释义，还可以利用图片拓展教学的内容，比如在学习"出境卡"时，老师在 PPT 上展示出银行卡、交通卡、学生卡等，让学生通过阅读卡上面的文字信息来匹配卡的类型，这样就在一定程度上训练了阅读能力；在学习"出境卡"时，不妨把真实的中国海关外国人出入境卡打印出来发给学生，让学生填写上面的信息：姓名、国籍、护照号码、性别、出生日期、签证号码、入境事由、航班号／船名／车次、签名等，一个生词引出一个很真实的任务交际，这样就提升了生词学习的层次和深度以及针对性。虽然近几年出版的教材插图比过去丰富，有的教材也开始配置真实的照片，插图与教材内容的相关性开始增强，（朱志平等，2008）但是在生词表中还没有把插图作为注释的工具，更别提把插图作为一个独立的元素融入到生词的操练中去了。

3.3 通过生词内部的有机联系来为生词分类教学。

教材生词表的生词完全按照它们在课文中的出现顺序来呈现，这种编排方式也和教学实践脱节，给教学带来很大的不便，"词语之间缺乏内在联系，体现不了汉语词汇系统的内在逻辑，不能激发学生联想、类比等内在的创造力"，（胡鸿等，1999）比如在学习时间词语的时候，老师会这么展示下面的词语：

表一：

天	前天	昨天	今天	明天	后天
年	前年	去年	今年	明年	后年
月	上上个月	上个月	这个月	下个月	下下个月
星期	上上个星期	上个星期	这个星期	下个星期	下下个星期

这样的安排学生很容易就能找到汉语造词的规律，体察汉语的思维方式，也帮助记忆。还可以把上面的词汇进一步和语法、句型的教学结合起来，用表格的形式来组织：

表二：

	早上	上午	中午	下午	晚上
前天					
昨天					
今天					
明天					
后天					

围绕着这个表格，可以设计多重操练形式，比如，可以让学生根据自己的实际情况完成表格，然后和其他同学结合下列句型：

（6）你前天早上做什么了？我前天早上学习中文了。

（7）你明天早上做什么？我明天早上工作。

采取一问一答的形式，相互询问对方最近几天的安排，并填写在表格中，还可以作为课下作业让学生把表中的信息写一段话，这种基于信息交换的任务式操练让学生体会到语言学习的乐趣，在交际中同时提高了听说读写的技能。还有的老师（卜家晖，2004）会把词汇表中同词性的词聚集在一起，然后按照他们在句中的语法位置分列开来，比如，名词列于第一列，副词列于第二列，动词列于第三列等，在语义匹配的基础上，引领学生组词成句，这种把词汇学习按照一定的逻辑融入到句型，甚至语段中去的立体化的组织方式一举多得，既直观又高效。

3.4 通过构建交际参与者之间的信息"差"来组织课堂。

从课堂组织过程来看，受制于目前生词表式的生词编写体例，生词处理环节很难做到以学生为中心，实现在"做中学"的任务式学习方式。我们借鉴任务交际法"差"的概念，（马箭飞，2002；刘壮等，2007）"差"的形成是因为参与交际的各方"只拥有信息的一部分，需要通过双向交际来获得完整的信息才能完成语言使用任务"（刘壮等，2007）"差"的存在推动着交际双方主动参与到交际中来。而目前的课堂组织模式更多地依靠教师的传授，教师掌握了完整的信息，而学生则是被动地接受这些信息，教师和学生之间，学生和学生之间没有双向交流的信息"差"存在，所以学生总是被动地回答老师的问题，师生之间的一问一答类似于"审问"。比如在练习生词"套、客厅、卧室"三个生词，老师利用图片设计这样的互动练习：（张辉、杨楠，2006）

（8）教师问：你们看，这套房子厨房和卫生间怎么样？

学生答：有点儿小。

教师问：你们看，那套房子厨房和卫生间怎么样？

学生答：比较大。

教师领说：这套房子厨房和卫生间有点儿小，那套房子厨房和卫生间比较大。

这种练习方式看似是一个互动练习，实际上在学生的回答中没有包含所要练习的生词，即使学生说出了"这套房子厨房和卫生间有点小"，其中的三个生词也是重复了老师的句子得到的，而不是学生自己主动去使用这三个词从老师那儿获得信息。其次老师设计的这两个问题从图片上很容易就看出大小，答案是唯一的。这样不但老师和学生之间构不成交流的"差"，学生之间也不会形成交流的"差"，学生的回答会比较机械，学生参与这个练习过程的"参与度"就很低，而"学生参与多少与他在学习过程中所能获得的东西是平衡的"，（汤普森，1996），那么如何提高学生课堂练习的"参与度"呢？我们的方法就是在师生之间、学生之间创造构成交流动力的"差"。比如表二，学生表格中填写的内容是不同的，这样就想知道对方最近几天的日程安排是什么，同时因为最后的任务要求是把搜集到的对方的信息连同自己的信息写成一段话，也迫使学生去主动搜集对方的信息。

还有一种练习方式也很有效，就是从生词表中挑出重点生词，一般在 6 个左右，然后让学生用这些词组织一个故事，讲给其他同学听，听到的同学要做记录、对没有听懂或者没有讲具体的地方要提出自己的问题，最后把听到的故事再讲给全班同学听或者是作为书面作业写下来。这样的设计一方面从语篇的角度理解和练习如何使用这些词语，另一方面学生听说读写技能训练时是在信息传递和交流意义上进行的，是在"做中学"，而不是机械地模仿。

四、以生词为中心的课堂组织和教材编写新模式

从上面对生词处理的梳理可以总结出一个以生词为中心的课堂组织模式和教材编写模式：

4.1 从字的角度解构生词，扩展词汇量。包含三层意思，第一，它是基于生词的从词到字的自上而下的解构和分析，主要目的是词的理解和扩展，兼顾汉字的学习。第二，从字的角度对生词的"生"进行一定程度的量化。以《长城汉语》第四册第六单元为例，我们可以把生词表中的二十个多音节生词作如下细分（注："熟字"指在此单元之前这个汉字单独或者在其他词中出现过；"生字"指在此单元之前这个汉字从未以任何形式出现过）：

A 熟字＋熟字：办理、报到、校外、照片

B 熟字＋生字：手续、学费、出境、起飞、回答

C 生字＋熟字：入学、然后、记得、签名

D 生字＋生字：飞机

E 熟字＋熟字＋熟字：、办公楼

F 熟字＋熟字＋生字：来不及、来得及、报名费

G 生字＋生字＋熟字：准考证

H 熟字＋生字＋生字：出境卡

这样从汉字学习角度来看，其中的"生字""续、费、境、飞、答、入、然、记、签、机、准、考、及"就是教学的重点。还可以按照《音节和汉字词汇等级划分》对汉字的三个等级的划分来确定"生字"的教学等级。教材编写者可以对每一课的生词中的生字进行突出显示，比如可以使用不同的字体或者加上下划线，甚至可以标注出汉字在《音节和汉字词汇等级划分》中的等级。第三、从字到词的构造规律，即构词法。

4.2 以听说读写言语技能训练为目的，以生词带动字、词、句、语段、语篇的学习，形成一个以生词为中心，以语法为组织方式，从字到词、句、语段、语篇的立体化、全息化的网络。如图三所示：
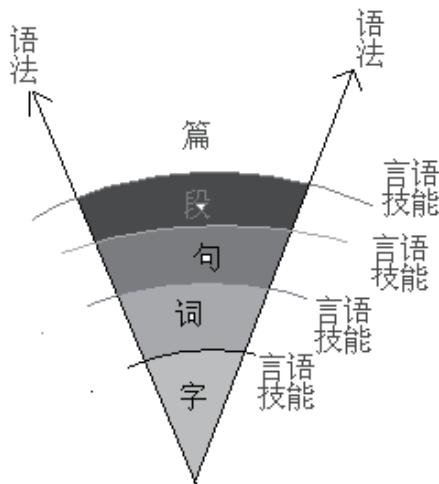
图三

这个模式和以课文为中心的编写模式形成鲜明的对比，它把生词作为教学的中心，在从字到词、句、段甚至篇的每一个节点都是语言要素、语法和言语技能的汇合，同时这个模式把"字"作为教学的基本单位，展示出从字到词的一直到句的组合"理据"和汉语组装式句法特点，是符合汉语特点，尊重教学实践的模式。

附注：

① 《制定科学规划，实现孔子学院可持续发展》《孔子学院》2011 年第一期 第 10 页

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汉语作为外语的语体认知及其教学

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摘　要：语体是基于语言功能的分类，在目前的对外汉语教学中，由于对"功能"所指内容与范围的人为限定与简单化，导致语体教学收效甚微，大部分的教材语言呈现中性化的语体态势。语体认知的缺失，导致学生在实际的交际环境中产生各种语用失误。随着汉语教学的发展，语体的细分化教学势在必行。

关键词：语体　认知　对外汉语　书面语　口语

1. 语体认知教学现状

1.1 语体的本质：语体是基于语言功能的分类

在语言的实际使用中，语体是一个必不可少的概念。我们常说"见什么人说什么话"，或者说"什么场合说什么话"，这种基于不同语境而采用的不同表达方式就形成了各种各样的语体。所以说，语体属于语用的范畴，它是按功能风格对话语进行分类的，在语言的交际功能中发挥着极其重要的作用。

语体研究离不开对社会交际环境种种复杂状况的细致考察。人类文明史的发展，重要标志之一是人际关系的内容和形式日趋复杂，因此在各种交际环境中使用的语言也相应地呈现出越来越丰富的色彩。为了如实地反映社会交际环境的复杂性，进而充分地勾勒出语言在各不相同的交际环境中所显示的特殊色彩，语体研究似乎有必要讲究一定的层次性。这种层次的衡量尺度就是语言材料或语言手段在实际使用中的"相对频率"。语体学中经常要提到语言"共核"这个概念，所谓"共核"就是指在各种社会交际环境中人们都要用到的那部分语言材料或手段，这在语言运用中的相对频率是最高的，我们通常所说的基本字汇、基本词汇、基本句式之类，

就是构成"共核"的物质内容，这是第一个层次。但是，掌握了"共核"部分，还不能自由地、得体地应付某种特定交际环境的需要。为此，人们在"共核"以外还必须掌握更多的语言材料和语言手段，必须进一步懂得"共核"内部某些语言材料和语言手段细微的功能差别等等。目前，一些语体学的专家、学者对语体进行了分类研究，提出了迄今为止多数人认同的分类方法。概括起来就是：

$$
语体 \begin{cases} 谈话语体 \begin{cases} 随意谈话 \\ 认真谈话 \end{cases} \\ \\ 书卷语体 \begin{cases} 科学语体 \\ 艺术语体 \\ 政论语体 \\ 公文事务语体 \end{cases} \end{cases}
$$
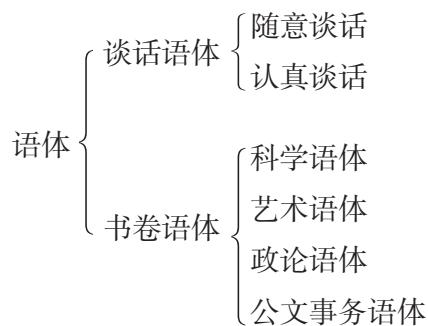
（引自王德春《语体略论》）

这一分类，以及基于这一分类而进行的语体色彩研究，其价值是明显的。它使人们对语言可变性的理解更具体，更充分，因此对人们在不同交际环境中恰当地运用语言更有实际的指导作用。但是，应当承认，上述的分类，还只能说是语体研究的第二个层次，姑且可以名之为"次共核"的研究。"次共核"的研究成果回答的只是某类语体的共性的问题（尽管它已经与"生活"大大贴近），还不能充分地反映出社会交际环境的复杂性，还不能体现出各种不同的具体交际场合对语言的各种"特殊需求"。看来研究还得深入到第三个层次，即深入到"特殊使用域"的"特殊用语"中去。近来人们在这种"特殊使用域"里已经有所开拓，有所发现。例如，在科学语体中又细分出专门科学语体和通俗科学语体，在公文事务语体中又细分出法律事务语体、商业事务语体、行政事务语体，如此等等，就是一种有价值的探索。

1.2 功能的简单化导致语体认知的缺失

即使是以汉语为母语的人，对语体的认知与习得也是一个渐进的过程，更遑论把汉语作为外语来学习的习得者了。语体学习，其重要性是不言而喻的，在近来流行的功能型教学法，任务型教学法中，语体的概念都得到了一定的贯彻。然而，由于对"功能"所指内容与范围的人为限定与简单化，导致语体教学收效甚微，

从理论上说，要求语体学穷尽社会交际的每一个具体的、特殊的领域，是不可能的。"使用域"这个概念的本身就反映了它所能研究的只是范围宽窄不等的一些交际领域而已。理论总是概括的，它能反映和指导"一般"，却不可能完全穷尽"个别"。然而，语文教学一旦与社会

生活中语言运用的实际相贴近、相沟通，它就无法再滞留在"共核"和"次共核"的层次上，而必然要求语体学的研究向"特殊使用域"突进。当前，中等职业技术教育的发展，更使这种需求日益显得迫切。如果说，一般普通中学，学生的职业取向是未定的，因此语文教学的目标要考虑未来适应面的广泛性，而对于语言的"共核"和"次共核"的研究成果已大致可以满足教学的需要；那么，中等职业技术学校的学生却是专业定向的，而且专业门类划分得越来越细，特定的专业将有一些特殊的交际领域，对语言来说也就有一些"特殊使用域"，因此教学的内容就决不可能再停留在"共核"和"次共核"的层次上了。这决非理论上的奢望，而是实践上的渴求。

近年来，商务汉语、公务汉语、旅游汉语、少儿汉语等新课程的出现，就是对现实需求的一种反应。随着汉语教学的发展，基于语用的语体方面的细分化教学势在必行。

1.3 基于语体认知缺失而产生的语用失误

学生在实际应用中常常会发生一些基于语体认知缺失而产生的语用失误。其中最为突出的问题是难以区分口语词和书面语词之间的差别，常常是口语词和书面语词混用，或文学词语和俚俗词语杂用，时而一句大白话，时而一句文绉绉的书面语，文白夹杂，显得不伦不类。

其实我们早就有这种发现，虽然学生完成了一定阶段的汉语学习后，听说读写能力有了相当的提高，一般性日常会话和书写简单的句子不会有太大的语法问题，但对于汉语的语体知识，比如词语的褒贬差异、语体风格差异以及句式功能差异等却知之甚少。由于缺乏专门的语体知识学习和必要的语言实践体验，学生难以把握汉语词汇中某些词语的色彩和句式的不同表达功能。由于语体知识的匮乏，使学生在实际交际中屡屡碰壁。随着汉语水平的不断提高，学生对可使说话写作得体的语体知识的需求会越来越迫切。所以我们认为，教师有责任在教学过程中引入一定的语体知识，以满足学生日益增长的实际需要。

1.4 目前对外汉语教材中语言的信息量与语体分布

近几年，. 随着我国对外汉语教学事业的发展，对外汉语教材也越来越多。然而大部分的教材，对语体强调的不够，在有的教材中甚至处于缺失的状态，这在教学实践中，特别是从学生的长远发展来看，是很严重的一件事情。语体知识应该在教材中得到进一步的体现，这也是语言的应用性的一以贯之的体现。

目前的对外汉语教材，其信息量与语体的选择主要还是以中正平和为主，即选择一些语体色彩不浓的"中间语"来表述一些日常生活的常态。这样做的优点是语言具有较强的规范性，学生入门比较容易，但如果长此以往，从初级阶段到中高级阶段都是这种语言模式，就完全抹杀了汉语的特点，尤其是汉语的美感，而学生学到的只是"课堂汉语"，无法在现实生活中顺

利地使用汉语,特别是在不同的语境地中得体地使用汉语。因语体感的缺失而造成的语言使用的笑话,不仅在低年级的学生中,甚至在已经学习了十多年汉语的高年级学生中也不时发生,这就不得不提醒我们,语体教学的必要性已经近在眉睫了。

1.5. HSK 考试中书面语与口语的分布及其与教材的差异

在目前的 HSK 考试中,特别是初中等的考试中,大量的书面语与口语同时并存,语体色彩浓厚,呈现出与对外汉语教材不同的面貌,值得引起我们的重视。

总的来说,在 HSK 考试中,听力部分以考核口语为主,语法、阅读、综合部分以考核书面语为主。当然,在听力部分中,也有一些段落取选于新闻报道,与日常生活用语差别较大;而阅读理解的第一部分中也存在着一些对俚俗词语的理解替换检测。对于学生来说,语法考试部分内容,基本上所学教材已有涵盖,听力部分则在会话教材中多有涉及,唯有阅读理解(二)及综合部分的语段是全新的,需要靠平时的积累,基本功的训练,才能较好地完成,而恰恰是这些语段,却与教材的风格相差甚远,往往使学生无所适从,难以卒读。这主要是由于教材的选文,往往是经过编者加工过的语料,而 HSK 中的阅读材料多为直接选用,呈现了作品的原貌,尤其是体现了不同的语体色彩。

以袁冰、赵延风编著,北京大学出版社 2000 年 4 月版的《HSK 汉语水平考试模拟习题集(初中等)》为例,其中的第六套模拟试题的阅读理解第二部分的语段分别为:如何在野外辨别方向、关于入学考试情况介绍的信件、节食与寿命、金丝猴介绍、女性对高科技的参与问题、人类学介绍、一位画家的人物传记、第一人称记叙的关于开药店的经历。综合填空部分所选语段内容分别为:居住在现代化大都市的感想、对"陪考"现象的思考、虚拟宠物、一本书的自述性内容提要、游记、停业通知、自强不息的残疾人、关于粤菜的书籍广告、下岗再就业报道。从中我们可以看出,语料的文体比较多样,有说明文、记叙文、议论文、信件、游记、人物传记、新闻报道、内容提要、广告、通知等,其中说明文所占比率较高,实用性文体比较多。文章的内容比较偏重生活、工作、学习等日常交际方面以及对中国现代一些社会现象的介绍和分析。而综观现在的汉语读写教材,很少有涉及到这么多文体的。尤其是一些通知、广告、书籍的内容简介等实用信息载体,在教材中反而很少涉及。当然,在中级阶段的汉语学习中,往往有技能分项训练,科目实行细化,这些文体在写作课、报刊课等专门课程的教材中或许能有所接触,但总的来说,还是不够,而初级汉语学习阶段在教材中所能接触到的语体就更少了。因而,如果想在一年的学习后参加 HSK 考试并取得较好的成绩,学生就不得不参加考前培训班,做大量的模拟习题,通过自学来掌握这些教材上没有的实用信息。这不能不说是现有汉语教材的一种缺失。当然,这样说并不意味着所有的教材都必须以 HSK 为指针,为 HSK 考试服务。教材的编写必须考虑到语用原则,而语用很重要的一个方面就是在不同交际环境下的所采用的不同语体,其多样性又怎么能被忽视呢?

HSK 考试受其本身的局限，为了提高考试的效度和公平性，其语体虽然多样，但总体语言风格还是比较接近中性的，书面色彩不是太浓。如与日常交际内容差距较大的抒情散文、内容深奥的哲理散文、肖像和动作描写占得较多的记叙文等都不多见，一些小说、戏剧等虚构类作品则几乎没有。而在教材中，这些内容和体裁的作品完全可以被引入，特别是在中高级的汉语教材中，这样做可以呈现语言学习的梯度，增加多样性与趣味性，培养学生的语言审美能力，提高学生在实际生活中运用汉语的能力。

2. 语体认知教学策略

2.1 语体与课程设置

在学历教育中，可根据学生的专业需求开设一些具有鲜明语体色彩的课程，如：科技汉语、经贸口语、报刊阅读等。对于汉语言专业的学生来说，还可以开设汉语语体类型、口语语体和书面语语体对比、典型口语和典型书面语转换例析等基于语体的高层次语言课程。在非学历教育中，也可以适当添加一些涉及诸如广告、招牌、警示语、产品说明、标语口号等有关社会生活的实用文体方面的教学内容。

2.2 语体与教材编写

在通用教材编写方面，可适当减少教材的中性语体比重，增加口语教材与书面语教材在语言材料和表达方式上的区分度。我们可以选取真实的口语语体语料编写会话内容，明确口语语体与书面语体的区别；也可以提供多样化的语体，帮助学生提高感受语体差异的能力；还可以提供同一题材的多种不同语体，培养学生在不同领域、不同场合运用恰当语体进行交际的能力。在中、高级汉语教材中，语言的取向尤其要多样化，不能把书面语教学仅仅局限于文学作品的范畴内。在教材中可以适当加入对语体知识的介绍及练习，在语言的处理方面，应该少一些咀嚼，多一些原汁原味。

在专业教材编写方面，商业、公务、旅游、科技等语言学习类的教学用书正日益增多，而以语体特征为教学目的的对外汉语专业类教学用书还很少见。这主要是因为我们目前对口语及书面语的研究还很不够，大量的语法规则还没有得到总结并运用到教学实践中去，以致在教学中无规律可循，知其然而不知其所以然，只能用现象来解释现象，让学生依靠不断积累的感性认知来取得缓慢地进步。在书面语的教学研究方面，哈佛大学的冯胜利先生取得了可喜的成就。他提出了汉语韵律语法一说，发掘出一批嵌偶单音词和合偶双单词，总结提炼出书面正式语体的特征，并将之运用于对外汉语的教学实践中，编著了《汉语书面用语初编》一书，不仅提供

了理论依据，还提供了大量在教学实践中可直接使用的语言材料，使书面语教学变得有规则可循，为对外汉语教师提供了教学的利器，也为汉语学习者提供了更上一层楼的钥匙。

2.3 不同语体的对比教学探索

首先，要使学生明白不同语体的区别性特征，掌握不同语体的词汇、句式、修辞以及句段的区别。语体不同，词语、句式、语篇的构成特点就不同。对外国学生的语体知识教学，也应该从这些具体的语言材料出发。

其次，要以典型语体为切入口，有序安排常用语体的教学。我们知道，各种语体的实际使用频率是不一样的。教师宜选取使用最多、语言最具概括性的语体为切入口，有序地安排教学。比如公文语体的写作，我们可以从外国学生接触最多、最迫切需要掌握的应用文——简历、信函或便条入手。以信函的写作为例，可以依照私人信函、事务信函、商业信函、传真信函和电子信函的顺序来教学。这种思路主要基于语体都有其"共核"，只要掌握了一种原型语体的语言特征后，其分支语体的特征就相对容易把握。

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爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语推广中的本土化教材建设

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摘　要：中学过渡年是爱尔兰中学不同于其他任何国家中学的特殊设置。爱尔兰中学汉语教学首先在过渡年阶段展开。针对过渡年体制的特殊性及爱尔兰中学的教学特点，基于以学生为中心，发挥本土教师优势等编写理念，我们采用行动研究的教育模式，研发了适用于爱尔兰中学过渡年阶段的本土化汉语教材。该教材具有主体性、趣味性、实践性、灵活性等多个特征，对爱尔兰中学汉语教学具有重要意义，并为本土化汉语教材的研发提供了宝贵的经验。

关键词：爱尔兰，中学，本土化，过渡年，汉语，教材

一、前言

近年来，"汉语热"在全球持续升温，但是本土化、国别化汉语和中国文化教材的缺乏成为汉语国际推广面临的瓶颈问题之一（李玉兰，2009；李嘉郁，2008），这一问题的存在严重阻碍了汉语和中国文化在诸多国家的推广（冯瑄，2006）。与此密切相连的另一个问题是，合格的汉语和中国文化的本土教师的严重匮乏（宛新政，2009；易杳，2008）。因此，汉语和中国文化教学目前普遍存在着与当地教育体系脱节、教学理念和方法不够本土化的缺陷。学界正逐渐展开对本土化、国别化汉语教材研发的探讨（陆俭明，2008；赵金铭，2009；王怀成，2009；

李禄兴、王瑞，2009）。

本土化汉语和中国文化教材的缺乏同样是爱尔兰中学汉语推广中遇到的主要困难之一。自2009 年起，都柏林大学孔子学院与爱尔兰国家教学大纲及考试委员会合作，专门成立了爱尔兰中学汉语与中国文化教材研发课题组，在爱尔兰中学过渡年（Transition Year）阶段的汉语和中国文化教学实践的基础上，研发出了一套具有本土特色、适应本土教师使用的中学过渡年汉语和中国文化教材。该教材在教学理念、研发方法以及课程内容上，都遵循了高度本土化的原则，力图与当地中学外语教学现状接轨。同时，该教材糅合了多种信息化技术手段，具备了易学、易用、易操作等特点。本文是这一本土化教材研发项目的总结，并试图在此基础上探讨教材本土化的方法和规律，揭示教材本土化的重要意义。

二、爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教材本土化的必要性和迫切性

在过渡年汉语推广开展之初，我们选用了《快乐汉语》等教材，但我们很快发现，以教授汉语语言知识为主要内容的教材，由于并不是专门针对爱尔兰中学过渡年而研发，因此并不适用于爱尔兰中学的过渡年汉语推广。为了研发出适用于过渡年汉语推广的本土化教材，我们对爱尔兰中学的特点及其过渡年体制的特殊性进行了深入分析。

2.1 爱尔兰中学过渡年教育体制的特殊性

过渡年的设置是爱尔兰不同于其他国家中学教育体制的重要特点。过渡年是介于初中三年学习和高中两年学习之间的一年，其目的在于促进中学生成长，通过引导学生获得更为全面的技术和学业技能，从而成为更具自我主导性的学习者（Note 1）。过渡年学习还注重学生工作、职业经验和人际交往能力的获得，树立其自信心和社会责任感，引导学生放眼于课堂外的世界，因此，过渡年的课程设置多以培养学生兴趣为主，纯粹的语言知识学习为主的课堂往往会受到学生的冷落。

由于以培养兴趣为主，在教学内容安排上，过渡年课程的教学往往浅尝辄止，并不要求非常深入，每课课时也较短，这就要求过渡年的汉语教材一方面避免冗长、深入的大段讲解，另一方面，要包含安排学生互动参与的教学活动。

中学过渡年会开设大量科目供学生自主选择，目的在于横向拓宽学生的知识面，以实现过渡年树立学生成熟人格的终极目标，这也要求在过渡年展开汉语教学时，必须保证内容的趣味性、形式的多样性和手段的先进性，以吸引学生参与。中学过渡年的课程并不要求必须与初、高中课程相衔接。爱尔兰绝大部分中学并未在初中三年内开设汉语课，因此，过渡年的汉语推广对象往往是零起点、没有汉语基础的中学生。这是过渡年汉语教材研发需要考虑的重要问题。

总之，爱尔兰中学过渡年设置的特殊性，决定了适用于爱尔兰中学过渡年的汉语教材肯定不同于以往的任何国家和地区的汉语教材。

2.2 爱尔兰中学双语必修的现实对教材的要求

英语是爱尔兰的日常交际语言，爱尔兰语是爱尔兰人的民族语言，二者同为爱尔兰中学生的必修语言。英语和爱尔兰语课程是中学过渡年阶段必修的语言课程，这一现实意味着爱尔兰中学生已经负担着繁重的语言学习压力，在此之外，选修任何一门外语都会加重学生的语言学习负担，更何况汉语尚未进入爱尔兰中学教学大纲，没有后继课程作为衔接。因此，中学过渡年汉语教材的研发更要考虑在话题内容和难度设置等方面进行精细选择和加工，以吸引学生的参与。

2.3 爱尔兰中学学校性质影响语言学习内容的选择

由于宗教传统的关系，爱尔兰全部 750 所中学可以分为男校、女校、混合校三种类型，而从学校主体的性质来区分，中学又有私立、公立之分。因此，爱尔兰中学可以分为公立男校、公立女校、公立混合校、私立男校、私立女校和私立混合校六种类型。中学的不同性质往往影响着汉语学教学内容的选择。这一点和世界上其他大多数地区也是不同的。

2.4 爱尔兰中学的地区分布比较分散

由于历史原因，爱尔兰全国四分之三的人口集中在都柏林及其周围地区，其余四分之一（约 100 万）人口分散分布在都柏林外的全国各地。都柏林大区外其他地区的中学在教学条件上相对落后，在交通条件上不够便利，这些外部原因是制约这些地区发展汉语教学的主要因素。因此，开发多种形式的多媒体、网络化汉语教材将能有效缓解这些地区汉语教学需求与软硬件条件相对不足之间的矛盾。

2.5 爱尔兰合格的中学汉语师资较为缺乏

在爱尔兰中学进行汉语推广是一项前人没有做过的、开拓性的工作，因此爱尔兰中学缺乏汉语教学经验的积累，爱尔兰本土的中学汉语教师极为缺乏，这是对研发适用于爱尔兰中学汉语教材提出的一个巨大挑战。目前在各中学任教的都是中国国家汉办委派给都柏林大学孔子学院的教师和志愿者。但随着过渡年汉语教学的推广，越来越多的学校向我院提出开设课程的申请（2011 年 9 月学期开始，我院将与近 50 所中学合作开设汉语与中国文化课程）。师资不足的

问题愈发突出，但长期来看，爱尔兰中学汉语教学必须主要依靠爱尔兰本土教师来承担，才能使这个项目实现可持续性发展。适用于过渡年教学的汉语教材必须可以做到使稍微具备汉语基础甚至汉语零起点的本土教师，经过短暂培训，就能够独立使用该教材进行教学。因此，如何编写出一套适用于爱尔兰本土教师使用的教材变得非常迫切。

2.6 目前没有适用于爱尔兰中学生的汉语教材

目前没有适用于爱尔兰中学的汉语教材，更没有适用于过渡年的汉语教材。过渡年阶段，学生能自由选择课程，并且课堂非常活跃。课堂气氛是否能吸引学生注意直接影响到学生是否能完成该课程一年的学习。由于没有考试压力，学生更期待的是直观生动而不是照本宣科的教学。适用于爱尔兰中学的汉语教材必须充分理解爱尔兰中学生的心理特点和学习规律。在这一点上，本土教师有无可比拟的优势。因此，过渡年教材研发必须有本土教师的参与，做到适用于爱尔兰中学生。

2.7 电脑技术的发展对本土化汉语教材的研发提出了新的要求

互联网的发展为高效学习、自主学习提供了可能。中学过渡年阶段汉语教材的研发应充分利用网络上的文本、图片、音频、视频等多种媒介，并利用多媒体教学及其他信息化手段，积极开发网络配套学习资源，为爱尔兰中学生和汉语教师建立多种形式的教学资源库，以调动教材使用者的学习热情，实现教师对教学资源的有效利用和中学生对教材的自主学习。

三、中学过渡年本土化汉语教材的编写理念

基于爱尔兰中学教育的特点、中学过渡年教育体制的特殊性以及中学汉语教学的现状，我们认为，适用于爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教学的教材研发应该遵循以学生为中心，以吸引学生参与和发挥本土教师能动性为目标的编写理念，做到寓教于乐，教学内容与爱尔兰主流社会对接，更好地为本土学生和教师服务。

3.1 以"玩"为主，以激发兴趣为目的

根据过渡年的教学要求，过渡年教学使用的汉语教材教学内容应以带领学生在课堂上"玩"为主，在生动有趣的中国文化介绍中，适当穿插汉语学习的元素，使学生在轻松愉快的气氛中学习汉语。因此，教材需要设计大量的问答、游戏、手工、体验、竞赛等课堂活动，并且运用

多种手段加强教材的视觉、听觉、嗅觉、触觉效果。同时，为了适合老师带领学生"玩"的特点，教材审计需要完全摒弃传统的老师讲、学生听的模式，强调师生之间以及学生之间大量的互动性课堂活动，使学生在"玩"的过程中，不知不觉地了解了中国文化、产生了对学习汉语的浓厚兴趣，初步掌握了汉语的基本要素。

3.2 发挥本土教师优势

爱尔兰本土中学教师将是中学汉语教学的中坚力量，他们对教材内容的理解程度、使用效率和授课效果至关重要，因此本土化教材的研发一定要发挥本土教师的优势。这些优势具体体现在，一方面，本土教师对学生的语言能力和文化有充分认知，更容易跟学生沟通，及时收集、掌握并处理课堂教学过程中的一切反馈或问题；另一方面，本土教师了解本国尤其本学校的外语教学特点和教学方法，了解教学大纲，更容易引导学生学习，并帮助他们将汉语学习与其它学科紧密相连，变成整体学习的一部分。因此，适用于爱尔兰中学过渡年的汉语教材研发必须充分调动本土教师的力量，注重倾听来自于本土教师的意见和建议。

3.3 以学生为中心

爱尔兰中学教学大纲提倡"以学习者为中心"教学理念。爱尔兰国家教学大纲及考试委员会明确指出（NCCA，2009）高中教学大纲的指导思想是以学习者为中心，以信息处理、交流、个人有效学习、与他人合作以及批判性与创造性思考五种主要教学与学习方法为辅助。因此，爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教材的整体教学内容强调学生的主动参与，通过大量的课堂活动，让学生变为课堂的主人和课堂发展的推动力。

3.4 方便使用

过渡年汉语与中国文化教材的使用对象是初具汉语和中国文化基础或者是零起点的本土爱尔兰教师，因此，在内容编排上，应配备有详尽的说明性文字和备注内容，以帮助本土教师在有限的时间内高质量地完成备课工作。在教材形式上，应借助多媒体教学的手段，做到文本、音频、视频、网络资源的配合，使本土教师凭借有限的汉语和中国文化知识，最大限度地调动各种教学资源，实现独立课堂教学。同时，建立教学资源库，供本土教师在教学时选择使用。

四、中学过渡年本土化汉语教材的研发方法及步骤

4.1 研发方法

爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教材的研发采取了行动研究法（Note 2），并进行了多次的问卷调查和采访调查。我院的全体汉语教师、20 余所试点中学的学生和随堂教师及爱尔兰教育界的专家学者，都参与到了教材研发过程中，实现了协作性的行动研究和学校范围内的联合行动研究。具体说来就是，就是以边编、边教、边改的方式进行运作，根据学习者的特点调整内容或更改编排方式，使教材更有针对性。

4.2 研究步骤

本土化汉语教材的研发大致采取了"发现问题—收集资料—拟定计划—实施方案—评价结果—修正方案"的研究步骤。整个过程打破了传统的教材编写方式，教材的研发包含了学生、中国教师、本土教师、本土专家等多方面的参与。

基于对课堂教学的反思，课题组充分听取了过渡年阶段选修汉语的中学生的意见和建议，和本土教师进行了充分的沟通，共同确定了"如何让课堂更好地以学生为中心"和"如何使教材更便于本土教师使用"为教材研发过程要注意的重点问题。

为使研发的教材更加贴近中学生的生活和兴趣爱好，我们面向 20 所中学过渡年选修汉语的中学生发放了 366 份调查问卷（Note 3），旨在了解过渡年学生的学习情况、对汉语及中国文化课程的反馈以及学生所感兴趣的话题等，如我们针对"你最喜欢的话题"、"你觉得中文最难学的内容"、"对目前老师用的教材的喜爱程度"等 12 个问题进行了调查。调查发现，73.8%的学生对中国食物感兴趣，47.9% 对中国概况感兴趣，其次是中国节日和中国功夫，武术，占45.3% 和 45%。同时，我们通过面对面和本土教师、中国教师进行访谈，收集到了直接参与授课的教师关于教材的反馈。

针对中学生的问卷调查结果，为我们选择过渡年汉语教材的话题提供了依据。而根据从中学生和教师那里收集到的反馈，我们拟定了教材的基本面貌：教材以介绍中国文化为主，在学习中国文化的同时推进汉语教学和学习；在文化学习和语言学习之外，增加多样化的课堂互动方式，如增加问答、游戏、讨论、辩论、动手实践等课堂活动和视听多媒体教学素材，以增进学生的学习兴趣，提高学习效果；改进教学内容的编排方式，配以清晰详尽的指导语和教材使用培训，以便于本土教师使用。

教材初稿生成后，我们分别组织本土教师进行试讲，再次收集课堂反馈和实际操作经验。

在此基础上，我们邀请 5 位本土教师参加课题组，直接参与对教材的修改。在这个过程中，本土教师和中国教师的合作实现了优化组合的效益。本土教师运用他们丰富的本土教学经验和地方文化知识，在教学理念、方法和内容上提出了大量宝贵建议，从根本上摒弃了传统的汉语教学模式，保证了这套教材的本土性。而中国教师坚实的汉语基础和丰富的中国文化知识，又给教材提供了大量精彩内容；而他们对多媒体技术的掌握，也确保了教材的形象生动性。

五、爱尔兰中学过渡年本土化汉语教材的研发成果及特征

5.1 爱尔兰中学过渡年本土化汉语教材研发成果

在孔子学院总部和爱尔兰国家教育大纲及考试委员会的指导下，经过两年多的努力，我们最终成功研发出适用于爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教学的《汉语及中国文化》教材，同时制定了《爱尔兰中学过渡年"汉语及中国文化"课程教学大纲》。该教材共有 13 课，包含整个过渡年阶段的 45 个学时的教学内容及配套资源。配套资源包括：1). 制作精美的与教材教学内容相对应的 13 套幻灯片课件；2). 针对 13 套幻灯片课件编写的、方便本土教师使用的参考教案；3). 与教材教学内容相关的图片、音频、视频资源库；4). 与教材教学内容相关的网络资源说明。该教材需要在适当讲授少量汉语基础后使用。

《汉语及中国文化》教材包含的 13 课分别是：《中国总介绍》、《中国音乐与京剧》、《中国饮食文化与茶文化》、《中国历史》、《中国经济》、《中国节日文化》、《中国传统医学》、《汉字、书法与绘画》、《中国体育与功夫》、《中国家庭》、《中国手工艺》、《中国旅游》和《中国电影》。教材侧重于中国文化教学，中间穿插适量语言教学。

5.2 爱尔兰中学过渡年本土化汉语教材的基本特征

爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教材力求最大限度地将学生吸引到教学活动中来，充分体现了以学生为中心，以吸引学生参与和发挥本土教师能动性为目标的编写理念。教材在教学内容、教学方法和教学形式上都体现了本土化的特点。具体说来，该教材具有如下特征：

5.2.1 主体性

中学生是过渡年汉语学习的主体，因此教材借鉴了爱尔兰中学教学大纲的指导思想，在教学内容和教学环节的设计上，处处考虑学生的参与程度，做到以学生为中心，教师为辅助，以信息处理、交流、个人有效学习、与他人合作以及批判性与创造性思考为主要教学与学习方法，提高学生学习兴趣与自主能动性，从而使教学效率与质量达到最高水平。教材中每课都是先以

启发性问题开头，引发学生兴趣，然后再循序渐进介绍部分知识内容。每课都包含大量师生互动活动，比如说游戏，竞猜以及分组讨论等，摒弃了传统教师灌输知识的填鸭式教学方法，使课堂更加生动活泼，激发了学生的能动性。

如在《中国历史》一课中，教材首先展示一张长城的图片，让学生说出对于长城有哪些了解，比如"长城到底有多长？""长城是从何时开始建造的？""在太空中可以看到长城吗？"从而激发学生的兴趣。然后教材又引入中国历史上第一个皇帝秦始皇以及他的成就。以如此的方式来引出中国历史，比传统的从历史纪念表开始讲起的教学方式要更加有效，使学生更加牢固地记住所学内容。

再如在《中国家庭》课件中，教材设计了让学生分组讨论的环节，讨论内容包括中国实行计划生育的原因和计划生育政策的优缺点。分组讨论以辩论的形式进行，不仅发挥了学生主观能动性，而且学生还可运用批判性与创造性思维更好地了解中国和理解中国。

5.2.2 适用性

适用性是指教材在教材话题的选择上注重结合爱尔兰本土文化，在课件中加入了大量的西方与爱尔兰元素，使学生能够更好地将所学内容联系到自身经验，从而从更深层次地理解和学习中国文化与语言。例如，在所有汉语教学中，家庭成员称呼的学习总是很重要的一课。在《中国家庭》课件中，为了结合西方文化，课件中运用了动画片 Simpson 一家的家谱来介绍"爸爸"、"妈妈"、"姐姐"、"弟弟"等词汇的学习，使教学过程生动活泼，也使学生觉得倍感亲切，中文词汇突然不再陌生，学习中文变得像看动画片一样轻松愉快。

在《中国音乐与京剧》中包含"西城男孩"在中国演出活动的介绍，更有"女子十二乐坊"演奏的爱尔兰曲调《大河之舞》。这些内容拉近了两国文化的距离，也引发了爱尔兰学生对中国音乐的兴趣。课件中的《生日快乐》歌也让学生在熟悉的旋律中快乐地学习了汉语。

5.2.3 趣味性

为了活跃课堂气氛，教材中设计了多种多样的小游戏，让学生充当游戏的主角，真正做到了寓教于乐。例如在《中国总介绍》一课中，为了巩固学生所学知识，设计者在该课末尾加入了《谁想当百万富翁》的知识问答游戏，学生每打对一题，将会获得"奖金"。如答错一题会被淘汰，最终全部答对的同学将会成为"百万富翁"。该游戏内容生动活泼，符合中学生心态，不但总结了本课知识点，同时也容易使课堂气氛达到高潮。

再如，在《中国历史》一课中，教材设计了"丝绸之路"的游戏。学生被假设为古时"丝绸之路"上的欧洲商人，游戏问题为"在古时丝绸之路上，你可以在中国商人那儿买到什么物品呢？"然后下面列出一系列物品，例如胡萝卜、纸张、香水、火药等。学生可根据所学知识判断哪些物品产自古代中国，从而巩固所学历史知识。

同时，运用各种方式，使语言的学习充满乐趣。如我们在《中国音乐和京剧》中，放映了

京剧变脸的精彩录像，并让学生数一数一共换了多少次脸谱。答案要求学生用汉语回答，于是学生便饶有兴趣地学习 2、10、20、22 这些数字的汉语说法。再比如《中国旅游》中，我们画出旅游路线，让学生用汉语抢答用什么交通工具是最佳选择。于是学生们争先恐后地学习怎么用汉语说"坐飞机"、"坐火车"、"坐公共汽车"、"坐出租车"等词。

5.2.4 实践性

由于以介绍中国文化知识为主，教材中包含大量的文化体验活动。如在《中国饮食与茶文化》一课后，设计了"筷子夹花生"的体验活动，也设计了带领学生去当地中餐馆体验中国美食的教学活动；在《中国传统医学》一课中，以眼睛保健操为例让学生按摩眼睛周围穴位，体会并对比按摩穴位前后的感觉；在学习完《中国电影》后，安排学生选择一部自己喜爱的中国电影观看。这些体验活动具有很强的实践性，进一步拉近了中学生与中国文化的距离，进而培养了中学生对汉语学习的兴趣。

5.2.5 灵活性

考虑到爱尔兰中学教育体制中男校、女校、混合校和公立、私立的性质划分，该教材并未一味强调教学内容的顺序安排，甚至 13 课的顺序也是随时可以调整的。这主要是为了方便教师灵活选择适用于男、女校的教学内容。在具体每课教学内容的编排上，我们也注意区分适用于男校和女校不同内容，如在《中国音乐与京剧》一课中，加入大量的当代歌手歌曲，如周杰伦的《双截棍》与《兰亭序》，前者是适用于男校的内容，后者是适用于女校的内容。

5.2.6 现代性

爱尔兰中学过渡年汉语教材采用现代教育技术手段。在多媒体课件中，插入了大量与教学内容相关的图片、音频和视频，并且多媒体课件上都有操作提示，使教师教学更加轻松。多媒体的教材形式也使教师能根据实际需要，更加容易地调整、修改、补充和完善上课内容，也使教材能够适用于不同汉语水平的本土教师。例如针对许多爱尔兰本土教师汉语水平不高的现实情况，课件中所有中文名称都配有标准发音音频，教师可选择点击音频，或自己发音两种形式来教授学生汉语。一些练习题的设计也采用了活泼的漫画或音频形式。现代性的教材形式也更加适用于分布分散的爱尔兰中学使用，使用前对本土教师做简单培训即可。

5.2.7 时代性

针对过渡年中学生的年龄特点（Note 4），我们在设计教学内容时十分重视时代性。比如在《中国历史》一课中，包含香港回归、杨利伟首次进入太空、北京奥运会与上海世博会等当代中国重大事件，在《中国音乐与京剧》中，我们引入了张学友和丹麦乐队 Michael Learns To Rock (MLTR) 的《吻别》、以及西城男孩在中国的演出等，这些内容使爱尔兰中学生对中国有

了全新的认识。

当然，在注重时代性的同时，我们并未忽略对中国传统文化的介绍，如《中国音乐与京剧》中介绍了中国民族乐器，在《中国家庭》中讲解了儒家的孝道思想，在《中国历史》中则展示了汉服和旗袍等民族传统服装。

5.2.8 普及性

鉴于爱尔兰中学生双语必修的社会现实，以及目前过渡年中学生大多无汉语基础的现状，《汉语与中国文化》教材调整了教材难度设置，尽量采用简单易懂的语言来介绍中国文化，力求在文化知识的学习中掌握汉语。因此，该教材的语言难度大大低于《快乐汉语》等教材的同学年的内容。同时，教材中的关键词语或句子均带有中文发音和相关解释，这也使该教材对无汉语基础或汉语基础薄弱的爱尔兰本土汉语教师较为适用。这也使该教材在爱尔兰全部中学过渡年阶段得到普及应用成为可能。

六、爱尔兰中学过渡年本土化汉语教材研发的意义及展望

爱尔兰中学过渡年本土化汉语教材的成功开发，是汉语进入爱尔兰国民教育所迈出的关键一步。在汉语亟待普及而汉语教学与爱尔兰教育体系相对脱节、师资严重短缺的情况下，本土化教材的编写成功，为汉语教学在爱尔兰沿着可持续性道路发展奠定了坚实的基础。本土化过渡年汉语教材在汉语教学的理念、方法和内容都与爱尔兰中学规范的外语教学接轨，从而获得爱尔兰教育部门的认可。同时，该教材充分调动了爱尔兰本土教师的积极性，降低了他们进入汉语教学的门槛，使很多初具汉语技能、甚至是零起点的爱尔兰教师经过短暂培训就能独立教学，大大缓解了汉语教师资不足的矛盾。同时，这也为某些语种的外语教师转行，提供了重新就业机会，减少了爱尔兰中学外语教学重点转移可能会出现的阻力。这一成功的经验，将会推广到爱尔兰中学非过渡年的汉语教学中去，为汉语爱尔兰中学作为国民教育的一部分全面推广做出重要贡献。

同时，由于本土化、国别化汉语教材和合格的汉语本土教师的缺乏是汉语国际推广面临的瓶颈问题之一，我们编写这套本土化教材的成功经验具有一定的世界意义。尽管爱尔兰的国情与别国不同，中学的教育体系，尤其是过渡年的设置，也有它独特之处，但是，就汉语教学在进入当地国民教育体系中所遇到的问题而言，爱尔兰与其它国家的情况具有一定的共性。因此，我们在编写这套本土化教材所采取的方式和获取的经验，尤其是如何在教学理念、方法和内容方面，在本土教师的直接参与之下全面实现本土化的探索，相信会对国际汉语教学的教材本土化提供借鉴和参考。并且，由于本土化教材与它的使用者 ------ 本土教师密切相连，我们希望继续这一科研项目，探索师资本土化的路径，使汉语教学能够在爱尔兰乃至世界范围内可持续性地发展。

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Notes

Note 1. 爱尔兰教育部网站对 TY 的描述为：The TY provides a bridge to enable them to make the transition from the more dependent type of learning associated with the Junior Certificate to the more independent learning environment associated with the Senior cycle. 见 www.education.ie/insreports/report1_64570E.htm 之"evaluation of transition *year programme*"。

Note 2. 行动研究是指在自然、真实的教育环境中，教育实际工作者按照一定的操作程序，综合运用多种研究方法与技术，以解决教育实际问题为首要目标的一种研究模式。其目的不在于建立理论、归纳规律，而是针对教育活动和教育实践中的问题，在行动研究中不断地探索、改进和解决教育实际问题。行动研究将改革行动与研究工作相结合，与教育实践的具体改革行动紧密相连。

Note 3. 调查问卷内容可参见都柏林大学孔子学院 2011 年的《过渡年汉语教学报告》，即 *Report on Mandarin Teaching for TY*, 13-17。

Note 4. 爱尔兰过渡年相当于中国高中一年级，学生年龄为 15 至 17 岁间，大多数学生为 16 岁。

Examining the Relationship between Language of Instruction and Language Background of the Students in the TCFL Classroom

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Abstract

Most universities in the UK offer mandarin classes, and many local mandarin schools have been set up. These classes give good opportunities for not only Chinese heritage children, but also to non-heritage children who are interested in learning Chinese. As Chinese teachers overseas, we should pay more attention to choosing the suitable language to meet these children's needs. It is a controversial issue whether the teacher should use the target language (TL) as much as possible in the classroom or not. In recent research, six Chinese classes were observed in both a Chinese teaching organization (Star Mandarin School) and a local secondary school (Silverdale School) in Sheffield. Based on reviewing some studies on using TL and L1 (the First Language) in the foreign language classroom, I analyzed the results from the observations, which showed that it is not always good to use as much Chinese as possible for the class, even if the students have a high proficiency of Chinese. Maximizing using the Chinese would cause the confusion in the students. The Chinese language background of the heritage children should be considered during the course-design. Most of the Chinese heritage students are not familiar with the background knowledge of China, just like the non-heritage students. The aim of the class would be difficult to achieve if the teacher does not give enough introduction to the background knowledge of Chinese culture.

Key words: Language instructions, Chinese classes, teaching Chinese, heritage/non-heritage students

1. Introduction

With the fast development of China and the global ʻChinese feverʼ, learning Chinese is not a new trend any more. Many universities in the UK offer mandarin classes, and many local mandarin schools have also been set up (Wu, 2006). These classes offer good opportunities for not only the Chinese heritage children, but also the non-heritage children who are interested in learning Chinese. Therefore, as Chinese teachers overseas, we should pay attention to use suitable language to teach heritage and non-heritage children. In this article I will review research on using target language (TL) and the first language (L1) in a foreign language classroom. Based on the past research and my observations from six Chinese classes, I would argue that the teacher should give more attention on the language choice in the Chinese classrooms.

2. Researches on language using in the foreign language classroom and heritage learners.

2.1 Language use of the instruction in L2 classroom.

It is controversial whether the teacher should use TL as much as possible or not. Some researchers believe that using TL is very important because it provides a language environment for the language learners (Ellis, 1984; Carless, 2008). However some other researches claim that the overuse of TL may hurt the feelings of people of whom L1 has a lower social status (Tucker, 1980).

Using as much TL as possible is not necessarily beneficial to the students. Guthrie (1987) believed that the optimal input in a foreign language class should be consisted of three parts with high proportion: the student talk, the TL discourse and the class activities. In his study, he videotaped six French classes and analyzed the discourses. One of the teachers spoke very often (98%), but the student talk in his class was very little (14%). Presenting the examples in the class, Guthrie suggests that even though the teachers had a high use of French, the students may not be involved in the class and communicate with the teacher less.

Duff and Polio (1990) did an empirical study to examine the percentage of TL and L1 (English)

in the foreign language classrooms. They chose thirteen different L2 (second language) classes and made two 50-minute observations for each class. They also gave questionnaires to the students to find out their motivation and attitude about the teachers' use of English and how much TL they could understand. The authors conducted several interviews for the teachers about their backgrounds, attitude about using English, philosophy of teaching and the policy of their department. The results showed that the percentage of TL using ranged from 10 to 100 and the teachers had different views about use TL.

Polio and Duff (1994) launched a follow-up study to explore how and when the teachers would use L1 or TL. They chose six classes out of the thirteen and set two possible variables: classroom external factors and classroom internal ones. The results included 'function of item/utterance(s) produced', such as grammar introduction and classroom management; 'difficulty of the language used', such as giving some translation for the unknown words; and 'interactive effect involving students use of English' (Polio and Duff, 1994: 317). From their study, it can be found out that some of the teachers are aware of the fact that too much L1 may deprive the students' opportunity to learn TL, but when it is necessary, they have to use it. They are just not sure what the principle is (Carless, 2008).

2.2 The L2 learning of heritage learners.

In this article, we define the Chinese heritage children and non-heritage children as below: Chinese heritage children refer to the children of Chinese descents, and non-heritage children refer to the children with no Chinese language backgrounds in their families.

It is believed that the heritage learners have better linguistic skills on learning the second language; however there are only a few empirical researches that study the difference between the heritage and non-heritage learners (Kondo, 2003). Kondo (2005) selected 185 incoming students of Japanese at the University of Hawaii and divided them into four groups according to their heritage language backgrounds. Japanese proficiency tests developed by the university and questionnaires developed by the researcher were given to the participants. The results suggest that the learners who had at least one Japanese parent (the 'JHL Parent group') performed better than other learners. They showed high proficiency not only on grammatical knowledge and listening skills, but also on the reading proficiency.

There are many difficulties for heritage learners to acquire two languages: firstly, if they live in a monolingual community, they have hardly any chance to get in touch with the heritage language. Secondly, if they moved into the country at an older age, they may maintain their mother tongue, which

makes it very hard for them to merge into the community. Thirdly, the learners have to understand the necessity of learning a second language. If the children are forced to learn the second language, they may lose the interests of learning it (Kondo, 2003).

3. Results of my observations.

In the present study, six classes were observed, with five in a Chinese teaching organization (Star Mandarin School) and one in a local secondary school (Silverdale School) in Sheffield, UK. The length of one session ranged from 1 to 2 hours.

3.1 Participants: see Table 1 (Appendix A).

3.2 Results.

The teacher A and F

It is found that when the teachers needed to explain some difficult ideas, they tend to use L1. For example, the teacher F used English to explain Chinese grammar points and gave them hints for the questions. Since the students are mostly teenagers, they have better capability of understanding the teacher and analyzing the problems. They learned faster when they got hints in L1. However, due to the limit Chinese proficiency of the students, the teachers use L1 more for pedagogical function. If the students were at the intermediate level, the teachers might have used some strategies to maximize the TL use, such as repetition, slowing down the speed, paraphrasing, and so forth (Duff and Polio, 1990).

In the schools of A and F, sometimes the teachers gave the encouragements in English, such as 'Well done!' 'Good girl', 'Nice try!' etc. The Chinese proficiency of the students is relatively low; as a result they might not be encouraged if the teachers use Chinese. Sometimes teacher A raised some questions in L1 to catch the attention of the students.

The teachers kept trying to use TL as much as possible. Both A and F directed the students to use TL in different ways, for example, greeting in Chinese.

According to the study of Kim and Elder (2005), it is not sure that a native TL teacher will use TL as much as possible. Teacher A is a Chinese, but she used English for most of the time.

The teacher B and C

All of the students are Chinese heritage, therefore the teachers chose Chinese to give the instructions. The students could understand most of them. Nevertheless, it would be better if the teachers explain some information in English to make sure the students understand the course. For example, class B is a writing class, in which the teacher B emphasized the names of the strokes and radicals for many times. However, the students seemed to be confused with them. Despite they are Chinese heritage children, they do not have sufficient opportunity to contact with Chinese people as the children in China. From the perspective of the pedagogy, if the teachers could explain the source of the radicals, it will be easier for the students to understand the names and the meanings behind the names.

The students chatted with their friends in English, while they chose Chinese to response the teacher without any difficulties. It suggests that the students had not realized the communicational function of the languages. Adding some exercises, such as role-play, conversations related to daily life, into the class could build a Chinese-speaking environment for the students.

The teacher D and E

From Table 1 we can see that the class D and E are the only advanced classes among the six. However, most of the students are Chinese heritage who grew up in UK or came to UK at a very early age. In addition, they are 6 to 7 years older than the students in class B and C, which suggests that for them Chinese is a foreign language that is not easy to acquire. In addition, the textbook for them is very difficult: it has Chinese traditional poems, some scientific stories with long paragraphs that might be hard for them to understand.

As mentioned before, it is not always good for the teacher to maximize the TL use. The Chinese heritage children may feel difficult to learn Chinese in a monolingual society. Though their parents may speak Chinese at home, they often socialize with their friends in English, and they have no Chinese culture background, which makes it more difficult when encountering the knowledge about culture in class.

In the observation, it has been found that teacher D and E used Chinese to teach for most of the time, which caused some confusion among the students. For example, a story about the Three Kingdoms was told when teacher D was explaining the pun in a Chinese poem. The students were not familiar with the story, therefore the pun seemed obscure as well. If the teacher could use some English to explain the pun and choose an easier story for the students, they would be more interested in it and more engaged to the class.

4. Conclusion

In this article, some researches related to the use of language instructions in L2 classroom and the L2 learning of heritage children have been firstly reviewed. The observations made at two schools were then analyzed. According to the students' backgrounds, some suggestions were offered for the languages chosen in the L2 classrooms. The results of the observation show that it is important to choose not only suitable languages for instructions but also the teaching materials based on the students' reactions and background knowledge. The future study could probably focus on the perspective of the students, especially the heritage children, about their language choices in the L2 classrooms.

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Appendix A

Table 1:

The teachers	Teacher's background	The language they use (or mainly use).	The students' background	The students' Chinese proficiency.	The school they belong to.
A	Chinese	English	English	Beginners	Star Mandarin School
B	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese heritage.	Beginners	
C	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese heritage.	Beginners	
D	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese heritage.	Advanced	
E	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese heritage.	Advanced	
F	English	English	English	Beginners	Silverdale School(SS)

The participants of my observation