

**Teaching Chinese as an International Language in  
the Time of COVID: Opportunities, Innovations and  
Development**

# **Applied Chinese Language Studies XI**

Edited by  
Shejiao XU



Teaching Chinese as an International Language in the Time of COVID:  
Opportunities, Innovations and Development

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Selected Papers from the British Chinese Language Teaching Society

The 2021 International Conferences

**Teaching Chinese as an International Language in the Time of COVID: Opportunities, Innovations and Development**

**Applied Chinese Language Studies XI**

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We also would like to thank Confucius Institute at Bangor University for hosting the conference, starting from designing and producing conference posters and agenda to collecting abstracts, communicating with authors and providing efficient technical support to the conference. Our reviewers Dr. Dan Li, Dr. Lijing Shi, Dr. Martin Ward, Dr. Ling Yann Wong, and Dr. Minjie Xing (in alphabetical order) have undoubtedly contributed their great talents in providing detailed but insightful comments to the authors.

Led by Dr. Lijing Shi, our committee members Dr. Xuan Wang, Dr. Qing Chen, Dr. Qiaochao Zhang, Dr. Rong Guo and Dr. Shejiao Xu were committed to spreading knowledge, sharing good practices of and promoting research in Teaching Chinese as an International Language (TCIL). This volume is impossible without their efforts and contributions.

# 前 言

## 新冠疫情下的国际汉语教学：机遇不减、创新不停，发展不断

2021年7月5至7日，由英国汉语教学研究会主办，英国班戈大学孔子学院协办的“第十八届高校国际汉语教学研讨会”在线上成功举行。本次国际会议的主题为“新冠疫情下的国际汉语教学：机遇、创新和发展”，通过众多专家和同行的热烈讨论，多维度地探索广大教师如何在疫情下，以专业的精神和创意的思维解决问题，推动国际汉语的研究和实践，搭建可持续的学术网络。

本次会议荣幸地邀请到了六位享有国际声誉的专家为主旨发言人。第一位发言人是世汉会会长、天津师大校长钟英华教授，他的报告《国际汉语教学的宏观和微观择要》“以史见今”通过详实的数据回顾了国际汉语教学的四个重要阶段，并展现了我们这个专业领域光明的未来方向和巨大潜力。当天下午，英国剑桥大学袁博平教授做了题为《二语习得中母语迁移的方向性和经济原理》的报告，通过翔实的实证研究，发现汉语习得中独有的规律，挑战英美学界的传统理念，开拓了新的研究方向。第二天，英国埃克塞特大学李利博士的主旨发言题为《第二语言教育的创造力：概念、方法和课堂见解》，清晰地梳理了关于创造力的关键概念，并为老师们提供了理论框架和实证例子。而当日下午美国中田纳西州立大学笄骏教授的《计算机作为第二语言使用者及其对中文教学的影响》的主旨报告，则提出了计算机作为第二语言使用者的新概念，探讨了在机器学习时代，汉语教师所面临的新课题和所需要的新思维。国立台湾师范大学陈振宇教授在第三天上午的主旨报告为《把内容和语言兜起来：以课立优取向的发音教学为例》，他在 CLIL 理论框架的基础上，增添了“情感”和“行动”两个新层面，并以中国古诗为例展现如何让汉语语音教学更有效果。当天下午，美国海军学院袁芳远教授根据任务教学原则、案例教学优势以及商务汉语教学的多重目的，详细分析如何根据学生需求选择商业案例为教学内容，如何围绕内容设计实施多层循环任务，如何在教学中平衡语言和内容的关系等。这六位专家的精彩发言提纲挈领，案例丰富，深刻又不失生动，研究与实操并重，赢得与会者的高度好评。

此外，本次大会从众多投稿中，甄选出 43 个口头报告，涵盖“创新与发展”、“新技术应用”、“二语习得理论与实践”、“课程设计创新”、“专用汉语”、“网课调研”等 12 个主题。通过网络，广大学者与专家畅谈汉语语言规律、课程设计、教材编写，教学研究和科技创新。大会还特别邀请汉考国际总经理李佩泽博士就 HSK 考试从 1.0 到 3.0 的发展变化以及代表新理念的 HSK 最新标准等重要问题进行了深入细致的解读，并现场回答了与会者的提问。“英国商务

汉语论坛”集中了商务汉语教学中的专家，来自亚非学院的宋连谊博士、曼彻斯特大学的邢敏捷博士、伦敦政经的项骅博士以及伯明翰大学的唐晓龙博士多角度、多维度探讨了英国各具特色的商务汉语课程建设和教学理念。

本次学术会议主题明确、气氛热烈、影响广泛，与会者来自世界各地，既有在国际汉语领域耕耘多年的资深教师，也有在研究界初露头角的青年才俊，大家畅所欲言，交流心得，是一次难得的学术盛宴。在闭幕式上，班戈孔院英方院长 Lina Davitt 博士表示本次大会盛况空前，参会者超过 220 多位，三天累计参与人次达到 1400 多。在这三天里，专家学者和业内教师齐聚线上，跨越时差，利用科技带来的便利，仔细倾听专家学者的报告，把握研究最新动态，分享教育教学中的最新信息，为进一步推动国际汉语的专业化实践、科研化深入和合作化发展，奉献自己的力量。

作为“第十八届高校国际汉语教学研讨会”的重要学术成果之一，这本论文集的出版，离不开主编徐社教博士的辛勤付出和劳动，更离不开与会作者的孜孜以求和勤奋努力。本论文集汇总了本次会议中的十四篇优秀论文，从四个方面展现新冠疫情下的国际汉语教学的最新面貌和具有价值的学术探索。其中，四篇论文积极探索科技在国际中文教育中的应用，四篇论文探索汉字与语音教学，三篇探索教材的创新，还有三篇文章关注跨文化交流与国际中文教育。这些论文都紧扣我们的会议主题——“机遇，创新与发展”，相信广大师生读者会有收获。

持续两年多的新冠疫情深刻地影响了国际汉语教学，但 2021 年“第十八届高校国际汉语教学研讨会”的成功举办和本论文集的编辑出版，展现了国际汉语教师们不曾中断的专业追求；同时证明了困难可以克服，风险中亦有机遇。是以，**新冠疫情下的国际汉语教学：机遇不减、创新不停，发展不断。**

论文集的顺利出版凸显了我们研究会的高效运作以及来自于合作机构的大力支持。借此机会我谨代表英国汉语教学研究会的全体会员向大会组委会成员再次表示感谢。他们是英汉委员会的施黎静、王璇、徐社教、陈青、张巧超、郭蓉、和 Don Starr（司马麟）；班戈大学孔院团队的 Lina Davitt, 李崑岩, Isabel Linton, 和 Nerys Boggan。此次大会离不开中国国家汉办和英中协会（UCCL）的大力支持；也离不开华语教学出版社伦敦分社杜然女士的专业建议与全力支持，在此一并致谢。

施黎静博士  
英国汉语教学研究会年会会长  
2022 年 3 月

## Preface

The 18<sup>th</sup> *BCLTS Annual International Conference on Teaching and Learning Chinese in Higher Education* was successfully held online in July 2021, despite the world seeming to grind to a halt by the spread of coronaviruses and numerous important events being cancelled or postponed. Looking back, the COVID-19 has also offered more opportunities than ever to speed up the process of using technology in teaching Chinese as an International Language (TCIL) in higher education. As a result, the landscape of TCIL has been fundamentally changed: lectures, seminars, conferences, and workshops all went online. Via the internet, CIL teachers and researchers around the globe continue to share knowledge, good teaching practices and life experiences.

To encapsulate these changes, 14 papers were selected and edited to form this volume after the conference. These papers are empirically based and well argued with support of sufficient evidence. This volume is divided into four categories under the following headings:

- Part I Teaching and Learning Chinese Characters and Pronunciation
- Part II New Technology and Innovation in Teaching Chinese as an International Language
- Part III Textbooks and Learning Resources
- Part IV Teacher Training, Interculture Studies and Chinese Language Teaching

Part I includes four papers on the topic of Chinese character and tone learning among university students and younger learners. The authors took a cognitive approach to the acquisition of Chinese characters, tones, semantic and phonetic components of radicals. Strategies proposed in the papers gave further advice to teachers and students on how to learn Chinese characters and pronunciation more effectively.

Dan LI investigated L2 learners' phonetic radical awareness and their application of knowledge in unfamiliar compound characters. Her research suggested that a learner's overall performance was facilitated by the growth of character knowledge; and phonetic radical awareness could serve as a predictor in L2 Chinese character acquisition.

In the same vein, Ling Yann WONG and colleagues looked into the choice of Chinese words, the issues in the use of bi-syllabic words and the compensatory strategies when Year Five pupils composed their Chinese writing. The study revealed that the domain of the Chinese characters was related to the transfer of their mother tongue, and the mismatch between words and meaning was due to the

insufficient knowledge of Chinese language and the pupils' inability of use the language efficiently. The paper proposed that language teaching shall develop students' autonomy and reflection skills, give timely feedback to the students' errors, and consider pupils' language levels when setting learning objectives.

Man GAO reported an experimental study that aimed to establish the basic facts regarding the production of Mandarin tones by Swedish learners. She examined the students' pronunciation, especially the levels of difficulty posed by the four lexical tones. Similar to other findings, the third tone was the most challenging with the first tone the easiest. Mispronunciation happened to all four tones. Based on her findings, she addressed the pedagogical implications and formulated recommendations for Chinese language teachers.

Qian XU, Lin PAN and Wenjing HU recorded the episodes of how Chinese characters were taught at a public school and a private school in the UK. Their conversation analysis showed that the cognitive load of Chinese characters was a challenge for non-native learners. In order to reduce the load, teachers took the approach of cutting characters into different components and expounded their meanings via interesting stories and pictures to establish the links between characters and radicals.

Part II includes four papers on the topic of new technology and innovation in TCIL. When technological knowledge becomes an essential part of knowledge in education, educators and researchers advocate the use of new technology in teaching. One of the prominent developments is seen in Virtual Exchange (VE), a type of telecollaboration between native speakers and non-native speakers. Part II starts with an overview of research and teaching practices in VE, followed by empirical research on the socio-cultural and digital skills, the use of digital devices and the impact of Loop quizzes on Chinese language teaching.

To give an overview of the VE research and practice, Zhiyao GUO reviewed its definition, its significance in language teaching and learning, the design of online collaboration, and future development in research. She also discussed what types of tasks are involved in VE and how data is collected and what communication tools are available to support VE.

Shejiao XU, Daisy ZHU and Jin ZHANG examined the performance of computer skills, social skills and cultural awareness of participants when they worked together during an eTandem project between a UK university and a Chinese one from 2019 to 2021. The study showed that university students developed enough computer skills in presenting their final projects, used various strategies to enable effective communications in Chinese with their partners and promoted cultural awareness at operational and textual levels. They also discussed the implications for developing more sophisticated eTandem projects in future.

Amily Wang Guenier investigated Irish university students' perceptions and strategies for learning



Chinese characters using digital devices amid the Covid-19 pandemic period. The study revealed that digital devices did help listening, reading and speaking skills. They also positively impacted Chinese learning such as being more fun for motivation and engagement, more flexibility in time and venue, and higher efficiency in recognizing and typing characters. The interview results however claimed that the learning effect and outcome depended on, to a large extent, individual lecturer's pedagogical considerations.

Weiming LIU explored the impact of Loop activities on students' CIL learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. His study suggested that Loop quizzes served as an important interactive channel between the students and the teacher, increased student motivation and created a context in which the students experienced a reflective practice. The study put forward potential implications for CIL learning in the post Covid-19 era.

Part III includes three papers on the topic of new learning resources, writing of grammar textbooks and the sequence of common characters between Chinese and Korean. The authors agree that textbook writing and learning resources development shall consider the linguistic features of learners' mother tongues and choose the most recent and authentic materials from social media.

Minjie XING noticed the language that the internet celebrities used in their short videos and mini talks tended to be humorous, entertaining, when it aimed to disseminate new knowledge and experience. Her study indicated that students had favourable views toward the use of resources created by internet celebrities, and they acknowledged that apart from improving the target language, their cultural awareness was enhanced as well. The study highlighted that by using these resources, students built up their confidence in understanding the language and culture in everyday-life settings, and helped to bridge the gap between informal learning online and formal learning in the classroom.

The localization of textbooks is always a hot topic among teachers, Xinzheng WAN confirmed that the localization of grammar textbooks shall consider more about the learner's mother tongues, carry out comparative analysis of the two languages and pinpointed disparities so that the difficulties in language acquisition could be better identified. The grammar books shall also be practical, data-driven, based on the cutting-edge research and imbued with local culture.

Yishu LI studied the sequence of common characters between Chinese and Korean taken from two coursebooks – *Living in China, Experiencing Chinese*. The research findings showed that there was a significant difference between different types of common characters in terms of language difficulties. Korean students had difficulties in learning the form of characters in the list common synonym characters. A weak correlation was found between learner's learning difficulty and the sequences decided by vocabulary syllabus ranking.

Part IV includes three papers on the topic of teacher training, interculture studies and Chinese

language teaching around the world. Social constructive approach has been used when looking at the issues in teacher training and cross-cultural vulnerability in female Mandarin heritage learners.

Yi XIANG, Lin PAN and Wenjing HU in their exploratory study probed into the identity construction of the Hanban teachers when they came and worked for the UK schools. Their findings indicated that the Hanban teachers developed more understanding of the new environment and acquired new knowledge via classroom delivery. At the same time, those teachers also experienced conflicts, which turned into new opportunities when they trespassed social communities. The authors also provided guidelines for teacher training in their study.

Tsung-Hung SU examined whether the female Mandarin heritage learners from different backgrounds experienced cross-cultural vulnerability in their transnational mobility from non-Sinophone societies to Taiwan. Her narrative analysis was based on the integrated perspectives of transnationalism and multicultural feminism. The research presented the general issues on cross-cultural vulnerability in learning, as well as educational concerns of Mandarin learners' wellbeing within the cross-cultural learning circumstances.

Qi WANG provided us a different perspective when we looked at TCIL around the world. She took Spain as an example and introduced the number of students, teachers, the use of learning materials at training centres, private and public schools, Confucius Institutes, universities, official language schools and Chinese schools.

To conclude, this volume reflects good practices and in-depth thoughts in TCIL against the background of an unprecedented pandemic. These papers showcased our community members' professionalism, pursuit of new knowledge and creativity. As the editor, I have greatly enjoyed reading and editing these papers. I also sincerely hope that readers will find plenty of food for thought.

Dr Shejiao XU

March 2022

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|第一部分|

# Part 1

## Phonetic Radical Awareness and Application in English-speaking Learners' L2 Chinese

### 英语为母语的中文学习者的声旁部件意识和应用

李丹 Dan LI

约克大学 University of York

**Abstract:** Unlike alphabetic writing systems, Chinese characters exhibit less correspondence between sound(s) and form(s); this characteristic poses a challenge to second language (L2) learners, especially those from a non-orthographic background. A phonetic radical (a categorical unit of sound or sound connection) usually has a habitual position within a character and can provide a phonological cue at various levels. This study investigates L2 learners' phonetic radical awareness and their application of knowledge in unfamiliar compound characters. A naming task aimed at assessing whether the participants possessed knowledge of target phonetic radicals' sounds and forms. A compound-character-sound inference task aimed at exploring uses of the existing knowledge in handling unfamiliar compound characters that contained the target phonetic radicals. Five adult English-speaking learners of Chinese, from elementary to intermediate proficiency levels, completed the two tasks. The results suggest that a learner's overall performance is facilitated with the growth of character knowledge; phonetic radical awareness could serve as a predictor in L2 Chinese character acquisition.

**Key words:** Chinese as a second language, radical knowledge, phonetic radical awareness

## 1. Introduction

Being non-alphabetic, the Chinese script presents a complex challenge to second language (L2) learners from an alphabetic background (e.g., Everson, 2011). To the untrained eyes, Chinese characters may be perceived as a composition of lines and curves. In fact, a whole character is logically structured; the distribution of strokes and radicals is not arbitrary (Guo et al., 2021). Radicals are major orthographic units of a character and perform phonological and semantic functions. Phonetic radicals contain phonetic information at varying degrees of consistency. To first language (L1) English speakers, there is a lack of sound-form correspondence in Chinese. To read Chinese characters, it is essential to possess a good working knowledge of phonetic radicals. The present study takes an exploratory step and focuses on phonetic radical awareness in adult L1 speakers of English and addresses the role of phonetic radical awareness in learning to read new characters.

## 2. Theoretical perspective for the present study

Chinese characters can be categorised into two groups, simple characters, and compound characters. Simple characters cannot be sub-divided, whereas compound characters consist of orthographic units known as radicals, which have recurring structural patterns and phonological and semantic functions (e.g., Jackson et al., 2003). More than eighty percent of modern Chinese characters are compound characters according to Shu and Anderson's study (1999). A semantic radical provides a meaning cue, and a phonetic radical provides a pronunciation cue, which at least partially contributes to the meaning and the sound of the compound character, e.g., 晴 *qing* can be analysed to two radicals 日 (for 'sun') and 青 *qing*. Within a compound character, its radicals take regular positions (Shu et al., 2003): for example, the semantic radical of bamboo 竹 only appears on the top as in 笋; the phonetic radical 罗 usually appears on the right e.g., 锣 or at the bottom e.g., 萝. The information that conveyed by radicals is not always transparent. Consistency in phonetic radicals vary at three levels: at a regular level, both initial (consonant) and final (vowel or -n/-ng) of the phonetic radical is the same to its compound character, e.g., 同 as in 桐 *tong*. At a semi-regular level, the final of the phonetic radical is identical to the final of its compound character, e.g., 工 *gong* as in 红 *hong*. In addition, the pronunciation of a phonetic radical can be opaque, e.g., 青 as in 猜 *cai*; although 青 appears in the phonetic position, it does not relate to the sound of the character.

The importance of understanding radicals is underpinned by the nature of the Chinese orthography. The features of radicals, as discussed above, are unique and the development of radical awareness is considered beneficial in L2 character acquisition (e.g., Liu et al., 2020). Before reviewing previous studies, it is necessary to define the term: radical awareness. In a study of Chinese children's sensitivity to radicals, Tong et al. (2017: 1252) proposed that radical awareness was 'the ability to access the orthographic, phonological, and semantic information of radicals for character recognition.' In the present study, radical awareness is extended to twofold: (1) knowing the information conveyed by radicals and (2) being able to apply the knowledge in unfamiliar characters; both aspects are required when L2 learners learn to read and write characters. In accordance with Shen & Ke (2007: 100), radical awareness in this study is referred to 'a functional understanding of the role of radicals in forming Chinese characters and the ability to use this knowledge consciously in learning characters.'

Previous studies have provided empirical evidence that, for L1 Chinese speakers and L2 learners, knowledge of radicals could play a positive role in reading ability. In a very recent experiment, Li et al. (2021) investigated whether Chinese-speaking children were able to use radicals to encode meaning and sound of novel compound characters. The researchers created sixteen pseudo left-right structured characters as targets for elementary school children to learn. Each pseudo character had a semantic radical on the left and a phonetic radical on the right and was assigned a regular and an irregular pronunciation. The regular pronunciation was identical to the sound of the phonetic radical; the irregular pronunciation did not share either the initial or final of the phonetic radical. The target characters were taught to the children via oral explanations before they were seen in print (in a story book). In an orthographic choice task, the children were asked to choose the words containing the target characters that they had learnt. Findings demonstrated that the children were aware of and used phonetic radicals to encode the target characters; in particular, phonologically regular characters were named more accurately than irregular characters.

Recent studies have found evidence that sensitivity to and use of radical knowledge contributes to L2 Chinese character acquisition (e.g., Wong, 2017; Liu et al., 2020). Wong (2017) carried out a long time-frame study to investigate whether radical awareness could contribute to reading traditional characters. L2 learners in a senior-primary-school were administered to complete two tasks. In a semantic-radical-related task, the learners were asked to choose one compound character out of three to best match a picture (meaning). The compound characters as target items were unfamiliar to the L2 learners. In the phonetic-radical-related task, each unfamiliar compound character contained a phonetic radical; the learners had to choose from three recorded sounds to match the pronunciation of the compound character. These tasks required the learners to employ their existing knowledge of various radicals. Results indicated that the learners' radical awareness had a significant effect on their

character reading development. In particular, the effect was found most significant when the learners were at their early stage of character acquisition. This study proposed a radical-based teaching approach and recommended that radicals should be explicitly taught to facilitate character reading.

In a simplified character experiment, Liu et al. (2020) tested whether L2 learners could use partial information provided by phonetic components to learn the pronunciations of compound characters. Eighteen pseudo characters were created as target items; each character contained a phonetic radical. The participants were college students from varying Chinese proficiency levels and had learnt the phonetic radicals from their textbook. The researchers classified the pseudo characters into three groups: phonologically regular (identical to the pronunciation of the phonetic radical), semi-regular (identical to the final of the phonetic radical) and irregular (unrelated sound). The target characters were presented one by one to the learners. Each character was pronounced twice at a two-second interval. The learners were asked to write down the pronunciation of the character in pinyin. This cycle was repeated three times; in other words, the learners had three opportunities to hear the pronunciation (verbal stimuli). Results showed that intermediate and advanced learners, with more experience to characters, performed better than novice learners when learning the pronunciations of semi-regular characters. Despite the positive effect observed in this experiment, a possibility is that, under the timed experiment condition, the learners may have relied on their short-term memory. It is unclear whether the learners were able to encode the sound of the compound characters through their response to the verbal stimuli or from their independent analysis.

## **2.1 Aims of the study**

Having reviewed the recent findings, it is necessary to define the scope of the present study. Unlike controlled experiments, the experiment of this study was conducted with L2 learners in a classroom learning environment, where phonetic radicals were taught in a gradual manner. Achieving a high level of character reading requires L2 learners to retain and apply what they have learnt. The present study places a focus on long-term retention; there is a time lag between being exposed to and being tested on phonetic radicals. The aim of the present study is to examine the relationship between adult English speakers' phonetic radical awareness and their ability to apply existing knowledge in unfamiliar characters.

This study addresses the research questions as below:

- 1) Are L2 learners able to recognise phonetic radicals, do L2 learners at higher levels of language proficiency have a higher level of awareness than learners at lower levels of language proficiency?
- 2) To what extent does the L2 learners' phonetic radical knowledge contribute to their character-



sound inferencing?

### **3. Methods**

#### **3.1 Participants**

Five English speakers participated in the present study; all of them were full-time university students learning Chinese as a second language on an extracurricular basis. Fictitious names were used here. Al and Ben were enrolled in a beginner course running for nineteen weeks - one 120-minute lesson per week. Cath, Dom and Emily, who completed the beginner course in the prior year, were enrolled in a post-beginner course. The participants were selected based on the consideration that they were not from heritage language or Asian language backgrounds; extensive reading was not expected outside of formal class time. They have been taught simplified characters from the same textbooks *Chinese in Steps*, vol. 1 and vol. 2 (Zhang et al., 2011, 2013).

#### **3.2 Procedure**

The experiment being reported here was carried out at the end of the Summer Term in the academic year 2019-2020. A language proficiency test was conducted to evaluate the participants' reading and writing ability. Based on their scores, Al and Ben were grouped as elementary learners. Cath and Dom were grouped as pre-intermediate learners; Emily outperformed her peers in the test and was considered to fit at an intermediate level. The participants were asked to complete a compound-character-sound inference task, which was not timed, so they were not under time pressure. After the inference task, the participants were invited to complete a phonetic radical naming task, which was not timed and used to assess the ability to recognise the phonological function. The participants were not allowed to consult any dictionaries in either task.

#### **3.3 Instruments**

Phonetic radicals in the two tasks were selected from the participants' textbooks; the radicals have been introduced and explained in classroom during the Autumn Term and Spring Term. There were two sets of phonetic radicals, which were simple characters themselves (a full list in Appendix 1). Set

1 contained nine phonetic radicals as target items, which were taught in the beginner course. Set 2 consisted of eighteen phonetic radicals as target items including nine phonetic radicals covered in the post-beginner course and the nine radicals in Set 1.

### 3.3.1 Compound-character-sound inference task

This task aimed at examining to what extent the participants were able to infer the pronunciation of an unfamiliar compound character; each character consisted of a familiar phonetic radical. The elementary learners were presented with nine target two-character words and nine distractors. Each target word contained an unfamiliar compound character with a familiar phonetic radical (Appendix 2). Each target word was followed by three options in pinyin. In Example 1 below, 种 is an unfamiliar character; 中 is a familiar phonetic radical. Option (a) is phonologically regular (a homophone of the target phonetic radical's pronunciation), Option (b) is semi-regular (identical to the final of the phonetic radical) and Option (c) is irregular (unrelated sound). The participants were asked to choose one out of the three; they were expected to visually recognise 中 in the left-right compositional structure, recall its sound and connect its sound with the compound character. Each correct pinyin was assigned one point.

Example 1.

种菜

(a) zhòngcài

(b) chòngcài

(c) bèicài

The pre-intermediate and intermediate learners were presented with eighteen target two-character words. Each word consisted of an unfamiliar compound character with a familiar phonetic radical (Set 2). In Example 2, the two-character word contains an unfamiliar compound character 傍晚 and 旁 is a target familiar phonetic radical. Options (a), (b) and (c) were the regular, semi-regular and irregular pinyin. The participants were asked to choose one out of the three; if they were sensitive to the semi-regular pronunciation, they would be able to achieve the orthography-sound mapping. Each correct pinyin was assigned one point.

Example 2.

傍晚

(a) pángwǎn

(b) bàngwǎn

(c) chūwǎn

### 3.3.2 Phonetic radical naming task

The aim of this task was to assess the participants' ability to recognise Set 1 and Set 2 phonetic radical's pronunciation. The two sets of phonetic radicals were simple characters themselves. The elementary learners were asked to provide pinyin of the nine phonetic radicals in Set 1; ten characters were used as distractor items. The target items were selected from the textbook *Chinese in Steps* vol. 1 (Zhang et al., 2011); they were taught in class in the Autumn Term and Spring Term. Taking the phonetic radical 青 *qing* as an example, if the participants wrote down the initial and final correctly, one point was awarded. Tone marks were not assessed and did not affect the overall score.

The pre-intermediate and intermediate learners were asked to provide the pinyin of the eighteen target phonetic radicals; twelve characters were used as distractors. Within the eighteen target items, nine of them were Set 1; they were taught over a year ago. The other nine target items were selected from the textbook *Chinese in Steps* vol. 2 (Zhang, Li and Suen, 2013) and were covered in the Autumn and Spring Terms. The participants were awarded one point if a target item's pinyin was correct. The tone marks of the pinyin were not assessed as the focus was placed on determining the initial and final at this stage.

## 4. Results and discussion

The present study investigated the L2 learners' phonetic awareness and their application across the three proficiency levels. The learners' performances on the two tasks illustrate patterns of their Chinese character acquisition. Table 1 shows the participants' accuracy rates in each task. Their performance patterns are discussed in the section below.

Table 1. Accuracy rates in the two tasks

	Elementary		Pre-intermediate		Intermediate
	Al	Ben	Cath	Dom	Emily
Naming task	56%	100%	83%	100%	100%
Inference task	56%	78%	67%	83%	94%

#### 4.1 Patterns of elementary learners: emergent awareness and limited application

In the naming task, Al, an elementary learner, was able to recognise five target phonetic radicals by providing target-like pinyin (accuracy rate, 56%). In the inference task, the compound characters containing the five targets were matched with correct pinyin, which indicated that she was able to visually search and make use of the phonological cues. Al was unable to name the phonetical radicals 巴, 青, 弟 and 少; there was a lack of representation in her character lexicon, and the orthography-sound mapping was not activated and inferencing of the compound characters 鲃, 晴, 第 and 钞 was non-target-like. Al's performance showed emergent awareness of the function of the phonetic radicals, which is in reference to the findings in previous studies (e.g., Tong et al., 2015) that at the early stage of acquisition, novice learners have limited experience with Chinese characters and thus there are limited strategies when learning to read unfamiliar characters.

Ben was also an elementary learner; he scored higher than Al in the language proficiency text. In the naming task, he was able to name all the target phonetic radicals, which demonstrated his ability to transform the phonetic radicals in print (orthography) to pinyin (sound). Hypothetically, the phonological information of the phonetic radicals may guide him in the inference task. Ben achieved higher than Al in inferring the sound of the unfamiliar compound characters (accuracy rate, 78%). He was able to encode seven unfamiliar compound characters; amongst these characters, there was a high transparency between the pronunciation of the phonetic radical and the pronunciation of its compound character; for example, 马 as in 码 *ma*. The non-target-like items were 第 and 钞. Although Ben was aware of the pronunciation of 弟, the phonological cue was not transformed to the target compound character. One possibility is that the orthographic form of the character 第 may affect his character recognition. According to Yu et al. (1990), top-to-bottom structures were visually more compact than left-to-right structured characters and were thus difficult to decompose into radical units. The phonetic radical 少 conveyed partial information in its compound character 钞; the semi-regularity caused difficulty in inferring. Ben named the phonetic *shao* and treated it as a whole instead of segmenting into *sh* and *ao*. His performance was consistent with the findings of Liu et al. (2020); in their study, intermediate and advanced learners were more sensitive to the syllable structure than novice learners and used partial phonological information to learn new characters. As L2 learners experience more characters, it is likely that they attain more knowledge and gradually make use of regular and semi-regular cues. Table 3 shows proficiency levels had an impact on the participants' achievement on the tasks.

Table 3. Set 1 target items' naming and inferring

	Elementary		Pre-intermediate		Intermediate
	Al	Ben	Cath	Dom	Emily
人	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
门	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
中	✓✓	✓✓	✓--	✓✓	✓✓
马	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
那	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
青	---	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
巴	---	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
弟	---	✓--	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
少	---	✓--	✓--	✓--	✓✓

✓ = target-like naming of the phonetic radical

✓ = target-like inferring of the pronunciation of the compound character

- = non-target-like naming of the phonetic radical

-- = non-target-like inferring of the pronunciation of the compound character

As elementary learners, Al and Ben's performances were in reference to the threshold-style processing of characters proposed by Liu et al. (2007: 472), for alphabetic users, the researchers claimed that 'the orthographic form of a character must be acquired as a functional unit, and connections to pronunciation and meaning will develop as the character form is acquired.' The target phonetic radicals were simple characters themselves; when the L2 learners were unable to recognise characters' form, phonetic radicals were not detectable as functional units and phonological cue was inaccessible.

#### 4.2 Patterns of pre-intermediate and intermediate learners: increased awareness and extended application

Cath, a pre-intermediate learner, provided correct pinyin of all target phonetic radicals in Set 1, which were taught over a year ago, she was able to recall the phonetic radicals. Nonetheless, in the inference task, she mismatched the pronunciations of two compound characters 种 and 钞. Cath was able to encode the phonetic radical 中 and her existing knowledge of the radical was not applied in the unfamiliar compound character. Similar to Ben, Cath did not decompose the syllable *shao* into *sh* and *ao* and treated it as a whole in the compound character 钞.

In Set 2, Cath was unable name three target phonetic radicals 半, 旁, and 羊; in the reference task, she was unable to encode the pronunciation of the compound characters containing these three phonetic radicals. To this extent, Cath's performance was consistent with the elementary learners. If L2 learners were unable to recognise the visual form of a phonetic radical, they were not ready to perceive the phonetic radical as a unit in an unfamiliar compound character. Similar to Ben, Cath was unable to encode an unfamiliar compound character when its radical contained partial information. She was able to name 长 *chang* and transferred the full pronunciation of the phonetic to 账. The result here suggested that her existing knowledge of the radical's sound form was insufficient when dealing with semi-regular characters; an analytic strategy was required to handle varying degrees of consistency in phonetic radicals.

Dom, a pre-intermediate learner, excelled in the naming task; he was able to name all target phonetic radicals in Set 1 and Set 2 (accuracy rate, 100%), which demonstrated that he could recall the sound forms of the phonetics that were taught in the current year and retain those that were taught over a year ago. Dom performed higher than Cath in the referencing task. He showed his strength in recognising the visual forms of the phonetic radicals and using the information in regular compound characters. His non-target-like items were three semi-regular characters 钞, 祥 and 账. Like Cath, Dom transferred the whole syllable of the phonetic radical. The source of difficulty may derive from a lack of knowledge of phonetic radicals with partial information; when L2 learners were not aware of this aspect, their inferencing was not facilitated.

At the other end of the spectrum was Emily. She scored highest in the language proficiency test and was separated from her peers Cath and Dom, although the three of them were enrolled in the same course. Table 4 shows that Emily outperformed her peers in the naming task and the inference task. She provided correct pinyin to all target items and demonstrated her strength in the inference task. The only non-target-like item was the pronunciation of 祥; the phonetic radical 羊 gave partial information in its compound character. Her performance was in reference to the findings of Liu et al. (2020) that L2 learners with higher proficiency could show stronger ability to employ partial information contained in phonetic radicals. A phonetic radical has its probability of containing regular and semi-regular pronunciations; when this aspect was integrated into L2 character knowledge, processing novel compound characters could be facilitated. If the knowledge was unacquired or very limited, mapping between sound and form may pose a challenge to less experienced L2 learners.

Table 4. Set 2 target items' naming and inferring

	Pre-intermediate		Intermediate
	Cath	Dom	Emily
元	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
快	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
票	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
斤	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
坐	✓ ✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
长	✓ --	✓ --	✓ ✓
旁	--	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
半	--	✓ ✓	✓ ✓
羊	--	✓ --	✓ --

✓ = target-like naming of the phonetic radical

✓ = target-like inferring of the pronunciation of the compound character

- = non-target-like naming of the phonetic radical

-- = non-target-like inferring of the pronunciation of the compound character

#### 4.3 Relationship between phonetic radical awareness and application

Taken together, the L2 learners in the present study developed phonetic radical awareness at different levels. The intermediate learner had a higher sensitivity to semi-regular compound characters. Their performances suggest that the ease of applying knowledge of phonetic radicals builds on language proficiency levels. The results also suggest that a character's sound and compositional structure is interrelated in L2 character lexicon; if L2 learners are unable to analyse the internal structure of an unfamiliar compound character, they would find it very difficult to encode the character. Knowledge of phonetic radicals include two aspects: the position, and the function of phonetic radicals. A grasp of the internal structure of compound characters is a prerequisite for application of the knowledge. Perceiving a compound character as a whole rather than structured units may inhibit L2 learners from processing unfamiliar compound characters as more memory space would be required for each character (e.g., Shen and Ke, 2007). Furthermore, an understanding of syllable segmentation is needed as phonetic radicals may convey partial information in semi-regular characters (initials are different, e.g., 喝 *he* and 渴 *ke*). The present study proposes the strategies as below for L2 learners when learning to read new compound characters.

- 1) Chunking: visually search for components and look at how components are positioned against each other in a compound character
- 2) Linking: predict the position of radicals in a compound character and link the form (radicals' shape) to the sound of radicals
- 3) Bridging: identify the syllable of a phonetic radical and bridge the sound of the phonetic radical with its compound character
- 4) Grouping: in a gradual manner, group radical-sharing characters and discover regularity and or irregularity in recurring radicals

## **5. Conclusion and implications**

The present study has investigated L2 learners' phonetic radical awareness and their application of the knowledge in unfamiliar compound characters. L2 learners with different proficiency levels have shown different patterns in character acquisition. Findings of this study suggest that the overall performance is facilitated with the growth of phonetic radical knowledge; the level of phonetic radical awareness could serve as a predictor in character acquisition.

Pedagogically, findings of this study indicate that explicit instructions about radicals' position and function could support L2 learners, particularly elementary learners, in acquiring novel characters. Instructors are encouraged explicitly introduce and explain the structural patterns of compound characters and radicals' position and function. A combination of implicit learning and explicit teaching would be recommended. L2 learners are inspired to search for recurring radicals and discover regularity as well as irregularity. They may encounter semi-regular and irregular characters, which could be integrated into their knowledge alongside regular characters. Finding radicals' information through independent search could give L2 learners a great sense of achievement.

## **6. Limitations and further studies**

The present study focused on phonetic radical awareness only based on a small sample. Further studies could explore radical awareness in a comprehensive way and examine L2 learners' knowledge in positional, semantic, and phonetic aspects. Due to a resource constraint, pre-recorded sound was not used as option items in the inference task; instead, the pinyin options were used. This study took an exploratory step and illustrated patterns of character acquisition from a small pool of L2 learners. To



gain a richer understanding, further studies need to be conducted to assess L2 learner's knowledge of radicals from a larger cohort. Further studies might consider exploring the relationship between radical awareness and character recognition ability in a longer time frame and yield more empirical evidence to inform teaching practice.

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### Appendix 1. Target items in the naming task

Set 1	人	门	中	马	青	巴	那	弟	少
Set 2	元	快	票	斤	坐	半	长	羊	旁

Set 1 was used to test elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate learners

Set 2 was used to test pre-intermediate and intermediate learners

### Appendix 2. Target items in the compound-character-sound inference task

Set 1	认	扌	种	码	晴	鲑	娜	第	钞
Set 2	沉	筷	瞟	近	座	绊	账	祥	傍

Set 1 was used to test elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate learners

Set 2 was used to test pre-intermediate and intermediate learners

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# Studies on Problems of Non-Chinese Native Learners in Recognizing and Transmitting Semantic Meanings of Disyllables and Suggestions for Teaching and Learning

## 母语非汉语者对认知和输出汉语双音词的问题与教学建议

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**摘要:** 本文主要是探究母语非汉语的学习者在输出汉语作文语境字所面对的问题, 以及提出教学法以应对和改善问题。参与此研究的受试者来自与汉语不同的语言背景, 他们都在马来西亚的华文小学学了五年的汉语。本文通过汉语写作收集和探究受试者输出汉语语境字的词语选择, 分析他们输出汉语双音节词的问题, 归纳他们所使用的词汇补偿策略。从中发现那些词语的输出与他们的母语迁移有关, 那些词语表义和匹配的问题是他们对汉语知识和熟练度不足所导致。归纳这些发现以后, 本文提出 21 世纪对外汉语的教学法, 应关注学习者语言学习自省和自学的方法, 学习者汉语词汇输出的错误须及时纠正, 强调教学的成果必须是学习者对汉语输出的成品, 应与他们学习汉语的年限并进。

**关键字:** 作文; 语境字; 双音节词; 输出; 母语迁移; 词语信息

### 1.0 前言

徐子亮 (2017, 页 39) 指出“字词的识别, 一般是离不开一定的语境。”徐氏所指的语境字主要是指双音词和句子中的字。本文主要从母语非汉语者所写的汉语作文探讨他们认知汉语双音词语素义的能力。汉语非母语的受试者通过字形或字音来激活和提取语境字中的双音词, 是否能够成功输出有关的词语是本文欲进一步确认的问题。根据徐氏 (2017, 页 39) 的观点, 汉语的双音词比单音词提供信息量多出两倍以上, 从视觉接收的字形线索比单音词多; 从听觉接收

的字音信息比单音词多；从语义所接收的信息，对认知和辨识词义是更为明确的。本文冀望通过这样的研究工作，可以帮助来自不同语言背景的汉语学习者，激活、提取和应用汉语词语表义，以及提出改善母语非汉语受试者输出汉语词语面对的问题。

## 2.0 前人研究

汉语词语的双音化对于母语非汉语的学习者在识记、辨认汉语词语有着重大的作用。本文欲从非华裔的受试者书写的汉语作文，研究他们对汉语双音词的认知和输出的问题。徐子亮（2017，页 43）认为汉语单音词对母语非汉语学习者的识记存在这些难度：一、单音词只有一个音节，语音持续的时间太短，学习者的听觉神经所接收到的声音信息刺激度不够而对辨别正确的词语有难度。二、有相同语音的单音词不少，除了声音的信息，学习者还要从字形和字义的信息来区分同音字，消耗的时长比识别双音词还要长。三、词义是单词识别的重要变量，听到字音、看到字形，字义就能自动化出现。然而母语非汉语的学习者不一定能做到如此，他们对字音和字形的识记有不同的反应，尤其是母语来自拼音文字的学习者，字音对他们激活和联想字义的反应强于字形。如果字义的通达没有通过字形的激活和提取，所联想的字义不一定准确，因为同音字的干扰是激活字义的另一个变量。对于这一个问题也可以从母语非汉语学习者所书写的汉语作文看出端倪。

汉语作为第二语言的教学应尽量利用词义的联想与引申来识记词语（徐子亮，2017，页 56）。汉语是一种词根语，大部分的双音词是由一个词根与另一词根组合而成。母语非汉语的学习者积累了与单音词相关的一定数量的双音节词，反过来也能促进单音节词的学习与认知。根据徐氏（2007，页 44-46）的看法，汉语双音词对母语非汉语学习者在语音、字形和词义的识记和辨认能起到的正面作用有这些功能：一、双音词的词音和词形的线索越多，能唤取、激活和联想的词义就越丰富。双音词比单音词提供了较多的语音、词形和语义线索，自然就容易识记。二、双音词提供的信息，无论从词音检索词义（听觉信息），或从词义检索词音（说出的词语），或从词形检索词义（阅读），或从词义检索词形（写出），双音词比单音词增加的信息量都能促进学习者检索词语表达的信息。三、由某一个词素为中心所衍生的词语之间，有一个词素的音、形是共同的，其语义相同或相近，如“友情”、“友谊”；“社会”、“社群”。不管由词音或词形刺激对词语的联想，都会激活出一批相关的双音词。

由两个语素构成的合成词词义，可以表示词义的某些内容，或者事物的特征如形状、作用、构造等（王理嘉，符准青，马真，李小凡，2003，页 148）。母语非汉语的受试者如能使用名词的合成词来建构作文的语境字，至少在表义上比单音节的名词强。周小兵（2009，页 181）认为二语的写作应培养学习者可以在不同语境下使用汉语各种正确的表达方式，而句型的教学应注重语义和语用。

崔希亮(2016, 页 58)指出词汇的结构往往能反映学习者对客观世界的认识水平,如对自然秩序与社会文化秩序的认识。因此,不同族群、不同语言背景的学习者对汉语的自然和社会文化秩序,可能会有不同的认识。母语为汉语者对这两者的认识以经线为基础,而英语为母语者则以纬线为基础。而本文研究的受试者的母语背景有来自马来语、淡米尔语和英语,在多言多语的文化环境生活的他们,对汉语语境字的输出会受到什么因素影响是本文有兴趣了解的问题。

白玉寒(2017, 页 106)认为对外汉语词汇的教学目标有三,即:一、使母语非汉语的学习者能掌握一定的词汇数量;二、确定他们能“识词”;以及三、鉴定他们还能“用词”。汉语作文语境字的输出,能考核受试者对汉语词汇量的掌握,从中还能评估他们识词和用词的能力,是否符合汉语思维的认知模式和特点。

新修辞学把语境作为语类要做出反应的主导因素,在语言社会学中,语境决定语类,但语类又对语境的组成做出贡献(Guenther & Knoblauch, 1995)。Halliday(1978)把语境分为情境语境和文化语境。不管那一种语境,母语非汉语的学习者对作文的表达能力,在很大的程度上,起决于他们是否能够激活和输出语类中的词汇进行表达。语类的表义可以分为上位词和下位词的表义,下位词的表义在汉语需要使用超过一个音节的词来表义。因此,本文需要从受试者所写的汉语作文观察他们所输出的语境字,是否具备了这种输出精确下位词的能力。张德禄(2012, 页 248)认为“一个人所赖以成长的文化语境将会直接影响他的思维模式和讲话方式。母语非汉语的学习者成长的文化环境与母语为汉语的学习者不同,他们在作文中表现的“写话的方式”在很大的程度上受其母语思维的影响,而输出的汉语词语与词义模式有差异。

邢红兵(2003, 页 67, 75)根据“汉语中介语语料库系统”中收录的留学生所犯的偏误合成词进行了分析,得出的偏误合成词主要包括这四类:新造词、语素替代、语素顺序错误和语素错误。这些偏误合成词的产生,可归纳为留学生对构成合成词语素、结构、音节和语义的意识不强所导致的,前二者的因素占主要。邢氏认为留学生生成的合成词大部分有明确语素和结构意识,但是也有部分生成的合成词的语素和结构是模糊的。邢氏的研究结论得出留学生习得汉语复合词的方法存在“分解习得”和“整词习得”两种方式,其中以前者占主导地位。邢氏(2003, 页 68)认为偏误词的产生,除了语素和结构为主要的的问题以外,有一部分是由于汉字的原因和母语词汇的负迁移所造成的。由汉字的因素造成的偏误包括这三类:一、字形相似造成的偏误;二、字音相同或相近造成的偏误;及三、字音字形造成的偏误。来自汉字文化圈的留学生如日本与韩国,则直接借用母语词语的词汇来替代汉语复合词的语素。

牛士伟(2018, 页 138-139, 142)将外国汉语学习者输出汉字的偏误类型,归纳为四类:一、错字和别字。错字指的是笔画、部件和整字的偏误;别字则指音近、形近的偏误;二、非字和假字;三、汉字音形义的偏误;四、综合运用汉字的构型单位、属性和结构等的偏误。造成汉字书写偏误依序为形似、音近、结构复杂、笔画多和部件多的因素。与学习者特征有关的因素依次为母语负迁移、学习策略失当、学习动机不足、正字法的认知欠缺。此外,外国汉语

学习者对目的语的泛化与学习者对汉字的认知心理因素也会导致汉字书写偏误的产生。

李小凤和李玉洁（2018，页 73）调查泰国汉语初级阶段学习者的汉语写作偏误，发现汉字书写的问题是学习的难点。泰国汉语初级阶段学习者所犯的汉字偏误，主要是他们对汉字的形音义关系了解得不够所导致。学习者在听写与辨音的过程中，把读音相近的两个汉字联系在一起，不管字义，用音近的相似度、熟悉度高的别字代替了正字。泰国汉语初级阶段的学生对汉语的同音字、同音词在字形辨别上的认识不够清晰。此外，他们书写汉字的偏误还包括笔画缺失与增误、部件的拆分、串改与替换的问题。陈德银与杨绪明（2018，页 44-45）指出泰国学生出现汉字书写偏误的原因，可分为基础原因和具体原因。基础原因是指汉语自身特点和母语负迁移对泰国学生输出有误汉字的影响。泰文是拼音文字，与汉字作对比，无论是形体或结构都存在差异，面对结构较为复杂的汉字，不熟悉汉字的形音义的话，容易出现汉字书写错误的问题。具体的原因有三：一、泰国学生的汉字基础知识薄弱，对汉字笔画数目、组合规则概念不熟悉。二、泰国学生的汉字书写偏误有部分是因为他们混淆构成汉字的部件所致的。三、他们对汉字的形音义的理解不当引发语内的负迁移。

王红侠（2020，页 71-73）从使用汉语词语偏误的类型，归纳了中亚留学生的偏误问题，主要有这六类：一、词语句法功能；二、词语搭配关系；三、词语理性意义；四、词语附加意义；五、词语使用；六、词汇量不足；及七、对词典释义或翻译理解所引发的各种词语使用的偏误。王氏（2020，页 73）认为中亚留学生对汉语词语使用所产生的偏误，原因是他们不了解汉语词语使用的语境，包括不了解语义背景和上下文语境而引起的，同时也缺乏汉语为母语者的语感。

有鉴于此，本文打算以马来西亚的母语非汉语的学习者所写的汉语作文作为“写出/输出”的词语，探究受试者对汉语词义的联想是否可以成功激活、提取、辨识和正确地输出汉语的双音词，以及输出汉语词语时产生的偏误问题。

### 3.0 研究方法和概念

#### 3.1 研究对象

本文调查的母语非汉语的学习者共有三十位，他们的语言背景主要来自马来语、淡米尔语和英语。马来西亚有三大族群，除了华人，其余的两大族群分别是马来人和印度人。这两大族群的学习者被父母送入当地的国民型华文小学（华小）入读，接受华文教育。入读华小的非华裔生和华裔生同在一屋檐下接受同水平的汉语教学，尽管前者汉语水平为零基础。参与此研究的非华裔生在有关就读的华小至少学习了五年的汉语，能流利地以基础的汉语作口语交际，但

是汉语写作能力的表达，则不及汉语口语表达的程度好，这是因为“说出”的能力只涉及语音激活、提取和语音词语的输出，而“写出”的能力还牵涉词形和语义的激活、记认、辨识和整字的输出。参与本文研究测试的受试者所写的汉语作文，将成为本文的语料，提供本文进一步研究他们输出汉语双音词的能力，以及其面对的问题。

以下是选取非华裔受试者的条件：

1) 受试者必须在马来西亚华文小学就读的非华裔生。在华小就读至少已经有学习汉语五年的习得经验。

2) 受试者学习汉语为外语学习，掌握汉语是在华小就读的必要条件，因为华小的教学媒介语为汉语。汉语的听说读写是学习汉语须掌握的技能。

3) 受试者必须具备基础汉语写作的能力。受试者没有思维认知上的障碍，能够掌握基本的汉语词汇进行写作。

### 3.2 研究目标和问题

本文的研究的目标和问题如下：

1) 统计母语非汉语的受试者对汉语作文语境的词语表达选择倾向于使用单音节词、双音节词或多音节词来表达词义。

问题（1）母语非汉语的受试者对汉语作文的词语选择倾向于使用单音节词、双音节词或多音节词来表达词义？

2) 归纳母语非汉语的受试者在汉语作文的语境激活、提取和输出双音节词的方法和面对的问题。

问题（2）母语非汉语的受试者采用哪些方法激活和提取汉语双音节词的语素，以及他们面对哪些问题？

3) 建议一些教学方法以帮助和提升母语非汉语的学习者激活、提取和输出汉语双音词语素义的能力。

问题（3）如何帮助母语非汉语的学习者提升他们激活、提取及输出双音节词的语素义？

### 3.3 研究工具和概念

受试者在汉语作文输出的词语选择，可以提供本文进一步观察母语非汉语的学习者输出作文语境字的能力。

参与此项研究的受试者须在 40 分钟完成一篇汉语作文的写作，题材不限，字数约 100 至 150 个字。分析受试者作文的语料时，注重以下所列的数据：

受试者多使用哪一类的汉语词语来进行作文内容的表达。本文欲通过受试者在作文使用的

词语进行统计，以归纳出受试者选择哪一类词语进行写作表达的趋向。

在受试者所写的汉语作文当中，收集双音节词，以窥探他们输出双音节词语素义的方法和他们所面对的问题。从分析受试者在汉语作文输出的双音节词面对的问题，进一步提出应对此难题的教学法。

## 4.0 研究发现和讨论

### 4.1 受试者的汉语作文所使用的词语

从词语的音节数来看，30位受试者所写的汉语作文，单音节词的统计为2,286个，所占的百分比68.56%；双音节词的统计为959个，所占的百分比为28.76%；而多音节词所占的数量为89个，占了2.68%，数据的统计如图1所示：

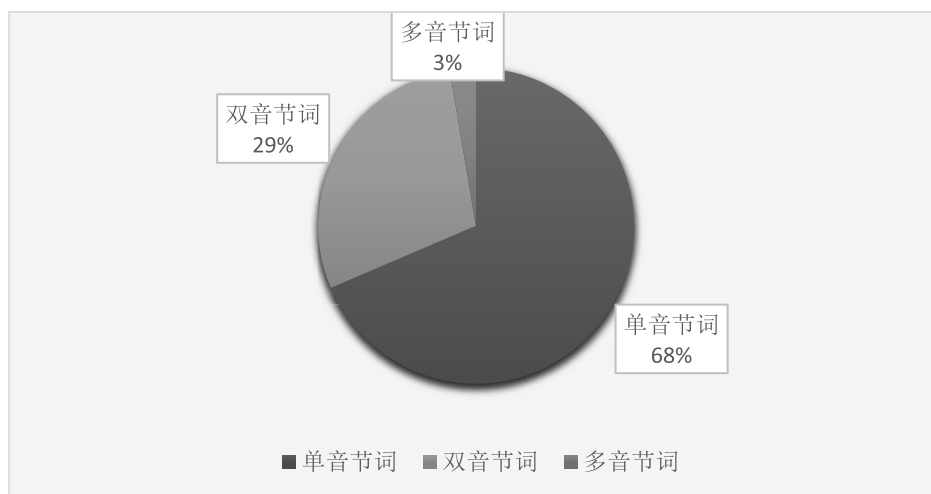


图 1：受试者汉语作文所使用的词语统计

统计的结果显示，尽管受试者已有汉语写作的基础能力，但是在选择词语的表达上倾向于选择单音节词，对于双音节词的选择远不及于前者，仅有少数的词语是属于多音节词。虽然双音节词和多音节词比单音节词在表达上，可以提供至少多一倍或以上的词义信息，但是受试者对记忆和储存双音节词和多音节词的能力有限。他们不一定可以完整地记忆双音节词和多音节词的语音、词形和词义的组合。分析的数据显示，为了不增加记忆的负担、出错的机率，他们倾向于选择单音节词作为表义的词语。表1显示的是30位受试者所写的汉语作文在输出单音节词、双音节词和多音节词的数量统计：



表 1: 受试者的汉语作文输出单音节词、双音节词和多音节词表义的统计

	受试者作文输出词语的数量	人数	百分比	总百分比
单音节词统计	少于 100 个单音节词	24	54.85%	68.56%
	介于 101-190 个单音节词	06	13.71%	
双音节词统计	少于 30 个双音节词	13	12.46%	28.76%
	介于 31-60 个双音节词	17	16.30%	
多音节词统计	少于 7 个多音节词	23	2.05%	2.68%
	介于 8-15 个多音节词	03	0.27%	
	完全没输出多音节词	04	0.36%	

本文根据受试者作文输出单音节词的数量分为两个类别，第一个类别的受试者所输出的单音节词少于 100 个的占 54.85%，超过 101 而少于 190 个单音节词的占 13.71%。这个统计数字说明大部分受试者的汉语作文所输出的单音词数量，以少于 100 个为多数。输出单音节词数量最少者是 22 个，最多者为 186 个。

受试者在汉语作文输出的双音节词数量少于 30 个的，占了 12.46%，而介于 31 至 60 个的，则占了 16.30%。后者的百分比略高于前者。他们在汉语作文输出的双音节词的数量不及单音节词的数量多。输出双音节词数量最少者 3 个，输出双音节词数量最多者为 58 个。

受试者在汉语作文输出的多音节词的数量有限，仅占作文总体词汇输出量的 2.68%。受试者的汉语作文完全无使用多音节词的占了 0.36%，少于 7 个多音节词的占了 2.05%，而输出介于 8 至 13 个多音节词的则占了 0.27%。由此可见，受试者写的汉语作文使用多音节词所占的百分比最低。总的来说，大部分的受试者在写作输出词语时，以输出单音节词的数量为多。

从表 1 所示的数据，受试者所写的汉语作文，选择以单音节词表义的均值最高为 76.20，其次是双音节词均值为 31.97，而最低的是多音节词，其均值为 2.97。这个统计研究至少说明了一个问题，对母语非汉语的受试者，语素越多组成的词语对他们的记忆负担越重，在汉语写作的词义表达上，为了减轻记认词语的负担，他们倾向于选择单音节词为语境字。

在受试者所写的汉语作文统计出来的双音节词共有 959 个，从词性上来说，可分为名词、动词和形容词的合成词。名词性的双音节词有四类，即并列结构组成的双音节词，如：“朋友、知识、方法”；偏正结构组成的双音词“活动、成绩、心情”；词头和名词组成的双音节词如“老师”，以及表达复数的人称代词，如“我们”、“你们”和“它们”。动词性的双音节词也有四类，即：述宾结构组成的双音节词，如“上学、回家、谈天”；并列结构的双音节词，如：“喜爱、选择、帮助”；偏正结构的双音节词，如“毕业、浪费、默写”，述补结构的双音节词，如“放松、扫除、演出”等。形容词性的双音节词则有两类，即：并列结构的双音节词，如：“高兴、辛苦、优良”；偏正结构的双音节词，如：“美味、进步、开心”等。

纯粹只是讨论受试者写作所使用的词语类型和词性，还不足于发现他们在输出作文语境字

时所面对的问题，因为输出的双音词还要看它们与语境字的表义是否匹配，才能发现他们输出双音节词的问题。根据本文分析受试者在作文中输出的双音节词存在表2所归纳的汉字问题：

表 2: 受试者在输出汉语作文语境字中的双音节词发现的汉字问题

编号	作文语境字中的双音节词存在的问题	形成偏误的因素
1.	用拼音文字替代不能输出的双音节词。	母语负迁移 - 基础因素
2.	用熟悉的语言词汇替代不能输出的双音节词。	母语（马来语）和强势语言（英语）迁移 - 基础因素
3.	用同音字或近音字替代不能输出的双音节词。	汉字字音的因素 - 具体因素 - 语内的负迁移
4.	用形似字替代不能输出的双音节词。	汉字字形的因素 - 具体因素 - 语内的负迁移
5.	用不同义符、意符或声符的替代字取代双音词的原字。	汉字字音字形的因素 - 具体因素 - 语内负迁移

根据前人研究的发现（邢红兵 2003，牛士伟 2018，李小凤和李玉洁 2018，王红侠 2020），母语非汉语的学习者输出汉语词语的偏误可分为汉字书写和使用偏误两类。本文受试者输出的双音词的偏误问题，可以归纳为母语（强势语言）负迁移与语内负迁移两种偏误，而汉字的偏误因素，又可分为基础因素与具体因素。陈德银和杨绪明（2018）指出采用拼音文字替代汉字的字形是受试者母语负迁移的影响，而不能正确记认和输出汉字的整字，是汉字基础知识认知不足的问题，前者为基础因素，而后者为具体因素。当受试者不能激活、提取及输出汉语作文的语境字时，他们一般会采用以下几种补偿策略来替代不能输出的词语，如采用拼音文字，因为他们的母语为拼音文字，对拼音的记认强于字形，一旦他们不能输出汉语词语的字形时，拼音往往作为他们替代的策略。

使用他们所熟悉的语言马来语或英语的词语替代不能输出的汉语词语，说明受试者的词汇不足，须依赖母语或强势语言的词语补偿目的语的词语。这种偏误属于基础因素（陈德银和杨绪明，2018）。邢红兵（2003）指出直接使用母语的词汇来替代汉语复合词的语素，在汉语的写作上是母语非汉语的学习者常见的语用偏误。

采用同音字或近音字、形似字、或与原字的义符、意符或声符不同的字来替代双音节词中的语素，是受试者对汉字字音字形认知不足所致（陈德银和杨绪明，2018），这些使用汉字的偏误问题属于具体的因素，说明他们对汉字整字构成的表音和表义的部件，还没有完整正确的认知，容易受到音近、音同和形似部件的误导，进而输出与汉语双音节原字有误的“别字”或“非字”（牛士伟，2018）。这些替代的策略反映了受试者在提取汉语双音词如下的问题：一、他们对构成汉语双音节词的语素和字的记认不牢。二、当他们不能正确地输出汉语双音词的语素和字时，他们会依赖母语的拼音字母替代，通过拼音符号来反映双音词的语素义，这是受试者母语负迁移的佐证。三、他们不能从汉字的部件激活双音词原字的语音和词义的信息。汉字表义的部件是义符或意符，而表音的部件是声符，受试者受限于对汉字部件表义和表音的知识不

强，未能意识用来替代原字的义符、意符或声符有误。

钱玉莲和赵晴菊（2009，页 122）认为二语写作真正的目的是用语言创造意义，准确使用汉语语法和词汇只是培养应用语言的其中一个能力，汉语思维的培养也非常重要。周小兵（2009，页 181）指出二语的写作训练还应包括讲评、改错、分析、归纳和总结等。以下的讨论就是针对三位学者提出的看法来归纳和总结受试者在输出汉语语境字表义所面对的问题。

## 4.2 受试者作文输出语境字的问题

从分析受试者作文所选用的语境字，本文发现了以下这些问题，以下将逐一举例说明并讨论受试者在激活及输出词语所面对的难题。这些难题不纯粹是词语语素量的问题，也不一定是汉字语音、字形和字义信息的问题，而是受试者自身的问题，如母语习得方法的干扰，记忆的负担，汉语知识，汉语的语感，语言熟练度，补偿策略的使用，都会对受试者是否能正确输出语境字造成影响。这些因素将影响受试者对汉语词语语音、词形和词义输出的变数，在对外汉语的教学上，尤其是语言的输出是不能漠视不管的问题。

### 4.2.1 使用拼音文字激活意义

汉语的多音节词是在双音节词的基础上拓展的，如“办公室”即由述宾结构的双音节词“办公”和名词中心语“室”组合成偏正结构的词组。受试者作文的语境字就有这么一个句子“我去倒 ban 工时”，句子中有四个字都是受试者按照拼音文字的读音来表达词义：(1)“倒”是“到”的误字。(2)“ban 工时”是“办公室”的读音拼写，其中“ban”(办)这个语素，受试者只能激活和输出该语素声母和韵母的读音，无法提取该字的声调，完全不能激活有关整字的形体。(3)“工”是“公”是同音字，“时”和“室”音近字，声韵同而调异。这种依靠语音信息来激活单音节词和多音节词的语素义对母语非汉语的受试者表达语境字的词义是不起促进作用的。

受试者提取语素义时不能意识字调的辨义作用，以及忽略了汉字义符的表义信息，才会产生“倒”和“到”两者不分，放到作文句子的语境来看，就知道前字是误字。“工”和“公”虽是同音字，可是字义有别，前者是“工作”的“工”，后者是“公事”的“公”，受试者仅依赖语音激活词义，而不具备激活和提取词形的信息，是不能准确输出双音节词“办公”的词形和词义。再如“时”和“室”两字的声母和韵母完全相同，声调和词形区别两字的词义，“时”指的是“时间”，而“室”意为办公的地方。这些偏误反映了一个重要的问题，储存在受试者脑海的汉语词库，主要是词语的语音信息，而这语音信息是不带词语的声调信息，而他们所储存的汉语词语，词形信息对他们认知词义的促进作用，不如语音信息，所输出的词义与实际所要表达的词语不符。这一点说明不是音节或语素量的多寡影响受试者对输出汉语词语造成干扰，而是受试者还没有掌握正确的字音、字形和字义的知识来激活和输出汉语的词语进行表达。在

他们所写的汉语作文，这些偏误字都不能促进句子语境的建构和表达。

#### 4.2.2 使用其他语言的词汇替代不能激活的汉语词汇表义

母语非汉语的受试者在不能激活汉语词汇时，通常会使用他们所熟悉的语言如马来语或英语词汇作为补偿策略，以代替不能输出的语境字表义。受试者的作文中有这样的例句：“爸爸抹地和妈妈 vacum 房子”，“vacuum”是英语的词语，替代汉语的双音节词“吸尘”；“爸爸 berjanji 带我们去吃 KFC”，“berjanji”是马来语的词语，替代汉语的双音节词“答应”，而受试者因为不能激活和输出汉语的词语表义，只好使用他们熟悉的马来语和英语的词语来代替汉语词语进行表义。这种情况反映了受试者的记忆词库所储存的汉语词汇非常有限，即使有关的词汇在他们的日常生活经常被使用，要他们激活汉语的词汇来表达还是有一定的难度。词频固然可以作为联想汉语词语的变数，但是如果有关的词频不及受试者对英语惯用语被使用的词频，受试者对有关词语的激活难于从惯用语转向用汉语词语来表义。受试者自身母语的词汇也会成为补偿策略的一种替代的手段，以取代他们不能激活和输出的汉语词汇。受试者在进行汉语写作时，是否可以激活、提取和输出有关的汉语词汇，不只受语素量、词语的语音、词形和词义信息的影响，还包括受试者母语词语的干扰，以及他们不能输出汉语词语时所采用的补偿策略。

#### 4.2.3 不能从汉字的义符提取语素义的义类

凡是合体字其中一个部件为义符或意符，义符表达汉字的义类，如凡是由“艹”部件组成的汉字，如“草花蔬”字的义类都跟植物有关，只要能够激活合体字的义符至少可以知道该字的词义属于哪一种义类。而“意符”指的是会意字表意的部件，如“明”有“日”和“月”两个意符，“日光”和“月光”合起来表达“光明”的语义。受试者不能直接从汉字的形体直接地激活和提取义符和意符表义的信息，往往在输出双音节词的语素义时，不能准确输出语素义的义符，如受试者的作文就有这样的一个句子“爸妈不再家，我会煮饭、鸡、鱼、疏菜和水果给他们吃”，在语境中的“疏菜”的“疏”就遗漏了义符的部件“艹”。“疏”和“蔬”的字义相差甚远，前字指的是“疏密”的“疏”，而后字指的是成为人类食物来源的植物“蔬菜”。这个偏误反映了受试者激活和提取双音节词的语素义并非依赖词语形体的信息，而是词语的语音激活、提取和输出有关的语素，至于输出的语素与所要表达的词义是否相符，则不是受试者的认知能力所能判断的。

#### 4.2.4 使用近义词或同义词来替代不能激活的语素义

来自母语非汉语的受试者在不能激活、提取和输出汉语词语时，有两种补偿的策略是他们会使用的，即：(1) 采用上文所说的拼音文字；(2) 使用近义词或同义词替代。这两种情况的例子，如：“有时我跟组长讲不要跟老师话我没有 zhuo 我的功课”，语境中的“话”字是受试者不能激活“说”字而采取的同义词替代的补偿策略。单音词“说”或“话”在词义的表达上较倾

向于口语的色彩,使用“报告”双音节词比“说”或“话”更符合作文语境字的表达。“zhuo”则是使用拼音文字来替代不能输出的单音节词“做”的补偿策略。这两种情况反映了两个值得关注的现象:一、受试者在写作时,不能使用书面语的词汇进行写作,根据他们的初级汉语水平程度,他们只能使用口语的词汇进行书面语词义的表达;二、能使用单音词来表达作文语境的词义时,他们不会使用双音节词语,如“话”的词义表达不如“报告”的信息丰富,“做”的词义表达不及述补结构的双音节词语“完成”来得贴切。这两种情况反映了母语非汉语的受试者在不能输出汉语的词汇时,倾向于选择单音节词语或拼音文字表义。其次是他们没有足够的词汇量来表达双音节词的词义,对组成双音节词的语素记忆模糊,如“说话”,受试者只记得其中一个语素,只能激活“话”,而不能激活“说”,“话”放到以上作文句子的语境不能正确的表义。至于根据句子的语境能够输出恰当的双音节词对受试者来说是极大的挑战,他们还不能像汉语母语者那样熟练输出汉语词语。

#### 4.2.5 使用误词来表达双音节词的词义

这是另一个有力的证据,受试者使用语音的信息来激活汉语双音节词的词义。受试者的作文有这样的例句:“我希望我六年级毕越后还可以跟……越玩和学习新的智识”,“现在我的成记进步了很多”,这两个例句共有四个词语输出不当,都是使用语音信息来激活错误的词语,不能正确地表义,如“毕业”、“约玩”、“知识”和“成绩”,分别错误地输出为“毕越”、“越玩”、“智识”和“成记”。可见受试者记忆的词库储存的词语以语音形式为主,所以“越”的语音可以表达“业”和“约”的词义;“智”可表达“知”的词义,“记”可表达“绩”的词义,而这些误字与作文语境所要表达的词义无关。这不仅仅是误字这么简单,往深一层去分析,却反映了受试者对汉语双音节语素的组合的知识,还没有打下坚实的根基,也不了解双音节词语素组成合成词的表义关系。如果受试者明白组成合成词的语素义,必定不会完全依赖语音的信息来激活双音节词的语义。换句话说,受试者以为激活双音节词的语音即便完成词语的输出,而对词形信息的正确与否,则缺少判断的能力。

#### 4.2.6 使用形似字激活双音节词的语素

相对来说,受试者对激活和提取记忆词库中的词形信息的能力较弱,近似字对他们输出双音节词的干扰是存在的。受试者的作文当中有这样的一个例句:“老师辛苦的教异我们”,“教导”的“导”字在受试者输出时受到近似字的干扰,受试者错误输出的是“异”字。汉语的词库没有“教异”的合成词,这两个语素的匹配不能产生词义。语素之间正确的匹配才能生出词义,所以合成词和词组的语素义不能完全被激活、提取和正确地输出,那么受试者对有关词义的认识和理解是不全面。双音节词的语素是否可以正确地被输出,是建构作文语境的其中一个重要的自变量,输出的词形信息越多错误,判断语义的信息越不明确,那么对作文语境的表义是越模糊的。问题的关键在于受试者不能察觉这种词形输出导致语素义匹配的错误。

#### 4.2.7 缺乏汉语语感的认知提取正确的词语表义

汉语非母语的受试者在记忆的词库激活词语表义时，由于缺乏汉语的语感辅助，储存的词汇量不足，往往不能选择正确的词语来表义。他们所输出的词语放到作文句子的语境时，与语境中其他的词语在词义的匹配上是格格不入的。这种格格不入是受试者对选择词语表义的语感不强导致的。受试者的作文有这样的一个例句：“我的缺点是，在课室上是一个懒惰的学生”，“课室”这个词义和语境中其他的词语是不匹配的，正确的词语是“班上”。课室指的是学生上课的建筑物，即教室；而“班上”指的是一群学生组成的班级。当受试者认为自己和其他学生做对比时，自己比其他的学生懒惰，他对比的是自己和这一班级的学生，而不是建筑物。因此，“班上”才是符合句子语境表义的词语。“课室”和“班上”的词义差异，要做出区分，对缺乏汉语语感的受试者而言，是一种难度较高的挑战。这说明要判断作文句子的语境字，词义正确地被激活和输出并符合语境的词语，受试者是否能够激活词义的信息是重要的关键。只有汉语的熟练者，具有高度汉语水平的学习者，才能凭着汉语的语感，判断词语之间的词义差别，放在哪些语境是恰当的或不恰当的。因此，句子中的语境字的选取和判断，与受试者学习汉语的熟练度有关。一般基础的汉语学习者是难于判断语境字匹配的正确性。正因为受试者不具备汉语熟练者的语感，在输出句子的语境字时会产生输出与语境不匹配的词语，这种情况是作文语境字输出不能忽略的教学问题。

#### 4.2.8 对汉语动词和名词匹配的认知不强

受试者所写的汉语作文语境中出现的受支配的名词，往往遗漏了相关的动词，或者一个的动词在他们的认知里可以匹配所有不同类型的名词。这两个问题说明了受试者对汉语名词和动词语义的匹配没有正确的认知和理解。受试者的作文有这样的一个例句：“爸妈不再家时，我会煮饭、鸡、鱼、蔬菜和水果个他们吃”，语境中的动词“煮”用来匹配不同类型的食物，而这些食材和食物可以有不同的动词来支配，如“鸡肉”可以“炒”或“炸”；“鱼肉”可以“煎”或“蒸”；“蔬菜”可以“炒”或“烫”；“水果”可以“切”或“剥”等，至少这个句子的语境字还能插入适当的动词，以丰富语境字的表义。受试者因为受到动词词汇量的局限，容易把相同的一个动词词义“泛化”，用它来匹配各种不同种类的名词。而对各种不同名词种类的认知，往往是对上位词的认知，如“饭”、“鸡”、“鱼”、“蔬菜”和“水果”，不能落实到对下位词的举例，如“饭”有“炒饭”、“焖饭”、“咖喱饭”、“盖饭”等；“鸡”有“鸡排”、“咖喱鸡”、“柠檬鸡”、“炸鸡”等；“鱼”有“酸辣鱼、煎鱼、蒸鱼、咖喱鱼”等。句子中的每一个语境字，不管是名词、动词或形容词，如果得到适当的扩展，可以帮助受试者更好地表达作文的内容思想。句子中的名词和动词是最好扩充词义的语境字，只要受试者能使用恰当的词汇来指明这些食材和食物的下位词、烹煮的方法、品尝食物的动词，以及形容食物经烹煮和处理过后的味道，就能使作文的语境得到扩展，丰富内容思想的表达。

#### 4.2.9 采用的形容词描述的个体和事物的特性不匹配

形容词的使用须和所描述的个体和事物的特性匹配。受试者须同时理解用来形容个体和事物特性两者的词义信息。然而对母语非汉语的受试者而言，这也是另一个难度。他们尝试在写汉语作文时，把形容词也当作语境字，用它来描述个体或事物的特性，输出的形容词存在以下的问题：(1) 形容词的使用与所描写的个体和事物的特性不符合，如作文中有这样的一个例句：“第二个方法是用钱去华美旅行社”，实际上这个语境要表达的是“把钱用在参加豪华的旅行团”，“华美”匹配“旅行社”，让人误解为旅行社的名称为“华美”，受试者的原意并非是要描述旅行社，而是参加旅行团，“华美”形容旅行团的词义不匹配，“豪华”匹配旅行团比较合适。(2) 使用的形容词，不能贴切地描述事物存在的目的和意义，如作文有这样的一个例句：“我很开心，因为我有扑满”，根据作文的上下语境，受试者实际上要表达的原意是如此：“我很开心，因为我把扑满里的钱用在有意义的事情上”。“开心”和“用钱的意义”的词义匹配才能显示出来，这也是形容词描述事件的功能。(3) 使用程度副词“很”加形容词描述个体，如：“我有 hen 多 同学：三十二个人在我的班”，正确的表述是“我班共有三十二个学生，因此我有很多的同学”。又如：“第二个方法是用钱去华美旅行社：香港、中国和澳洲，因为我可以知道很多地方”，这个句子的原意是如此：“第二个方法是把钱花在参加豪华的旅行团，可以去香港、中国和澳洲游玩，因为旅游使我认识很多的国家”。可见受试者对“很多”的理解不一定是放在事物数量的庞大，不是基于数量多寡的概念，而是只要某个事物的数量多于一，就使用程度副词加形容词“很多”来表述物量。(4) 形容词的词义信息须与事件的结果相关，如：“中午 12 时，大扫除结束了，我们的房子整洁又美观”，“房子”变得整洁又美观原因在于大扫除的后果，但是句子的语境不能将两者的词义信息链接起来。把受试者的句子稍微改动就能显示大扫除和房子词义信息的关联，如“经过几小时的大扫除之后，我们的房子变得整洁又美观”。受试者不只要正确地输出形容词，还要把形容词的词义信息与所描述的事物信息有逻辑地衔接起来。形容词的使用与所描述的事物特性须连贯起来，才能显示形容词在语境字的作用。母语非汉语的受试者不一定能掌握这种使用形容词修饰、限制和描述个体或事物的特性。(5) 只能激活双音节形容词的其中一个语素，形容词语素义的输出不完整，如“最近，我的朋友都慢慢的里远我，我觉得很不开心又闷”，“渐渐地”比“慢慢的”更符合语境的表达，“里远”的“里”是“离”的语音误字，“疏远”比“离远”更符合语境的表义，而受试者不能激活“郁闷”，只输出双音节词的单个语素“闷”。稍微改动句子的语境字，就能彰显双音节形容词描述“我”的心情，即：“最近，我的朋友都渐渐地疏远我，让我觉得很不开心和郁闷”，双音节形容词的使用如“渐渐”、“郁闷”能更贴切地描述和形容受试者郁郁寡欢的心情和原因。总之，双音节形容词的词义信息对建构句子的语境比单音词丰富。并列结构的形容词词组在连用时，前个形容词是双音节的，紧跟着的形容词也应该是双音节的，如：“不开心和郁闷”，“整洁又美观”。

双音化是现代汉语的语言特点，在汉语写作的语言选择上，应教导受试者如何掌握双音节

词来建构句子的语境字，以使句子的表义更为具体和丰富。

综合以上的讨论，受试者在汉语写作上输出的语境字，以双音节词为例，可以归纳的发现与问题，如图 2 所示：

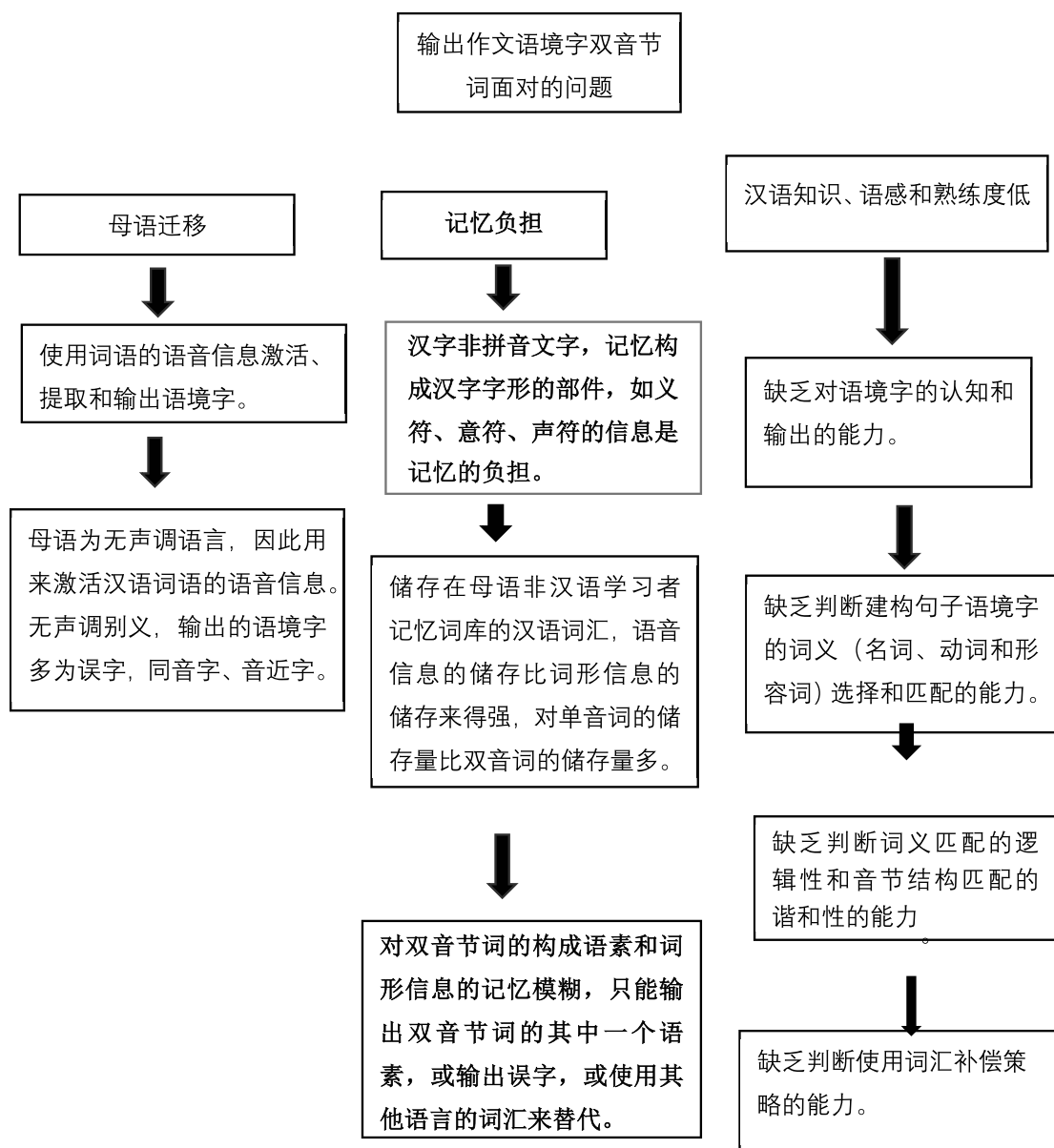


图 2：受试者在激活、提取和输出汉语作文语境字（双音词为例）所面对的问题

综合以上所述，受试者在写作时输出的汉语词语所归纳的偏误，受到三种因素的影响，即图 2 所示的受试者的母语迁移、熟记汉字的记忆负担及汉语知识、语感和熟练度不足的问题所造成的。这三种因素根据前人的研究，前者可被视为基础因素，中者为学习者的特征因素（指语言背景和习得母语的方法），而后者可归纳为具体因素。母语负迁移的因素主要是指受试者在输出和使用汉语词语时，依靠其母语的语音信息来激活和提取作文的语境字。这些语境字用



拼音输出，不带汉语的声调，这是母语负迁移导致的。受试者使用同音或近音字替代语境字，别字当中的声符与语境字的声符有别，这是语内负迁移所形成的汉字偏误。迁移的类型可以分为学习者母语迁移的类型与汉语语内的负迁移（陈德银和杨绪明，2018，页44），这两种负迁移的类型都发生在本文受试者所输出的语境字。牛士伟（2018，页142）认为母语负迁移的因素属于学习者特征有关的因素，要纠正这些负迁移所引起的汉字偏误问题，为师者应根据学习者的语言背景、地区、国家、年龄层与汉语水平的能力，向他们解释与分析这些偏误产生的原因。

汉字自身的特点与受试者母语特点有别，汉字是表意文字，而受试者的母语为拼音文字。董天舒和殷树林（2020，页76）认为表音词如英语，一个语素可以用一个音素来表示，同时也是音素的组合形式，字符和音符的相匹配，并不是直接用来表示某种意义。这与构成汉字字义的义符、意符及字音的声符不同。受试者需要记认构成汉字的部件和部件的位置，形音义三元素构成整字的义理，加重他们的记忆。他们对储存汉字字音的信息强于字形，对单音节词构成的语境字的记认强于双或多音节词。由于受到汉字自身特点的因素影响，再加上受试者对汉字的知识掌握不足，在不能输出作文的语境字时，会以其所熟悉的词语或以语素量最少的词语来替代作文的语境字。再者，受试者受限于自身的汉语水平能力，掌握的词汇量不足，难于在作文的语境字上使用双或多音节词。杨同用和李林林（2021，页218）认为以零起点的学习者在学习汉语一段时间以后，是否可以自主输出和使用汉字，这是值得大家关注的问题。学习者不能正确地输出汉字，一般也不能正确地使用汉字来表达作文的语境字。从本文归纳受试者的语境字的偏误来看，他们的偏误包括了汉字输出的偏误与语用的偏误。至于作文的语境字为超过一个语素时，他们往往不能完整地输出双或多音节词的完整语素量，其中一个语素有汉字书写或使用的偏误问题，这证明了他们的记忆不能负担语素多组成的语境字。

就学习者的特征而言，本文的受试者为学习汉语的零起点者，对汉语知识的掌握薄弱，他们还不具备汉语的语感，对汉语的使用不熟练。受限于汉语水平的程度，受试者缺乏足够的词汇量输出汉语作文所欲表达的语境字。最明显的汉字使用偏误，就是受试者对汉语名词、动词和形容词词义匹配的认知不强，容易泛化词义，导致词语表义的匹配缺乏逻辑性，进而影响作文句意表达的准确性。李小凤和李玉洁（2018，77）认为母语非汉语的学习者对词语搭配的逻辑性和敏感度不高，尤其是动词的误用或泛化，难于对名词下位词的特性作出具体的描述，辨别词义的能力有限，在实际运用中他们都按照母语思维匹配汉语的词语。

针对以上讨论的这些问题，应如何提高母语非汉语学习者输出汉语作文语境字的能力，本文将在第五节提出建议。

## 5.0 教学建议

针对图 2 的发现与问题, 本文提出以下相关的教学建议, 加强母语非汉语的受试者对汉语作文输出语境字的能力, 提高他们以正确的方法来输出双音节词。在汉语课堂的词汇教学, 站在教学前线的汉语教师须提醒母语非汉语的学习者, 切勿依赖本身母语的语音来激活、提取和输出汉语的词语, 因为其母语的语音系统不包括调类, 不能区别一系列同音字的词义区别, 他们所提取的同音字、近音字, 根据本文的实例, 都不是作文实际要表义的语境字。针对这个问题, 本文的建议在词汇的教学上, 教师应教导学习者如何认知汉语双音节词语的语素组合, 从词语组合的语音、词形信息到词义通达的方法, 都须正确地传达并让他们能全面地贯彻到词汇学习里。一旦发现学习者使用其母语的拼音文字或其他语言的词汇来替代汉语的词汇表义, 为师者须马上给与纠正。其中一个有效的自学方法就是必须教会学习者如何查阅现代汉语词典, 通过汉语拼音和部首检索词汇, 这种方法可提高学习者认识汉语词汇声韵调正确的拼写, 可以加强他们对声调别义的认知。词典展示的双音词可以提供学习者认识语素的搭配和组合可构成的一系列合成词和词组, 他们将学习到更多的双音词, 以提供他们更多的词语选择, 加强他们汉语表达。词典的词义和例句解释可以提供学习者辨别同义词、近义词、反义词的词义对比, 让他们可以区分出词义的细微差别或反义对比, 从中体会到了不同的句子语境, 须应用不同的语境字来表达。汉语教师在进行教学时, 如果能够针对以上所建议的三项在汉语的课堂实践词典使用和词汇查阅的操练并持之以恒, 相信时隔一段日子以后, 学习者一定能对汉语词汇的语音、词形和词义信息的组合有更巩固的认知能力。毕竟要学习和记忆汉语庞大的词汇量对汉语为二语和外语的学习者而言是一项负担重的记忆工作, 恐怕不能长时间地储存在他们的长期记忆的词库中, 学会如何熟练地使用词典的语言信息将有助减轻他们记认汉语词汇的记忆负担, 也能提升他们的汉语知识, 词汇量增加了, 自然可提高他们的汉语水平能力, 以及对激活、提取、输出和使用汉语词汇的熟练度。

受试者对激活汉语作文语境字双音节词的词形信息的能力最弱, 一般他们使用的语音的补偿策略来替代不能输出的词语。针对这个问题, 本文的建议是汉语教师可在这些语音之处画上空格, 要求学习者查阅词典补出属于语音的词语, 并写出有关词语的词义, 让他们判断有关的词义在句子的语境中的词义表达是否可以和其他的语境字匹配。本文的研究发现语境字表义出现的问题, 为受试者不能同时激活语境字中词语之间的信息匹配有关, 如动词和名词、形容词和名词、形容词和动词等的词义匹配, 导致语境字词义的输出缺少联系性, 或者缺乏逻辑性。因此, 除了要求受试者填补上不能激活、提取和输出的语境字, 为师者还得在班上加以解释作文语境字的表义不匹配和缺乏逻辑性引发的表义问题, 可以采用板书的教学方法, 在白板上展示受试者的原句语境, 教师带头改动句子, 鼓动班上的学习者一起参与句子的改动, 直至句子

的语境字的表义完整为止。通过这样的习作，学习者脑动、眼动、手动、口动四动的练习法，可以加强他们对词语选择、词语信息和语义搭配的认知能力。在传统的汉语写作教学，为师者只是将学习者作文用词不当之处圈起来，没有填上恰当的词语，作文分发回给学习者后，他们有没有根据教师的眉批修正写作用词不当的错误，则不得而知。21 世纪的对外汉语的教学法强调的是团队的合作精神和集体讨论问题，因此作文批改的方法，不能只是教师提供修改的意见和补正的方法，修改和补正的意见和方法理应也让班上的学习者共同参与讨论，达到同侪参与批改作文的用字，集思广益，学习者方可从其他同学给予的意见修改自己的作文，从中学到词语选择和表义的方法，并对自己作文的优缺点有更深刻的认识，这对建构作文的语境字和表义的恰当性是有积极的辅助的。

为了增强母语非汉语学习者对汉语的语感，本文建议为师者可以在汉语教学时要求学习者口头朗读作文的原文，让其他的学习者聆听朗读者的句子是否通顺，有不通顺之处的句子，是否为语境字使用不当或语境字搭配不当所引起的，师生可以参与讨论和提出修正的意见。朗读者聆听大家的意见以后可以再进行修订，修订后再给他重新朗读订正过后的作文，通过口耳相传的意见修改后的作文，在句子语境字匹配的流畅度和词义表达的正确度将会有所提高。虽然这样的教学法非常的耗时，但是只要教师愿意拨冗让学生参与这样的口耳改写活动，将会有助于提高学习者在作文输出语境字的能力。如果课时不允许进行整篇作文的改写活动，可以是段落或句子的语境字的改写活动，相信参与的学习者也可从中领悟作文选词表义的窍门和方法，进而提升本身对汉语语感的认知能力。母语非汉语的学习者的汉语知识和对汉语的熟练度，没有随着他们学习汉语的年限而增加，其中的一个问题就是汉语课堂的教学，没有提供他们足够的空间和时间，让他们意识到自己学习和应用汉语时所输出的错误和参与修正自己错误的机会。填鸭式和教师提供学习者答案的教学法并不能解决以上所讨论的问题。学习者意识自己输出汉语词汇错误的思维醒觉是 21 世纪对外汉语教学应正视的问题。

## 6.0 结语

综合以上的讨论，受试者在汉语作文语境字的选择偏向于单音节词，主要的原因是记忆单音节词的语音、字形和词义的信息比双音节词和多音节词的语言信息少，因此他们偏向激活、提取和输出单音节词作为作文语境字表义的词语选择，以减轻他们记忆汉语词语因音节数量增加的负担。受试者的记忆词库中储存的词语信息是以语音信息为主，对于双音节词的词形和词义的信息，记忆和印象模糊，所以当它们输出汉语双音节词作为语境字的表义时，就会发现双音节词的语素义不能匹配，其中一个语素是以拼音文字拼写，或其他语言的词汇替代，或同音字、音近字，又或形似字替代。这些情况反映了一个语言事实，受试者在华文小学尽管学了五

年的汉语，可是他们的汉语水平和对汉语的熟练度，并非与他们学习汉语的年限并进，习得汉语为外语或二语的方法不正确，对汉语知识的认知因为偏误的问题，没有得到正确的指引，最终可以看到他们输出的汉语词语错误连篇。这些受试者因为汉语水平能力低，没有掌握足够的汉语词汇量，只能依靠各种词汇的补偿策略来帮助自己输出语境字。这些补偿策略包括母语的拼音文字，使用马来语和英语的词汇替代，采用同音字、音近字、形似字等来替代他们不能输出的汉语词汇。从他们输出的语境字，甚至可以找到他们对构成汉字的部件与部件表义的信息，没有正确的认识。汉字的义符和意符可以表达词语的义类和词义，可是在输出有关的词语时，他们偏偏是遗漏了构成词义的部件。因此，本文认为母语非汉语的受试者在激活、提取和输出汉语双音节词的信息时，这些问题不是纯粹的语素量对二语或外语学习者认知的问题那么简单，当中涉及的问题，还包括受试者母语习得的干扰、学习者自身的特征和汉语知识能力的掌握。

这些问题是不是可以通过汉语课堂、课外和自学的方法得到改善？本文认为汉语的课堂教学须告别传统的“施”（教师传达汉语知识）和“受”（学习者接受）作为主要的教学法，学习者能够参与其中和应用有关的语言知识和技能，认知正确的使用语言知识的语境，觉察本身的错误并能通过各种管道自省改正自己犯下的用字偏误，能通过各种语言工具（如汉语词典，线上词典等）完成学习汉语的任务，才是当今 21 世纪对外汉语教学应实施的教学法。汉语课堂的教学需要拨出大部分的时间让学习者意识他们输出语言的成品（language production）的问题，提供时间让他们自己说出语言成品的优点、弱点、不当和改进之处。学习者在学习和应用汉语进行写作和口语报告之后，能不能够提出反馈的意见，建议修改的方法，是汉语课堂教学可贯彻的策略。通过这些教学活动，受试者才能意识本身使用语言的问题，在得到教师正确的指引之下，以及同侪（汉语为母语的学习者）提出的修改意见，对促进外语和二语学习者在汉语作文选取和输出正确的词语表义是有积极的作用。

母语非汉语的学习者如参与本文研究的受试者，他们对汉语词汇的感知能力和应用的熟练度，没有与他们的学习汉语的年限并进。越高的年级对他们来说，学习汉语的感知和经验越吃力，从简单的记认单字生词到需要应用一定的词汇量来写作，就可以察觉他们的汉语“写出”的能力远远落后于母语为汉语的学习者，以上所讨论的问题只是冰山一角，举证说明为何他们不能建立汉语母语者对汉语的语感，以及为何学了好几年的汉语之后，还不能达到母语者对汉语认知和应用的熟练度，当中的原因上文已论述。既然汉语在全世界是作为热门外语或二语学习的一个学科，从语言的教学法和应对教学的挑战，都应关注各国学子尤其来自多言多语的学习者学习汉语的难题，而致力寻求改善问题的对策。

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# Analysis of Tone Errors Produced by Swedish Learners and Pedagogical Implications

## 瑞典学生声调偏误分析及教学策略探讨

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**Abstract:** This paper addresses issues that concern both learning Chinese as a foreign language and the didactics of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. It reports an experimental study that aims to establish the basic facts regarding the production of Mandarin tones by Swedish learners. 10 Swedish learners who have studied Chinese for 3 to 4 terms were recruited to read monosyllabic Chinese words and their pronunciation was subjected to both statistical and acoustic analyses, in order to examine the students' pronunciation (especially tones) and assess the levels of difficulty posed by the four lexical tones respectively. It was found that Tone 3 is most challenging to Swedish learners, and Tone 1 is easiest for them to pronounce correctly. Moreover, Swedish speakers were most likely to mispronounce Tone 1, Tone 3, and Tone 4 as Tone 2, and mispronounce Tone 2 as Tone 1. Three tone-error types were identified through acoustic analysis, and their distribution pattern lends further support to the claim that level tone is easier to learn than contour tones. Based on these findings, pedagogical implications are addressed and recommendations for Chinese language teachers are formulated.

**Keywords:** Mandarin Chinese tones, learners' pronunciation, tone errors, Swedish learners

### 1. Introduction

Since the early 21st century, there has been a boom in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language worldwide, in particular in North America and Europe, due to the ever-growing impact of China. As an export-oriented economy, Sweden has also seen a dramatic increase in the number of Swedish students choosing to learn Chinese as a foreign language, both in high schools and

at universities. In 2014, Chinese was added to the list of modern languages (the others are English, German, French and Spanish) that all Swedish high schools must offer to students. As of 2022, seven Swedish universities offer Chinese courses and/or programmes.

Since Chinese is typologically different from Indo-European languages, which include Swedish, it is much more demanding for Europeans to learn. There are two major hurdles for them: the orthographic system and the pronunciation (Sun, 1998; Ke & Shen, 2003; Everson, 2008; Scrimgeour, 2011). There is no direct correspondence between Chinese characters and pronunciation, therefore, learning the script is a formidable task for learners from an alphabetical language background. As for the pronunciation, the main challenge confronting Chinese learners is the tonal system. Therefore there is a great need to develop and optimize teaching strategies for Chinese teachers in Swedish schools, although to date very limited research has been conducted about teaching Chinese to Swedish learners. The current study will focus on the difficulties that Swedish learners are facing when learning the Chinese tonal system.

## **2. Literature Review**

Mandarin Chinese has five tones: four tones with distinctive pitch profiles and a neutral tone. These tones are used to contrast meaning, just like consonants and vowels; therefore, pronouncing tones accurately is crucial in avoiding ambiguity or confusion. Excepting the neutral tone, the other four tones are one level tone and three contour tones. Traditionally, the numbers 1 to 5 are used to label Mandarin tones. According to the Scale of Five Pitch Levels proposed by Chao (1968), the best-known phonological representation system of tones, the pitch range is divided into five levels: level 1 corresponds to the lowest pitch and level 5 the highest: Tone 1 (high level, T1 hereafter) is represented as 55, Tone 2 (rising, T2 hereafter) as 35, Tone 3 (low, T3 hereafter) as 214, and Tone 4 (falling, T4 hereafter) as 51. It is worth noting that the above representations apply to tones when pronounced in isolation or at the end of the utterance. Chao's system (1968) has been widely used by researchers and Chinese language teachers alike, and many popular textbooks for adult learners also use Chao's system (1968) to introduce the four tones and explain their corresponding pitch contours.

There are quite a few studies analyzing the pronunciation of Mandarin tones by non-native Chinese speakers, the majority of which recruited English-speaking students as participants (Shen, 1989; Miracle, 1989; Leather, 1990; Chen, 1997; Sun, 1998; Hao, 2012; etc.). In spite of the varied experiment design and reading material, a rather similar pattern is observed for Chinese learners whose native language is English: T1 is the least difficult to pronounce correctly, followed by T4; and



T2 and T3 are more difficult than the other two tones (Yue-Hashimoto, 1986; Miracle, 1989; Leather, 1990; Elliot, 1991; and Hao, 2012). This finding is consistent with the claim that level tones are easier to learn than contour tones, and falling tones are easier than rising tones (Li & Thompson, 1977). Two groups of Swedish learners' (beginner and intermediate levels) pronunciation of Mandarin tones were analyzed in Gao (2017). It is found that T3 and T4 are more challenging for Swedish speakers to pronounce correctly than the other two tones. Both beginner and intermediate level learners perform poorly when pronouncing T3, with the lowest accuracy rate among four tones. Comparing the error patterns of Swedish and English learners in two studies (Hao, 2012; Gao, 2017) that have similar experimental settings, Gao (2017) reveals a distinct error pattern unique to Swedish learners: T1, T3 and T4 are most commonly mispronounced as T2. But for American learners (Hao, 2012), bidirectional error between T2 and T3 and between T1 and T4 are observed. According to Gao (2017), the learners' native language may account for the different error patterns observed in Swedish speakers' pronunciation.

Studies by Shen (1989) and Chen (1997) are among the few that conducted thorough examinations of learners' tone errors, Shen (1989) analyzed the pronunciation of eight American learners when reading a familiar lesson in their textbook. Both auditory analysis and acoustic analysis were performed on the learners' pronunciation, and two error types were identified: tonal shape error and tonal register error. She found that the tonal register errors greatly outnumbered tonal shape errors (320 vs. 40 errors). Misproductions of T1 and T4 were exclusively tonal register errors, and most errors of T2 were also tonal register ones. Most tonal shape errors were misproductions of Tone 3. On the basis of the above findings, Shen (1989) advised language teachers to place special emphasis on developing learners' awareness of their pitch range. Chen (1997) examined 6 American learners' Chinese pronunciation in the form of elicited-speech. Based on the native speakers' judgment, the majority of errors were unrecognizable tones, i.e. they could not be identified as any of the four Mandarin tones. Furthermore, Chen (1997) found that these unrecognizable tones were either flat in pitch contour or contour tones but did not reach the intended tonal targets. And 5 erroneous tendencies are listed: contour tones tended to 'flatten off', or 'become level', or 'go in opposite direction'; and level tones tended to 'change register' or 'become contour' (Chen, 1997: 34). Close examination of learners' errors in both studies turns out to be quite rewarding: since many of the learners' errors are unrecognizable tones, it is important to pinpoint the error patterns for a better understanding of the learners' interlanguage, which is beneficial to both researcher and language teacher. Thus the major aim of this study is to carry out acoustical analysis of Swedish learners' pronunciation of Mandarin tones, something which has not been done previously.

### 3. Method

In this study, 10 Swedish learners (4F, 6M) aged between 18 and 20 were recruited to participate in the pronunciation task. At the time of recording, they had studied Chinese between 1.5 years and 2.5 years (approximately two hours of Chinese lessons every week). All of them were monolingual native speakers of Swedish, and none had knowledge of another tonal language.

The reading material is a list of 47 monosyllables, including 40 target syllables (10 per lexical tone x 4) plus 7 filler syllables (4 at the beginning and 3 at the end). The 40 target syllables that were subject to subsequent analyses are 10 (C)V(C) sequences (*ba, fa, ge, mo, pao, pi, tan, wan, ya, yi*) in combination with the four lexical tones. These syllables are presented to Swedish learners in Pinyin, and in different randomized order. Recording took place in a quiet classroom using a field memory recorder (Fostex FR-2LE) and a high quality microphone ((AKG CK93), and one participant at a time. Each participant had a few minutes to go over the reading list prior to recording. During the recording, each participant read the list only once but they could pause and repeat any syllable if they wanted to. If repetition occurs, only the last repetition would be included for further analysis.

Three native speakers of Mandarin Chinese were recruited as raters: they were exchange students at Dalarna University (Sweden), all majoring in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) from one of the normal universities in Mainland China. Each rater listened to the recordings independently without knowing the intended tones. They were instructed to assign tone value to every syllable they heard, e.g. ‘Tone 1’, ‘Tone 2’ etc. They also had the option to label it as ‘unable to categorize’ if they did not think it sounded like any of the four Chinese tones. If there was disagreement among the three raters with regard to the tone assignment of a given syllable, that syllable was then labeled as ‘unable to categorize’. Based on the three raters’ judgement, accuracy percentages and an error matrix were computed.

Acoustic analysis was further performed on the Swedish learners’ productions. The free speech analysis software Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2018) was used to extract F0 information, Xu’s (2013) PRAAT script Prosody Pro was used to perform automatic vocal cycle markings, with manual correction. In order to compare the pronunciation of Swedish learners with two native Chinese speakers’ (1F, 1M) speech and perform tone error analysis, the extracted F0 information (in Hertz) was normalized to compute and outline pitch contours of individual syllables. Among several F0 normalization methods, we adopted the FOR (fraction of range) approach (Ladd et al., 1985; Rose, 1987; Wang et al., 2003) to compute “an observed F0 value as a fraction of the difference between two range-defining F0 values”

(Rose, 1987: 347). The normalized F0 value ranges from 0 to 5, which resemble the five points in Chao's (1968) Scale of Five Pitch Levels. A total of 360 tokens were subject to the acoustic analysis in this study.

## 4. Results

### 4.1 Accuracy percentage and error matrix

9 out of 10 participants' pronunciation scored less than 80%; only one participant achieved a high percentage of accuracy (90%, i.e., 36 out of 40 syllables were pronounced correctly). There was also one participant who only pronounced 9 syllables correctly, i.e., 22.5%. Since it is difficult to determine the factors that lead to such a poor performance, we removed this student's result when calculating the average accuracy percentage. Figure 1 below displays the accuracy rate of the four lexical tones produced by 9 Swedish learners.

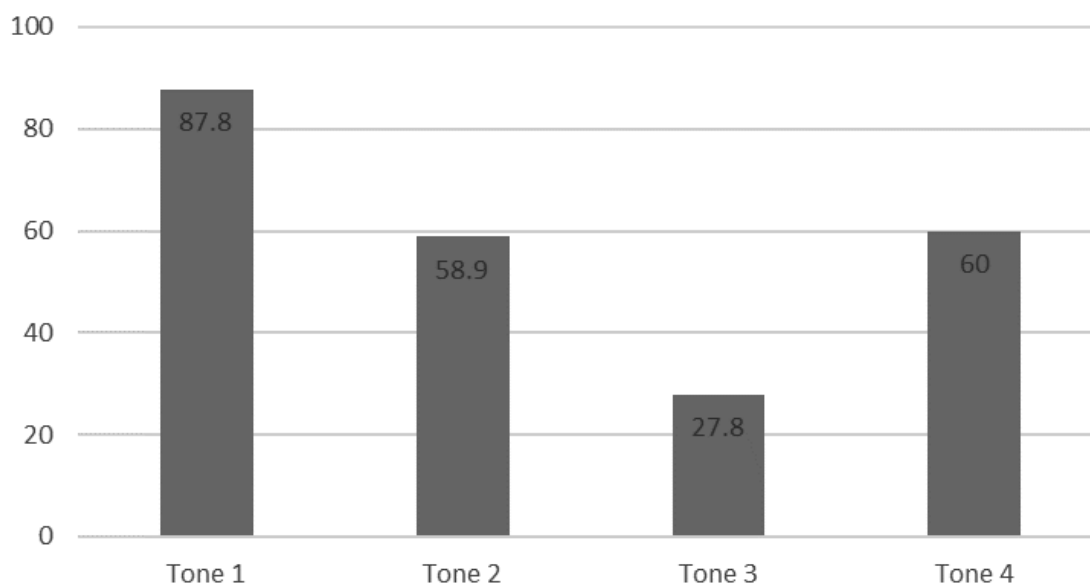


Figure 1. Average accuracy percentage of Swedish learners' production of Mandarin (Chinese) tones

Among the four tones, T1 received the highest score of nearly 90%, followed by T2 and T4, and T3 appears to be the most challenging tone for these Swedish learners to pronounce accurately. The accuracy scores are statistically different among the four tones as determined by the single factor ANOVA test ( $p=0.0008$ ). The paired sample t-tests suggest that except the T2 and T4 pair, whose

accuracy score is not significantly different, all the other tone combinations display significant differences in accuracy rate at the level of  $p < 0.05$ .

Table 1. Error matrix of Mandarin (Chinese) tones produced by Swedish learners

Response Target	Tone 1	Tone 2	Tone 3	Tone 4	Uncategorized Errors
Tone 1	<b>87.8%</b>	10%	0	1.1%	1.1%
Tone 2	34.4%	<b>58.9%</b>	0	2.2%	4.5%
Tone 3	0	46.7%	<b>27.8%</b>	0	25.5%
Tone 4	5.6%	17.8%	0	<b>60%</b>	16.6%

The above table displays the error matrix, in which the leftmost column corresponds to the expected tone, and the top row corresponds to the raters' categorization of the Swedish learners' pronunciations. Therefore, numbers in bold correspond to the accuracy percentages for each tone. T1 is most likely to be mispronounced as T2 and vice versa. T3 is most likely to be mispronounced as T2 but not vice versa. Rather, T4 is most likely to be mispronounced as T2. Note that there are a substantial amount of errors that cannot be categorized as any of the other Chinese tones, especially for T3 and T4.

#### 4.2 Error Analysis

The above statistical analysis provides an outline of the error patterns in Swedish learners' pronunciation. Since there are quite a few errors that cannot be categorized, as shown in Table 1 above, especially for T3 and T4, acoustic analysis of these errors would allow a more detailed and thorough examination of the tone errors produced by Swedes. The pitch contours of 98 errors (5 T1 syllables, 26 T2 syllables, 48 T3 syllables, and 19 T4 syllables) were outlined using the normalized pitch value, and were compared with the pitch contours of productions by native speakers. Three types of errors were observed through visual comparison. The first type is tone shape errors, which means there is mismatch of contour shape between learners' production and the intended tone.

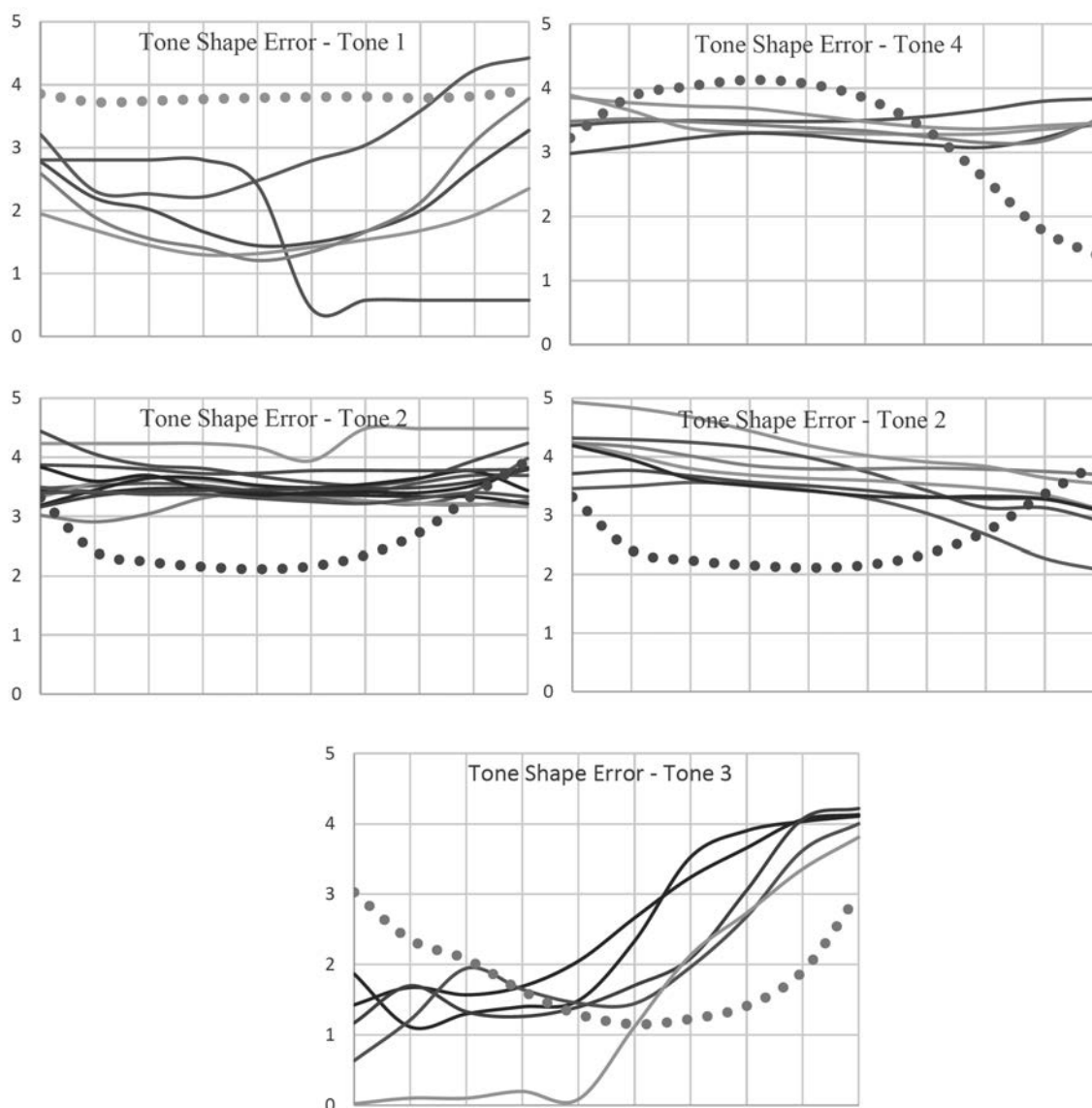


Figure 2. Pitch contours of tone shape errors in comparison with native speech

The above five figures display the pitch contour of learners' misproductions, which were standardized both in pitch and time. The thick dotted line in each figure is the pitch contour of the expected tone produced by native speakers of Mandarin Chinese. Among the four lexical tones, Tone 2 has many more tone shape errors than the other three tones. The high level tone (T1), is flat in the high pitch range; however, most of the errors are found to have rising contour and one displays falling contour. To the opposite, for the falling tone (T4), some of the errors display a rather flat pitch shape instead of a falling shape from high frequency to low. Tone 3 has the pitch shape of falling then rising when produced in isolation, some T3 errors have the pitch shape of rising, rising falling rising, or flat followed by rising (see bottom figure above). Two types of shape errors are found for the rising tone

(T2): 1) some errors display flat pitch shape as in mid left figure; and 2) some have falling contour instead of rising contour as in mid right figure.

The second type is tone register errors, which means there is mismatch of pitch register between learners' production and the intended tone, often at the beginning of the pitch fall or rise, or at the end.

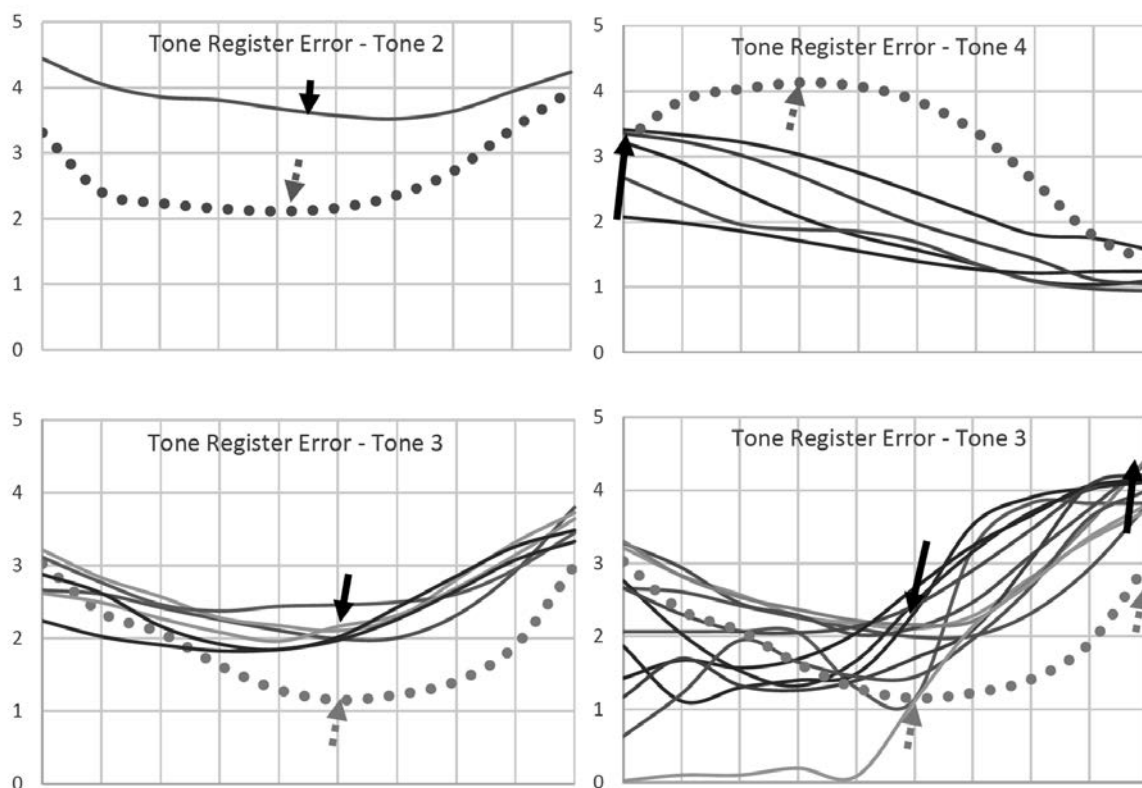


Figure 3. Pitch contours of tone register errors in comparison with native speech

The above four figures correspond to learners' misproductions of T2, T3 and T4, which are categorized as tone register errors. Dotted arrows point to the intended pitch register at a certain point in the pitch contour from native speech; solid arrows point to the incorrect pitch register in the pitch contour from learners' speech. For the tone register errors, Tone 3 has many more errors than Tone 2 and Tone 4. T2 (rising tone) has the pitch contour of a small drop to the mid-pitch range (around 2 in y-axis) before rise to the high-pitch range; one error is found to display a highly similar contour in shape but not correct in pitch register at the beginning of the rise (above 3.5) in the top left figure. T4 (falling tone), on the other hand, has the pitch contour of a small rise to the high-pitch range (above 4) before a dramatic fall to the low-pitch range (slightly above 1), see top right figure. Five errors were found to display the falling contour but the onset of the fall varies from 2 to 3.4 in the mid-range (as the solid arrow points to) instead. T3 (low tone) has the contour of a pitch drop to the low pitch range

(slightly above 1) and a small rise to the mid pitch range at the end. Some of the T3 errors, in spite a rather similar contour shape, fall only to the mid-pitch range (between 2 and 3 in the bottom left figure). And some T3 errors display a mismatch of pitch register at both the end of the pitch fall and the end of the syllable, as indicated by the two solid arrows in the bottom right figure. The pitch fall ends in the mid- instead of the low-pitch range, and the final rise ends in the high- instead of mid-pitch range. Some T3 misproductions display both tone shape and tone register errors, thus appearing in both the bottom graph in Fig. 2 and bottom right graph in Fig.3.

The last type is timing error. It is observed only among T3 productions. The pitch contour of T3 (low tone) has the shape of falling and a small rise towards the end of the syllable.

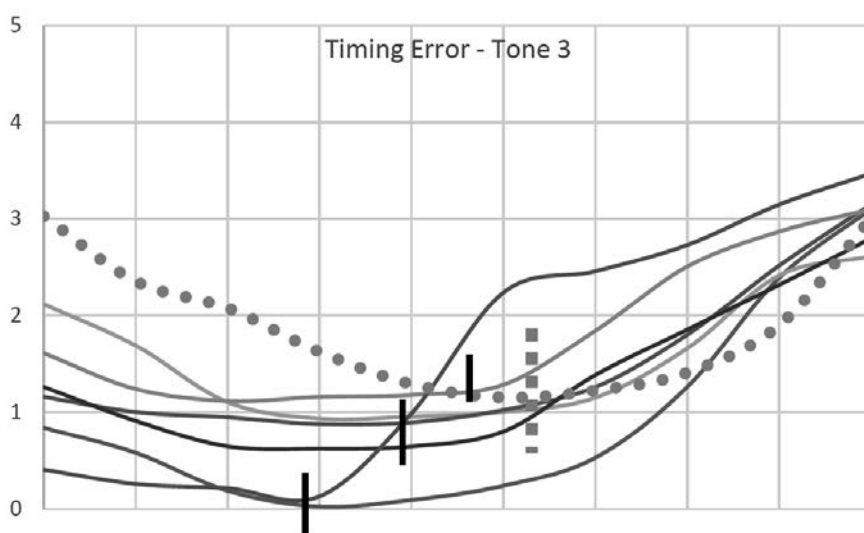


Figure 4. Pitch contours of timing errors in comparison with native speech

In Fig. 4, vertical lines mark the beginning of the pitch rise, which corresponds to a point located in the latter half of the syllable in native speech's pitch contour (indicated by the thick dotted line). Some Swedish speakers' productions have a rather similar contour shape and register as native speakers' production, but the start of the pitch rise is much earlier in time -- in the first half of the syllable (indicated by the solid thin lines). Though some of these errors seem to have a rather low pitch at the beginning of the syllable, as compared to the native speech, it is not considered crucial when perceiving Tone 3. Rather, the low pitch target is the most salient perceptual cue for T3 (Yue-Hashimoto, 1986). Therefore, for the learners' T3 output displayed in the above figure, the cause of erroneous productions is most probably the early start of the pitch rise.

## 5. Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

### 5.1 Accuracy rate

Gao (2017) was the first to study Swedish students' pronunciation of Mandarin Chinese, and found that T3 is most challenging for both beginner and intermediate learners, T1 and T2 are less challenging than the other two tones. Similarly, it was also found in this study that T3 is the most challenging and T1 is the least challenging. However, T2 and T4 are equally difficult for the Swedish-speaking learners recruited in this study. Thus the proposal that contour tones are much more difficult to learn than level tones in previous studies (Li & Thompson, 1977; Chen, 1997) also applies to Swedish learners. Nevertheless, the results of this study do not support the claim that falling tones are easier to acquire than rising tones (Chen, 1997), T2 and T4 are equally difficult, as the accuracy rates of these two tones are nearly the same.

However, Swedish-speaking learners in this study achieved a much lower accuracy rate (average 58.6%) than that in Gao's (2017) study (average 82.9% for beginner-level students and 89% for intermediate-level students). This can be accounted for by the different experimental settings and the amount of time learners had spent learning Chinese. In brief, the learners in Gao's (2017) study were allowed plenty of time to become familiar with and prepare from the reading list, but in this study learners were allowed only a few minutes to go over the reading list prior to recording. More importantly, Gao (2017) recruited learners who spent at least 20 hours per week on their Chinese course, whereas in the current study, though the learners had studied Chinese for a much longer time (between 1.5 and 2.5 years), they only spent 2-3 hours per week on learning Chinese. Therefore the different results in these studies are not surprising: in terms of Chinese phonetic development, learners benefit more from an intensive learning programme over a short period of time than from a slower-paced learning programme over a longer period of time.

Error matrix analysis reveals distribution patterns of errors for these learners. Most errors are either identified as T2 or as uncategorized errors. Swedish learners are most likely to mispronounce T1, T3 and T4 as T2, and T2 is most often mispronounced as T1. These patterns are consistent with those reported in Gao (2017), but not with those reported in studies of English learners (Hao, 2012). For American English learners, bidirectional errors were observed between T2 and T3 and between T1 and T4 (Hao, 2012). This difference may be accounted for by the influence of learners' native language



on learning Mandarin tones, but since this is beyond the scope of this study, we will not elaborate on it further.

## 5.2 Tone errors

Acoustic analysis and normalization procedure of pitch contours were applied to the learners' pronunciation, which has not been done previously. Three types of error were identified through visual comparison of pitch contours between Swedes' misproductions and native speakers' speech: tone shape error, tone register error and timing error. The first two types have also been reported in previous studies where American learners' pronunciations were examined (Shen, 1989; Chen, 1997), but the third type- timing error- has not been reported in the literature possibly due to the fact that subtle difference in time (with a difference of less than 50 ms.) cannot be detected by normal human hearing. More interestingly, the tone shape error and tone register error observed in Swedish learners' misproductions differ from those found in American learners by Shen (1989) and Chen (1997) in several aspects. For level tone (T1), American learners made mostly tone register errors, and the tone register was often much lower than expected; but Swedish learners in this study made only tone shape errors, most of which have a rising contour (see top left in Fig. 2). For the rising tone (T2), even though American and Swedish learners made both tone shape and tone register errors, American learners were found to make substantially more tone register errors (26 in total) than tone shape errors (6 in total) in Shen's (1989) study but it is the opposite for Swedes. For the low tone (T3), Shen (1989) only observed tone shape errors, but in this study, all three error types are found for the intended T3. And among those, many that are identified as tone register errors, some fail to reach the low-pitch target at the end of the fall, some rise too high in pitch at the end of syllable, and some have the combination of both. Finally, for the falling tone (T4), Shen (1989) only found tone register errors for Americans, but Swedes made both tone shape and tone register errors in this study. For tone shape errors, Swedes are found exclusively to produce tones with a flat contour (as level tones). In another study, Chen (1997) found tone shape errors for Americans, however, they are found to produce T4 with either a rising or a falling contour. Close examination of Swedes' error types, and comparisons with similar studies that analyzed American learners' errors, reveal more varied error characteristics. It is most likely due to the effect of the learners' native language on learning Chinese tones, the different reading materials used in the current study (list of monosyllables) and in previous studies (short text in Shen (1989) and utterances in Chen (1997)) may play a role in the different outcome.

The distribution of the three error types among the four Mandarin tones by Swedes reveals an interesting pattern: for the intended level tone (T1), only tone shape error is observed; for the other three

contour tones, two or three tone error types are observed. This coincides with the finding addressed in section 5.1 above: contour tones are more difficult to learn than the level tone. Swedish learners are more confused about contour tones and tend to deviate in different ways, especially in T3, which has the lowest accuracy rate, and students make all types of mistakes when pronouncing it.

### 5.3 Pedagogical Implications

It is generally agreed that one's native language affects the learning of another language in various ways. The results of this study reveal that Swedish learners encounter different difficulties when learning Mandarin tones, as compared to American English learners. If Chinese teachers have a better understanding of the effect of learners' native language on learning Chinese tones, they can employ targeted teaching strategy and educational materials to help students learn the tones more effectively. Taking Swedish learners as an example, pronunciation drills and listening tasks should be designed and employed to target Tone 3, the most challenging tones for Swedish learners. Furthermore, a unique pattern is observed: Swedes most often mispronounce T1, T3 and T4 as Tone 2; it may be rewarding to design pronunciation drills that pair T2 with each of the other three tones to help students differentiate them respectively.

Chao's (1968) Scale of Five Pitch Levels system is most frequently used to describe tones in Mandarin Chinese and other Chinese dialects in scholarly publications, it is also popular among educators. Representation of the four lexical tones in a figure with five-point pitch scale is often seen in Chinese textbooks targeted at adult learners. Taking the "*Integrated Chinese*" book series (Liu et al., 2010) as an example, four Swedish universities choose to use them as the main textbook in their Chinese language courses.

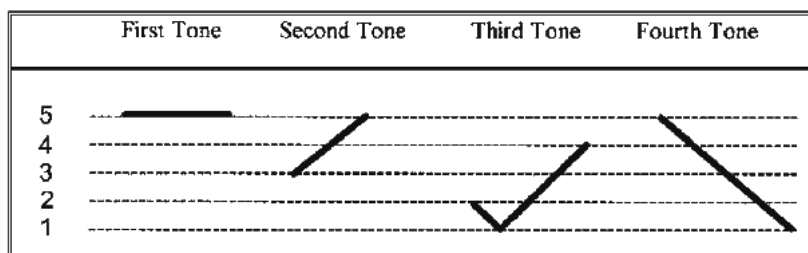


Figure 5. Presentation of four Mandarin tones (Liu et al., 2010: 8)

Since the Scale of Five Pitch Levels system (Chao, 1968) is only a phonological representation of the tones, there is obvious deviation between the schematic pitch contour in Fig. 5. and the actual pitch contour in real speech data (see dotted lines in Fig. 2 to Fig. 4). The representation of T3 in Fig. 5 is especially misleading in some aspects. First of all, T3 is a low tone in nature, and the final rise of

T3 normally would not reach 4 in the scale in real speech. However, T3 is represented as 214 in this system, i.e., a small fall followed by a rise targeted at rather high pitch target. Thus this representation leaves the wrong impression that T3 is at least partly a rising tone, similar to T2. Secondly, when T3 is pronounced in isolation or at the utterance-final position, there is in fact a final rise. It is observed from speech data from previous studies (Xu, 1997; Gårding et al., 1986) and the current study that the turning point (from fall to rise) takes place in the later half of a T3 syllable. The schematic contour corresponding to Tone 3 in Fig. 5 thus misrepresents the pitch fall and rise, in which the rise already starts in the first quarter of the tone. Analysis of Swedish learners' errors in the current study indicates that timing of the turning point in T3 is crucial, and an early turning point in the production would be judged (by native speakers) as tone error (see Fig. 4). Last but not least, when T3 is pronounced in the mid of an utterance which is much more common, it is in fact a low tone, represented as 21 (San, 2007). I suggest the Chinese teachers use Chao's (1968) Scale of Five Pitch Levels with caution. To teach T3, teachers may first treat it as low tone and train learners to pronounce T3 in disyllabic or trisyllabic words, before introducing the falling rising T3 (in isolation) to the learners. Teachers should de-emphasize the final rise of T3, and explain that T3 has different pronunciations in various contexts (isolation, followed by a non-T3 syllable, and followed by another T3 syllable).

Teachers' feedback on learners' outputs is generally believed to be helpful for their learning. When detecting learners' tonal errors, teachers may give different corrective feedback, such as explicit correction, recast, request for repetition, exaggeration, direct commenting on the errors, etc. For beginner students who are at the early stage of developing their Chinese phonetic system, commenting on the errors with brief explanations would be very helpful for them to be made aware of the problem with the erroneous tone, such as 'your production of T1 is not high enough in pitch' or 'your production of T1 is in fact a rising tone similar to T2'. The results of the current study show that some tonal errors are the result of confusion between two tones, but there are also quite a few uncategorized errors, which may be tone shape errors, tone register errors, and/or timing errors. In order to provide accurate explanations and suggestions in response to learners' misproductions, teachers should be able to diagnose the problem of tonal errors on the spot if feedback is to be given in the classroom. Some teachers may be able to gain this ability through years of experience of teaching pronunciation, but many other teachers, especially new teachers, need to have a good understanding of the various types of errors students tend to make and perhaps some form of hearing training.

## 6. Conclusion

This paper reports an experimental study in which Swedish learners' pronunciation of Mandarin tones was subject to audio analysis by native speakers and acoustic analysis. Results of this study show that the ranking of difficulty level for Swedes is: Tone 1, Tone 2, Tone 4, and Tone 3, with the latter being the most difficult. This is in agreement with findings reported in a previous study (Gao, 2017) and the general claim that the level tone is easier to learn than the contour tones (Li & Thompson, 1977; Chen, 1997). Compared with findings from previous studies with English learners, a unique pattern emerges among Swedish learners in terms of confusion between the four tones: T2 is often uttered in error for one of the other three tones on the reading list, yet when they were required to produce T2, most often T1 was uttered instead. Acoustic analysis of the learners' pronunciation, especially tonal errors, was conducted in this study, and three error types are identified when Swedes pronunciation and native speakers' are compared: tone shape error, tone register error and timing error. The first two are also reported in previous studies; however, to the author's knowledge, the last error type has never been reported previously. Misproductions of each of the three contour tones are found to contain two or three error types, however, misproductions of the level tone (Tone 1) are all identified as tone shape error. This finding confirms that the contour tones present a greater challenge to Swedish learners. This paper also addresses the pedagogical implications for teaching Chinese tones. With a good understanding of the specific challenges that confront learners from a given language background, teachers may use more appropriate materials or adopt a targeted methodology when teaching Mandarin tones. Teachers are advised to use Chao's (1968) Scale of Five Pitch Levels system cautiously when introducing Chinese tones to beginner learners, as the theoretical representation of Mandarin tones may turn out to be quite misleading, especially for T3. Furthermore, teachers' corrective feedback, particularly explicit explanation of errors, is highly recommended in pronunciation drills, though it may be somewhat demanding for teachers to provide instant and accurate explanation of learners' tonal errors.

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# A Case Study of Teaching Mandarin Characters in Schools in England

## 如何在英国中学进行对外汉语汉字教学的个案研究

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**摘要:** 本文探讨了如何教授母语为非中文的学生认知中国汉字，并旨在为汉语教师提供理论和实践上行之有效的汉字教学策略。本文通过在英国两所不同性质的中学进行定性研究，即在公立学校和私立学校分别进行听课和课堂观察，收集了广泛的质性数据资料，分别重现了两堂课的不同汉字教学片段。研究发现非母语汉语学习者的汉字认知构成了汉语学习的巨大挑战和学习中的重点。本文还就汉字学习的教学策略进行了进一步探讨和分析。

**关键词:** 汉语教学、汉字教学、英国中学、个案研究

### 1. 引言

Moys (1990, in Bovair and Bovair, 1992) 曾经表示: 虽然英国人比较幸运, 因为他们的母语就是世界通用语, 但是“英国国家课程 (National Curriculum)” 仍然应该规定他们的孩子学习一门甚至多门外语, 只有这样, 下一代才有能在了解国外声音的同时被世界所了解。英国教育科学部 (DES and Welsh Office, 1998) 也强调了“现代外国语课程设置的重要性” (Edwards, 2001: 253)。如纳菲尔德语言调查 (2000) 所述, 英国已经开始实行从低龄儿童到中学生的外语普及。虽然英国国内学校主要教授二外法语和德语, 但是, 随着学校可以自主选择教授的外语种类逐渐增加, 那些自身带有强大文化特征和影响的语言则变得越来越受欢迎, 中文就是其中之一。如今, 大学孔子学院以及中学孔子课堂在世界各地相继设立, 那么, 探寻各地不同的中文教学方式就显得尤为必要。本文主要研究了在英国两种不同体制的学校中, 汉语教学是如何在孔子课堂展开的。具体来看, 在授课语言为英语、目标语为汉语的双语课堂中, 汉语教师

是如何帮助非母语学生学习汉字的。

## 2. 课堂环境下的教与学

“跟其他国家的英语学习者相比”，英国人民“接触其他语言的机会要少很多”（Carrier, 2012: 77）。因此，在英国外国语言学习通常发生在校园课堂里。交际语言教学法（C.L.T.）是“目前公认的现代外国语言（MFL）教学的主流方式”，主要着眼于培养和提高学生使用目标语言（第二语言）进行交流的能力。交际语言教学法广泛运用了演示——实践——成果的（P.P.P.）教学模式，即教师通过展示，向学生讲解目标语言的结构和形式；然后，通过课堂活动与练习，学生进行实践的表达，从而内化吸收目标语言的特点和用法（Pachler *et al*, 2009: 58）。这种教学模式也符合二语习得的发展过程，即输入——输出——反馈——内化。尽管我们期待语言学习者能“顺畅地学习并使用第二语言”（Whong, 2011: 95），但是教师仍然需要考虑到学生“熟悉”、“理解和适应”第二语言所需要的时间（Pachler *et al*, 2009: 69）。因此教师需要通过不同的教学方式，一方面力求促进学生对目标语的输入和内化过程，另一方面需要帮助学生克服潜在的语言学习困难。

## 3. 汉语学习的困难：汉字识别


汉语与欧洲语言不同。Zhou and Marslen-Wilson (1997: 5) 曾表示汉语是一门“缺失词法的语言，因为他在构词过程中基本没有曲折词素或者衍生词素的加工过程”。其次，大多数汉字都是单一词素，单音节或者双音节复合词。另外，从书写角度看，中文书写形式是汉字，而不是字母，这也是中文与印欧语系语言最显著的不同。正是这个特点成为了对外汉语学习的巨大挑战（Shen, 2005）。

汉字组成的两个重要部分：笔画和偏旁部首。通常来讲，笔画能够组成不同的偏旁部首，偏旁部首则可以组成不同的汉字。所以，笔画是汉字的基础（Shen, 2005）。中国汉字大概有30多种笔画，最主要的五种是横（一）、竖（丨）、撇（丿）、捺（丶）、弯勾（乚）；其他笔画可视为这五种的变体。对于各种偏旁部首的构成，我们没有一个固定法则，因此也没有法则说某几个部首就只能固定组成什么汉字。有时，仅仅单纯几个笔画就能组成汉字，不需要任何偏旁。

汉字一般大致分为四类：1) 象形字，2) 指事字，3) 会意字，4) 形声字（Shen, 2005: 133-4）。表格1进一步解释并对比了这四类汉字的特点。



表格 1: 汉字的种类

种类	解释	示例
象形字	象形字通过字形模仿物体本身形状。	 <p>“刀”：如图所示，体现了物体本身的形状。</p>
指事字	指事字通常由象形字和一个或多个笔画组成。	<p>“刃”：由撇（丿）的变体” 𠂆 ” 加上象形字“刀”组成。笔画‘ 𠂆 ’代表在刀上的位置，所以，“刃”用来表示一把刀最锋利的部分。</p>
会意字	会意字由两个或更多偏旁组成，通常表达所包含各偏旁（部首）组合起来的意思。	<p>“忍”：如上所示，“刃”是刀最锋利的部分。把“刃”放在“心”的上面，组成新的汉字“忍”，表达了内心承受痛苦、饱受折磨的含义。</p>
形声字	形声字由形旁和声旁组成。	<p>“病”：形旁（部首）“疒”与疾病、不适有关；声旁“丙”暗示该形声字的发音。</p>

象形字仅占中国汉字的 5% 左右，形声字约占 80% 以上，但是象形字仍占有举足轻重的作用，因为它们通常会作为声旁形旁或部首，成为其他汉字的一部分。合体字（通常包括会意字和形声字）是汉字中常见却复杂的汉字类型。他们通常由各偏旁部首组成。部首或形旁作为“表达意思的偏旁，暗示了该字的含义”（Xing, 2006: 107），声旁则指导该字的读音。但只有在 26% 的常见合体字中声旁能够准确提示发音，部首或形旁也不全能准确地暗示字义，这些都造成了汉字认知的潜在困难。尽管如此，我们依然强调教授偏旁部首的重要性，一是他们能够在一定程度上提示汉字的发音、音调及含义；二是掌握偏旁部首是学生日后熟练使用字典的必备条件。

除此之外，由于汉字在不同地区衍生出了不同书写体系，例如简体字和繁体字，这也对汉字学习造成困扰。由于此次考察的两所学校均采纳了简体汉字，且简体汉字是在中国大陆应用最广泛的书写体系，本文只对简体汉字进行研究分析。

## 4. 研究方法

### 4.1 受访学校

本研究选取了两所英国中学，一所私立中学和一所公立中学。这两所学校距离伦敦中心都很近，均开设中文课程。听课之前，两所学校的校长批准了访问采访和课堂录音的请求。授课教师也提前知悉了听课观察的目的。为了“保证材料的私密性”（Bryman, 2012:136），所有现场课堂记录、录音以及录音文稿均已妥善保密保存。

#### 4.1.1 私立学校

被观察的这所私立学校是英国享有盛誉的私校之一。由于高昂的申请费和学费，大多数在校生都来自上层社会。申请者需要参加预测考试和入学考试。在校生都要从汉语、德语、法语和西班牙语中选择两门第二语言学习。学生在汉语言中心进行学习，该地带有明显的中国建筑特色：红色中式拱门、小拱桥、传统中式图腾，各中文教室都是红瓦小屋。该校中文部共四位全职教师，还有一些兼职教师。所有教师的母语都是中文。我们观察的中文课是由一位来自中国北方的29岁教师教授的。她硕士毕业于伦敦，正在该校完成她的P.G.C.E.（学位教师教育证书课程）中文教师实习工作。我们所观察的是一堂十年级的中文课，但是这堂中文课是这位老师第一次教授这个班的同学。该班有两位女生、九位男生，均为白人学生。他们已经学习汉语一年，同时也在学习另一门欧洲语言作为二外。

#### 4.1.2 公立学校

这是一所男女同校的公立中学，为11到19岁的男女学生提供教育，生源来自周边行政区的富裕家庭和贫困家庭。在选择现代外国语课程时，该校对于单语学生和双语学生有不同的要求和规定。对于单语学生，他们只能从法语和西班牙语中选一门作为二外。双语学生则必须学习两门外语，一门欧洲语言（法语或西班牙语），同时必修汉语。所有汉语课都在主楼的中文教室进行，教室布置有中国图案和学生的中文作业。这所公立学校的中文老师数量明显低于那所私立学校。授课的中文老师来自台湾，有很明显的台湾口音。我们所观察的这堂汉语课是九年级学生，八位女生、十位男生。学生来自不同种族，汉语水平也不同。老师告诉我们，这个班上有的学生来自有很好教育背景的家庭，家长有很高的社会地位，对孩子的中文学习很重视。由于老师和学生都处在G.C.S.E.（英国中等教育普通证书）考试的压力之下，在我们观察的整节课中，这位中文老师多次把她的授课内容与G.C.S.E.的考点结合在一起。

## 4.2 研究方法

此次实证研究主要采用了定性研究方法，即听课观察、现场笔记、课堂录音及录音文本研究相结合的方法。为了保证定性研究的可靠性，我们在整个观察过程中属于一个“完全的旁观者”（Gold, 1958, referenced in Angrosino, 2007: 54），不影响老师的决策、课堂进度和授课方式。为了保证收集数据的真实性，在就课堂录音进行文本转录时，主要考虑了两个问题：“说了什么”和“如何说的”（Braun and Clarke, 2013: 162）。首先，在把录音转换成文本时，需要尽量做到一字不差的记录。此外，在口头交流中，标点符号并不存在。人们通过停顿、语调、重音来表达情绪和态度。因此，为了表现出对话是“如何说的”，在转录文本的过程中加入了标点符号。

## 5. 研究结果

Liu and Peng (1997: 228) 指出，汉语是从“学习每一个汉字”开始的。我们对在两所学校观察的课堂片段进行了分析，进而探讨两位教师是如何应对授课过程中学生遇到的认字困难的。

### 片段 1 公立学校：“末”和“本”

- 01 老师：今天我们要学将来时。大家已经学过关于“周”的单词了（话语）“周末”。“周末”的“周”，“周”表示一个循环，“末”表示什么？猜一下。
- 02 Amy：是不是表示“结束”？
- 03 老师：“结束”，所以“周末”表示“weekend”，对吗？所以“周”本身表示“一周七天”或者表示“一个循环”，“周末”是 weekend。xxx
- 04 Amy：→看上去像“日本”的“本”。
- 05 老师：→日本？（老师把“日本”二字写在白板上）太阳，根，对吗？“末”是这样，这是树。其实很有趣。一颗树，好，在树的底端，（话语）树的底部代表你的根，所以“末”字是这样。好。这还是一棵树，这一笔在这。意思是树的底部。但是如果我把这一笔还向下移，移到地面以下，我们看不到的树根位置，这就是“本”。能理解吗？
- 06 学生们：嗯。
- 07 老师：→所以汉字很有趣，这个是指树的底部（“末”），这个是树的根，所以也指某物的根本，根基（“本”）。

在这一片段中，出现了两个形近字：“末”和“本”（见话轮第 04，05 号）。它们有相同的笔画和笔画数：两个横（一）（一长一短）、一竖（丨）、一撇（丿）、一捺（㇏），都有 5 笔。两

个字唯一的区别就是短横的位置。老师在课堂提到“树”，也是因为这两个汉字都来源于“木”字。“木”是象形字，代表一棵树的形状（如图1）。撇（ノ）和捺（㇇）聚在一起体现大树底部“ノ㇇”，“十”代表树干树枝。“末”和“本”为指事字，均来自象形字“木”，在这个象形字基础上添一笔短横。短横指示了树的位置。对于“末”字，短横在“ノ㇇”之上、“十”长横之下，所以，“末”表示“枝干末端”和“某事结局”；对于“本”字，短横处于树根“ノ㇇”之下，因此代表“某物最根本最基础的部分”。这位教师通过解释这三个形近字“木，本，末”的结构和背景来帮助学生记忆认知。



图1：“木”字从古汉语到现代汉语的转变

#### 片段2 公立学校：“早”

01 老师：这是“早”。“早”什么意思？（3.0）有一幅图。有一幅图，记得吗我画过很多次，Ian？

02 Ian：日出。

03 老师：→日出在什么的上面？

04 Ian：地平线。

05 老师：→不是地平线。是在一个小木棍的上面，对吗？看上去像一个小棍，是不是？所以，是清晨六点到八点，或者有时也可以指六点到十点。

在老师介绍表示过去时间的短语时，也曾出现类似对话。老师问学生“早晨”这两字怎么念，学生对于“早”字存在认知困难。“早”在不同语境下，可以表示“清晨、上午”或者“（时间）靠前”。“早”是一个会意字，由两个偏旁组成“日”和“十”。“日”表示太阳，“十”原本来自于“甲”字，意思为“种子发芽破土而出”。后来“甲”字逐渐简化为“十”。“早”这个字描绘了清晨太阳从升起的场景。当解释“早”字的时候，老师把它分为上下两部分（“日”和“十”），并且把它描绘成了一幅图画。“早”是一个常见汉字，也可以用作偏旁，所以对于学生来说，应该比较容易辨识。至于底部的偏旁“十”，老师为了避免造成不必要的困惑，并没有对它的背景和演化过程做太多解释。她巧妙的用“小木棍”来替代，以方便学生记忆（参见对话第05号）。老师用简笔画的方式解释这个汉字，简化并且视觉化。

#### 片段3 公立学校：“午”

01 老师：→这是 p.m.。

02 学生们：[p.m.]

03 老师： 你们觉得这是什么？（指着“午”字）

04 学生们： 是指中午么？[从“午”...]

05 老师： →中午。可以解释成中午。记得我们说这上面的一小撇是什么？

06 Amy： 月亮。

07 老师： →不是月亮。不会是月亮。Amy再想想。是一只小小鸟，对吗？记得我的小小鸟落在这里。哦，我画的好一点，方便你们看。小鸟落在树梢上休息。是中午的时间，大家知道，中午阳光很毒辣。好的，所以，请大家记住，这个撇代表一只小小鸟。所以，它代表中午。

这个师生互动过程很有趣，老师用想象力编了一个故事帮助学生记忆这个汉字。“午”在现代汉语中用于表示“（时间）12点前后”，但是在文言文中却与“马和马鞍”有关，用来表示“中间”和“直立”，因为左上角的“ノ”代表马头，“十”代表马身，短横代表马鞍。当缰绳收紧，马会自然站直。后来，逐渐演变成“中午”的含意。老师并没有把这个复杂的故事告诉学生，而是通过把左上角的“ノ”比喻成在在树枝上午休的小鸟而帮助学生记忆（参见话轮第07号）。

#### 片段4 私立学校：“踢”和“打”

01 老师： 足球，什么足球。在（书的）边上，大家可以参考书上的语法点“to play”三十秒看一下，告诉我“踢”和“打”的区别，好吗？（15秒后）有什么不同？Amy

02 Amy： 我们说“kick”（话语），我们说“to play”，是说用手去做。

03 老师： 好，所以是这个部首。这是什么部首，Amy？这个部首是什么？

（（老师把“踢”和“打”两个字写在白板上。））

04 Amy： 左边的是脚，右边的是手。

05 老师： →是的。所以这是提土旁，这个呢？（老师同时圈出部首，并在汉字下面分别画出了手和脚。）

06 学生们： 手。

07 老师： →手。所以是提手旁。一二三四，对，（老师一边画手，一边用中文检查所画的手指数量）。所以“打乒乓球”要用手。“打网球”，用手。“打篮球”，用手。XXX

08 老师： 但是“踢足球”用？

09 学生们： 脚。

在这个场景中，学习主题为兴趣爱好。在中文与英文中，用来引导球类活动的动词有很大区别。英语中，无论什么球类，都用动词“play”，但是在汉语里，动词根据球的种类而变化。所有与手相关的球类，比如篮球、乒乓球，都要用“打”，与脚有关的球类项目，比如足

球，用“踢”。这两个汉字都是合体字，形旁，亦作部首，都在左侧。形旁暗示了字的含义：“打”字的提手旁“扌”来源于象形字“手”。因此可以推理，提手旁“扌”表示和手相关的动作；“踢”字的足字旁“⻹”来源于“足”字，字面意思“脚”，所以，带有“⻹”的汉字通常和“脚”有关。老师特意强调了这两个常见部首，并通过手和脚的图画来加强学生记忆。

Taft and Chung (1999) 采纳了一个“多层次交互作用框架 (multilevel interactive-activation framework)”来分析汉字构成 (图 2)。它把笔画作为构成汉字偏旁部首的基础；带有不同含义和功能的偏旁部首再组成具体的汉字。所有汉字只有在各偏旁部首正确搭配组合的情况下才能认读，因为大多数偏旁部首只有名称，没有发音，因而不能像英语单词一样拼读出来。这和构成各英文单词的字母就有所差别。因此，在汉字学习中，只有先把汉字各构形单位 (orthographic units) 和各音系单位 (phonological units) 介绍给学生，学生才有可能注意到汉字更高层次的语义单位 (semantic units)，才能有意识的去关注并学习。中文老师在介绍具体汉字前和教授过程中，有必要向学生解释汉字的各个组成部分。

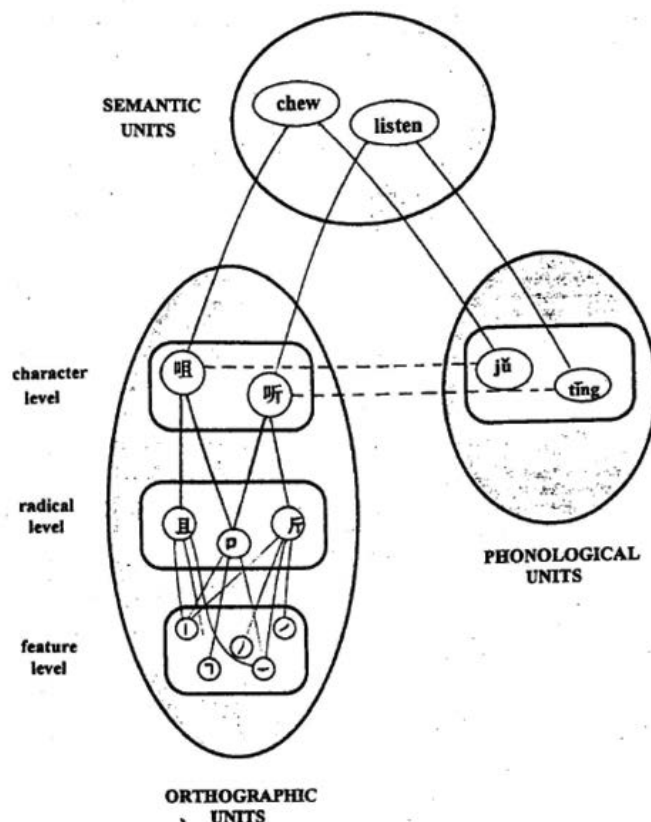


图 2 多层次交互作用框架 ( Taft and Chung, 1999: 245 )

Liu (1999: 178) 表示学习者对于“汉字本身与该汉字在不同阅读中频繁出现而形成的熟悉感能够快速建立联系”。从视觉上分析，记忆一个汉字的难易程度也取决于这个汉字的笔画数。记忆不同汉字所体会到的“视觉复杂性 (visual complexity)”往往取决于汉字的笔画多少

(Lee and Kalyuga, 2011: 1099), 笔画少的汉字更好记。但是, Everson (2009: 103) 也提到, 如果中文老师能够介绍所学汉字的背景信息, 比如他们的“词源背景、偏旁部首的情况和分析、在不同场合使用该字的例子”等, 那么学生对于所学汉字“内化加工的层次则会更深”。Lee and Kalyuga (2011) 也认为与其让学生通过单纯记忆笔画的方式记忆汉字, 不如把汉字拆分成各个小部分的组合记忆。所以, 中文老师应该让学生注意到并且有意识的去了解每个汉字的组成部分。比较有效的方法之一就是分别解释各部分的意义并结合图画等方式, 向学生展示各部分的起源和含义。在这两所被观察的学校中, 两位老师不约而同地把汉字拆分成小部分, 解释含义, 并通过自己的绘画和想象力帮助学生识字。

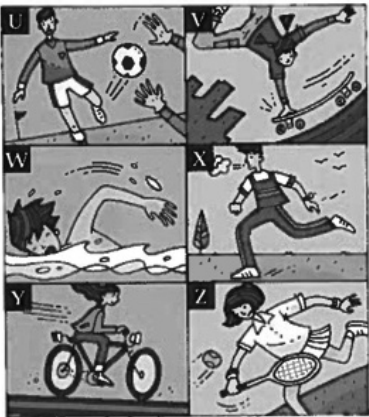
Taft and Chung (1999: 247-8) 表示如果学生能够“有意识的”在识字过程中“关注偏旁部首的组成和含意”, 那么对于汉字认知就会学得更快。因为“根据偏旁部首的组成来分析汉字, 这本身就涉及到了更深层次的学习加工。学习过程中, 对于知识的加工程度越深, 记忆就会越深刻”。此外, Shu and Anderson (1999: 12) 相信“字的意思越简单, 其词法作用就越大”, 如果学生“能够整合各种信息资源”, 那么对于汉字的学习能力也会大幅度提高。Shen and Ke (2007: 97) 也强调偏旁部首在“辨识汉字过程中, 作为基本构形单位 (orthographic units), 发挥了实质作用; 在学习目标汉字中, 如果它的偏旁部首能够明确提示含意, 那么这个字对于学生来说就更容易记住。”这也是为什么两位老师在整堂课中都在不停地强调各笔画和偏旁部首的用法及区别。

此外, 为了帮助学生理解记忆, 教师们对所教授汉字的某些部分进行再创造, 想象出新的故事和背景。比如在片段 4 中, 为了让学生熟悉那些形旁, 记住汉字的含意, 老师特意解释了相关的偏旁部首 (亦可参考 Feldman and Siok, 1999)。Zhou and Marslen-Wilson (1999: 57) 强调了汉字正字法在认知汉字过程中对“词汇通达”发挥的重要作用, 它能够“有效连接构形单位和语义单位, 自动激活音系单位以及语义单位和音系单位的通联”。例如, 片段 3 中的“午”字, 左上角的“丿”被想象成了中午落在树梢休息的小鸟。这个例子也反应了 Xiao (2009: 117-8) 提出的汉字教学建议:“(1) 贯彻所学汉字的讲解三部曲, (2) 预防构形错误所采用的方法和策略, (3) 一旦出现构形错误, 教师的纠错策略”。很显然, 所有建议都强调了重视汉字构字特征的重要性。它们都在提倡教师把汉字拆分成偏旁部首等小部分, 分析他们的结构并且提供视觉辅助。

Wen (2009: 140) 倡导通过视觉辅助教具来提高学生的中文听说能力, 因为“视觉辅助能够减少工作记忆负载量, 从而提高知识的输入和加工效率”。可以看到两所学校的两位老师也都运用了这个教学策略来帮助学生认知汉字、记忆汉字。(如图 3)

**1** **Listening** You will hear six verb phrases. Match the characters on the left with those on the right to form the verb phrases. Then match the phrases with the pictures.

1 游 yóu	a 步 bù
2 骑 qí	b 足球 zú qiú
3 玩儿 wánr	c 网球 wǎng qiú
4 打 dǎ	d 自行车 zì xíng chē
5 跑 pǎo	e 泳 yǒng
6 踢 tī	f 滑板 huá bǎn



**GRAMMAR: To play**

In English 'to play' can be used with any ball games, e.g. 'to play football', 'to play table tennis', etc. In Chinese the verb used for 'to play' is different for some ball games. 踢 (tī), 'to kick', is used to refer to football, but 打 (dǎ), 'to hit', for table tennis. For example:  
打乒乓球 = to play table tennis (literally 'to hit a table tennis ball')  
踢足球 = to play football (literally 'to kick a football')

图 3 : 私立学校中文老师听力练习所采用的视觉辅助材料 : *Edexcel GCSE Chinese textbook* by Yan et al. ©2009. 培生教育出版集团有限公司 ( Pearson Education Limited ) 授权再印。

## 6. 结论

本研究的目的是探寻汉语教师是如何向来自英语国家的学生阐述汉字学习的难点和挑战的, 并且总结了汉语教师在教学过程中采用的有效方式帮助非母语学生学习汉字。

通过课堂观察, 不难发现两位老师都对汉字认知格外重视, 因为他们相信这是对外汉语学习, 尤其是对来自字母语系学生的巨大挑战。根据学生的教育背景和教学环境, 两位老师都采用了行之有效的教学方式。两位老师在汉字认知时都采用了拆分汉字的方式, 通过故事、绘画具体解释相应笔画或者偏旁部首。这让学生能够注意到中国汉字的特殊构成方式, 对汉字书写产生浓厚的学习兴趣。所有笔画、偏旁、部首携带的信息也帮助学生们更好地理解这些汉字。

此外, 两所学校的背景和教学环境也值得注意。例如, 尽管私立学校的大多数学生都是当地白人, 他们却有更多的机会在一个有显著中国文化特色的教学环境下学习汉语, 同时能更方便的向中文老师寻求帮助。他们也有更多的机会到中国参观, 因为这所私立学校经常组织学生与其中国分校进行学访活动。所有这些优势都激发了该校学生的汉语学习热情, 这些人生经历亦促进了他们的汉语学习。对于公立学校, 中文教师相对严格, 也更多的强调了 G.C.S.E. 考试。一方面是因为, 公立学校中文师资有限, 她无法从其他老师中寻求帮助。由于学校和家长的高期待, 所有重担都压在这位老师身上。另一方面, 由于该公立学校学生的汉语水平偏低、班级人数较多, 这也迫使该教师比私立学校教师更加严厉。

本研究记录了两所英国不同类型学校的汉语课堂教学方式, 但是仍存在一定的局限性。第



一，本研究只观察了有限的两所学校、两位教师和两节课的上课学生。尽管听课观察分别在私立和公立学校进行，我们仍然很难总结出哪种教学方式优于另一种。未来研究可以观察更多的中文教师，走进更多不同类型的学校，以收集更全面的数据。第二，尽管两所学校类型不同，但是两所学习都属于所在区的重点学校。未来研究可以延伸到差距更大的学校中，以探讨不同中文水平下，汉语教师对汉字认知这一挑战是否有不同诠释方法。第三，我们观察的授课老师都是母语是汉语的中国老师，他们本身都是在亚洲传统教学方式下学习的第二语言——英语。东西方教学方式存在一定差异 (Slethaug, 2007)，也许这种不同会对教师日后自身的教学方式和对待第二语言的方式产生影响。我们应该有更多的研究涵盖来自不同背景、拥有不同经历的老师，甚至是那些母语是非中文的中文老师，看看他们是如何帮助学生战胜汉字识别这一难关的。第四，此次研究是在英国教育资源相对富足的地区进行的。未来研究可以关注那些对中文学习有着不同态度、不同教育理念的地区。第五，此次研究只观察了两堂时长一小时的中文课，所以很难在如此短的听课之后就对汉语教学妄下结论。未来研究可以延长观察时间和听课次数。正是由于这些限制与不足，说明我们未来的研究之路还很长，对于在不同情境下对汉字教学方法的探究的需求依然庞大。所有研究必会帮助中文老师对课堂汉语教学有更深刻的见解，为对外汉语教学归纳出更行之有效的方法和策略。

## 备注

1. 此研究主要关注了汉语普通话的教学方式，而不是其他中文变体。在本文中，汉语、中文、普通话都表示相同语种。

2. 录音文本符号：

强调：\_

录音不清：(话语)

停顿（括号内的数字代表停顿的秒数）：(x.x)

语音重叠：[

对非语言信息的描述：((xxx))

省略：xxx

研究者所关注的话语：→

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## |第二部分|

# Part 2

### The Chinese-English Virtual Exchanges: A Brief Review and Prospect

## 中英网络虚拟交换初探：简要回顾与展望

郭志岩 Zhiyan GUO

英国华威大学 University of Warwick

**摘要：**随着网络技术的发展，网络虚拟交换成为跨文化学习与外语教育结合的重要渠道，新冠疫情使其几乎成为国际合作的必然方式。本文简要回顾过去二十多年在虚拟交换领域的发展，从其定义、作用、网络交换项目的设计和未来研究方向等几方面进行总结和回顾，同时分析列举了网络交换中可以采取的任务类型、数据收集方法、虚拟交流工具和存在的问题，以期探讨如何能使虚拟交换这种国际合作方式不仅适时地成为一种有效的权宜之计，也能为将来各国大学间的合作模式及各大学内部课程设置的调整和整合做出应有的贡献。

### 1. 引言

二十世纪九十年代以来，随着网络技术的发展、以计算机为媒介的交流（Computer-mediated Communication）使在不同国家的人们之间的交流变得相对容易。由于即时和非即时工具（synchronous and asynchronous tools）比如邮件、讨论区、聊天区及电话会议的大量使用，外语学习者和母语者之间建立的远程合作日渐增多（O’Dowd, 2018），网络虚拟交换成为跨文化学习与外语教育结合的重要渠道。新冠疫情使网络虚拟交换几乎成为国际合作的必然方式。

过去的二十年中，在已有的研究中不乏英语国家与欧洲国家之间建立的远程合作项目，比如 O’Dowd (2003, 2005) 涉及西班牙和美国二语学习者，还有美国学生和法语或德语为母语的

学生之间的(比如 Kramersch & Thorne, 2002), 英国的法语学生和法国英语学生之间以网络和线下的交流结合的方式 (MacKinnon 2018)。

Belz (2003) 指出, 在远程合作的研究中很少涉及阿拉伯语、中文、日语和俄语等在欧洲课堂中不太普及的语言; 然而因为学生母语文化与目标语文化之间差距比较大, 网络技术如何影响完全不同文化的学习却是卓有价值的。中英双语网络交换的研究并不多见, 仅有的几个以学习英文为主, 以推进中文学习为目的的研究则更少。目前疫情发展态势还很不确定, 真实的线下语言交换依然遥不可期, 线上交换似乎成为必然, 所以研究以中文、中国文化及跨文化能力培养为目的的网络交换似乎势在必行。

本文简要回顾过去二十多年在虚拟交换领域的发展, 从其定义、作用、网络交换项目的设计和未来方向等几方面进行总结和回顾, 以期探讨如何能使虚拟交换这种国际合作方式不仅适时地成为一种有效的权宜之计, 也为将来各国大学间的合作模式及各大学内部课程设置的调整和整合做出应有的贡献。

## 2. 定义

对于网络虚拟交换, 学界曾用不同的术语, 比如 Telecollaboration (远程合作)、online intercultural exchange (线上跨文化交流)、e-tandem (网络语伴交流) 等。无论用何名称, 均指“使用线上交流工具将来自不同国家的语言学习者聚集起来, 目的是开发合作项目和实施跨文化交流”(the use of online communication tools to bring together language learners in different countries for the development of collaborative project work and intercultural exchange.” (O'Dowd and Ritter, 2006, p. 623)。这一普遍接受的概念似乎把交换的内容限定在语言和文化的学习, 但在各大学和各学科的交换中, 题材广泛得多。限于本篇侧重点, 使用此定义, 并交替使用以上术语。

## 3. 网络交换的作用

已有研究中较多揭示的是网络交换所起的作用。网络交换的好处很多: 有利于学习者自觉性和语言能力的提高 (Belz & Kinginger, 2003), 并发展使用第二语言进行线上交流的基本技能 (Warschauer, 2000)。远程合作提供了良好的条件, 使语言学习者与母语者进行真实的语言交流, 除了语言方面的优势以外, 也为发展跨文化交际技能和态度 (Byram, 1997) 提供了巨大的潜力, 同时跨文化交际能力本身对远程合作也起着至关重要的作用。

Avgousti (2018) 研究发现, 通过线上跨文化互换活动, 教师和研究人员可以有机会澄清对某一国家或民族身份的固有印象, 学生们对某一文化的认识往往受媒体的影响, 但是通过网络

互换活动, 这种固有印象可能会消除。这些线上工具给学生提供了跟母语者直接交流的机会, 有利于提高他们的跨文化敏感度 (Li & Wang, 2014)。参与者由于有真实的观众和交流对象, 以第一手资料观察和学习目标语言和文化。

学生们交换的热情很高, 并对自己文化的兴趣也得到了提升。对自己文化的深入了解有助于他们批判性地评估自己和其他的文化。根据 Kramsch (1993) 提出的第三空间 ('third space') 理论, 通过线上交换, 学习者从另一个文化的角度观察和了解世界, 反观自己的文化, 可以创造出他们的第三空间。

Ritchie (2013) 发现, 通过线上交流, 学生对于另一个文化的认识也从 '将一个文化视为整体' 过渡到 '将文化视为一个相对的概念', 即对某一文化不能一言而论之, 而是要认识到不能轻易把某一文化的人进行分类, 因为个体参与者的身份特征是多样性的。

网络交换为语言学习提供了不同于传统教科书的真实的交互性材料, Li & Wang (2014) 的研究证实技术转变跨文化学习的方式, 并且在这方面社交媒体比传统课堂更加有效。网络交换为师生提供了接触新教育价值和教学理念的机会 (Liaw & Master 2010)。

## 4. 网络交换项目设计

网络交换项目设计过程要考虑一系列因素, 包括参与者和他们所处的社会文化环境、任务类型、交换的组织和构架以及在网络环境中小组内的互动情况等等。已有研究中已出现不同的侧重点, 比如线上交换项目的结构和设计 (Müller-Hartmann, 2000)。Liaw (2007) 研究发现, 语言能力本身不是决定跨文化交换项目成功与否的唯一要素, 其它要素还包括参与者是否愿意投入到网络社群中, 是否了解或愿意遵守在网络交互中的话语规则。Ware (2005) 研究了美国的德语学习者和德国的英语学习者之间的交换, 发现某些在高级语言学习者中起作用的社会文化因素可能决定他们的网上行为, 在交互模式方面, 参与者在其跨文化讨论区的留言显示, 网络交换是一种双方自觉参与并共同自动调节的, 比如在问好、讨论交换阅读文章中关于文化的观点及结束对话等活动中如何得体行事。

### 4.1 任务类型

O'Dowd and Ware (2009) 将网络交换任务分成三类: 第一类是信息交换任务。在活动中参与者在最初阶段彼此了解建立友情之后, 大多数会以某一个或几个话题为中心, 互相介绍彼此文化和语言的信息, 以增长知识和见闻, 这是很多网络交换活动的主要互动形式。

第二类是比较分析任务。参与者以某一话题或文化现象为中心, 将彼此文化中的不同的表现和形式进行比较, 比如电影、书籍、广告、媒体使用等等。常常这些是参与者彼此感兴趣的、

有各国各文化特色的现象，是他们愿意进一步了解的。通过完成这样的任务，参与者进行真实的使用目标语的交流以了解某一文化产品或文化行为，比如节日和庆祝方法的象征意义等。在比较异同并予以解释的过程中，参与者达到学习和提高的目的。

第三类是合作完成任务。跟前两种相比，这一类任务更重视参与者通过信息交换和分析异同之后，围绕一个共同感兴趣的话题产出一个有形的结果，比如共建一个网站、解决一个实际问题的方案，或者对某一文化产品和文化行为的深入研究的总结等等。

Liaw & Master's (2010) 研究了 33 位在一所台湾大学一年级的英语学习者，配对于一所美国大学同样数量的师范生，但年龄在 18 岁到 45 岁之间。他们之间的交换以阅读两篇英语文章为主要活动，双方将他们的阅读情况上载到讨论区。英语学习者在结束时要上交报告。这一研究对远程交换提供了任务类型方面的指导，但是没有涉及中文学习者，提出了线上交换的社交类型的复杂性，此研究也呼吁更多亚洲和美国大学之间进行跨文化学习方面的合作。Chen (2017) 使用自由交流的方法，没有给予具体的任务，在美国的中文初学者和中国的母语者之间建立的 12 个星期的合作以探讨学生语言水平是否得到了提高。在 Zhang's (2016) 的研究中，美国的中文学习者和中国的母语者进行线上交换，中文学习者在与其伙伴讨论后要针对某一话题进行口头报告。

不论是何种任务、哪些话题，均是为参与者提供深入他们谈话和交流的机会，在完成任务的同时，参与者彼此了解，不仅有利于提高语言和跨文化能力，也对建立进一步友谊有益。但是目前我们需要更多的实证研究深入探讨，网络虚拟交换在多大程度上提高了跨文化能力。

#### 4.2 数据收集方法

在如何捕捉数据方面，Belz (2003) 建议教师们设立共用平台，学生们可以发表博客，及时提供关于交换项目的进展情况。在各大学均有网络学习平台的情况下，这似乎是比较容易做到的，但是如何使学生有动力去及时记录和评估，却是教师们应该思考和解决的问题。

已有研究中，不乏教师布置信息交换和文化对比的任务。在 Jin and Erben (2007) 和 Ryder and Yamagata-Lynch (2014) 研究中，教师组织第一次的介绍性的活动，使学生们和语伴有机会先彼此认识。在后者的研究中，教师还分享之前交换项目的成功经验和教训。这两个研究均探讨学习中英的语言和文化，使用目标语设计问卷调查，使学生得到一些真实的语言输入，虽然这两个研究中，中文作为外语的学习者的目标语水平似乎都还有限，语伴在交流的时候经常使用英语。

Ryder and Yamagata-Lynch (2014) 将美国某大学学习中文的学生与中国某大学学习对外汉语教育的学生组成一对一小组，他们的外语水平均为中级，在网络交换的 16 个星期中，参与者线上直接交流 9 次，其它的时间在 Blackboard 的虚拟平台上留言并回复彼此的讨论，除此之外美国的学生写只跟其老师分享的反思报告。这个研究中，美国的中文学习者完成所设任务后可以得额外的学分，而中国学生没有这方面的安排；但是双方学生均是自愿参与的。而且中方教



师选择英语水平足够好的学生。与此类似, Wang et al (2013) 较早使用 wiki 作为平台使在中国的学习英文的中文母语学生和在英国学习中文的英文母语学生组成小组, 进行练习以提高彼此的语言能力。但是这样的学习是作为学生自愿参加的课外活动, 不计入学习成绩, 没有规定教师该如何参与。

Jin & Erben (2007) 在为期两个月的交换过程中, 使用跨文化敏感度测量法 (intercultural sensitivity scales) 测试参与者在开始, 中间和结束时的变化情况, 随后结合使用跟踪采访, 发现参与者的跨文化互动的注意力和参与性均稳步提高, 同时批判性思维和对不同文化的尊重程度也得到发展。

Wang and Coleman (2009) 以问卷和半开放式访谈的形式调查了中国高校英语教师和学生如何看待课堂中以互联网为媒介的跨文化学习, 认为由于个人、职业及技术等方面的实际困难, 与跨文化交际能力结合的课堂语言和文化学习模式还有待付诸实施。

#### 4.3 虚拟交流工具

不同类型的交流工具提供不同程度的交互性和联结性。网络交换项目中已经使用即时工具 (synchronous tools) 包括 Skype (Tian & Wang, 2010), Instant Messenger (Jin & Erben 2007), 可以给参与者提供直接对话交流的机会。非即时工具 (asynchronous tools) 包括邮件、聊天室、讨论区等, 参与者可以随个人时间的安排进行互动, 而无需约定好时间同时在线上。即时和非即时工具各有优缺点。

即时语音或视频会议的交换环境使参与者与母语者直接交流, 但是非即时的交换环境给参与者提供更多空间发展彼此的关系。即时工具由于可以使双方及时交流和反馈而受到参与者的认可和欢迎, 进行文化方面的讨论 (Schenker, 2012), 但是非即时工具对于学习语法等非常有效 (Angelova & Zhao, 2016)。与电视会议相似, 即时工具如 MS Teams 使学生可以与其来自不同国家的语伴进行真实的互动时, 使用目标语进行实际的意义协商 (negotiation of meaning), 有利于语言的习得 (Helm, 2015)。即时工具具有提供及时问答, 澄清和扩展等优势, 是参与者进行跨文化协商的良好途经。另外, 学习空间的设计影响学习行为, 比如其他人可能会意外地出现在屏幕上或临时加入学习。当然即时交流需要学生将语言、语用和社交技能同时结合在一起, Chun (2011) 发现即时聊天比讨论区更加能吸引参与者, 同时发展了参与者的跨文化能力。Dooly (2007) 建议使用非即时工具研究泛读规律和写作活动, 或者对于某一话题进行长篇讨论或辩论。

Jin & Erben (2007) 则认为使用哪种工具还要看参与者个人兴趣和使用方便程度。对于某一工具的熟练程度应该是网络交换的首要考虑因素之一, 所以必要时应该事先进行技术和工具使用的培训, 使双方师生均能相对充分地利用工具的各种功能, 不仅可以为设计任务服务, 也可以随时给学生应有的指导。

Jin & Erben (2007) 还发现参与者在交换过程中完成不同任务的同时, 对使用技术和媒体的

态度也在变化。在 Lee & Markey (2014) 的研究中, 学生对脸书的熟练使用不仅使他们对整个交换项目有积极的态度, 而且很快消除了与陌生的伙伴认识和交流的障碍。

#### 4.4 存在的问题

目前一些研究发现, 很多远程合作仅限于表面的交换, 即信息得到交换的同时, 学生们没有有意识地反思自己的文化, 也没有反思对于目标文化的固化观念是否正确或形成某种固化观念的深层原因是什么 (O'Dowd, 2012)。Luo (2017) 认为当学生的目标语水平还比较低的时候, 他们不是非常主动地进行网络跨文化交流。也有些学生将语言和文化分开来认识和学习, 也会影响他们网络交换的主动性和积极性。文献也显示远程合作的成功不是总是完全保证的, Kern (2000) 发现在交流过程中, 可能更加深入了解不同之处, 但是要达到彼此理解, 并不那么直接。Kern (2000) 和 O'Dowd (2003) 均指出文化接触并不完全等同于自动的跨文化学习。

学者和教师们都在探讨如何提高网络交换的整体结构, 使学生能积极地评估他们与其他文化背景的人进行的交流, 以避免出现漠不关心、参与度低和伙伴之间关系紧张的局面 (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006)。从网络交换的结果来看, 虽然一些研究中参与者之间学习目标语言和文化的同时建立了友谊 (Kramsch & Thorne, 2002), 但是也有一些研究中参与者遇到关系紧张、困惑甚至于交流无法继续进行的局面 (比如 Belz, 2002; Beiz & Müller-Hartmann, 2002)。

由于时间的限制和交流双方都有提高各自目标语水平的目的, 有的网络交换项目建议或要求学生把一半时间用于目标语的交流, 但是实际上, 由于学生目标语的水平不同, 交流双方均使用彼此都比较熟练的语言 (常常是英语), 这样学习其他语言的学生就可能觉得没有得到充分的练习。

在组织双方学生如何成组配对的问题上, 研究发现比较广泛采用的是一对一和一对多的方法, 很多时候还要考虑实际因素。另外, 各国大学的学期日历的差异, 对网络技术使用的基本态度和对双方均能接触到的技术工具的熟练度, 交换项目是否与学生成绩挂钩等等环节都需要认真筹划安排。

## 5. 未来研究方向

如前所述, O'Dowd (2016) 发现很多合作关系均建立在欧洲和北美的大学之间, 只有寥寥无几的合作是建立在亚洲, 而且涉及中国大陆和台湾的合作很多都关注英语作为外语的发展情况。Belz (2003) and Avgousti (2018) 也有类似的发现, 像中文这样普及度不高的语言无论在远程合作方面, 还是在与跨文化交际结合的方面, 研究仍然非常有限。Luo and Yang (2018) 对过去二十年里远程合作在模式、任务、挑战性和技术工具和趋势方面的实践进行了综合性总结和

评估, 也发现线上交换在以中文为外语的领域的发展还是非常有限的, 有待大力开发。

从理论框架的角度来说, 大多数探讨网络交换中跨文化能力的研究均采用了 Byram (1997, 2020) 的跨文化能力发展模式, 考察参与者在态度、知识和批判性文化意识方面的发展, 但笔者认为, 在研究参与者跨文化能力发展过程的时候, 也许应该加入跨文化敏感度框架以便以一种更加细致而动态的方式捕捉网络虚拟交换活动中跨文化能力发展的全貌和轨迹变化。对于网络交换如何提高中文学习者的跨文化能力的研究, 还亟待深化。

Avgousti (2018) 在回顾以往研究的时候发现即时交流的方式占少数 (11/54), 这很可能是因为时区相差大的两国国家面临的实际困难。在近两年来, 使用 Teams 和 Zooms 等即时线上工具的交换项目不断增加, 但是相关的研究还几乎没有。所以, 未来研究可以考虑在以 Teams 或 Zooms 等的会议功能进行网络虚拟交换的项目中, 参与者是否更多受益于技术带来的直接和真实的交流。

另外, 在以往研究中, 即时和非即时工具结合使用的也很少。比如, 美国卡内基梅隆大学学习法语的学生与英国开放大学学习法语的学生在网络环境下, 与法国贝桑松大学的法语母语者用即时和非即时的工具进行交流 (Hauck & Youngs, 2008)。下一步的研究应多关注于两种工具结合使用, 如何能更大范围地收集数据, 以期对网络虚拟活动做深入探讨。

从网络交换参与者所使用的模态的角度出发, 以往研究大多以文本为主要研究媒介, 即学生与其语伴的交流以文本的形式记录下来; 然而未来研究可以聚焦于多模态, 比如除了文本以外, 还可以以口语语料、音频、视频、图像等为数据, 多方面分析考察参与者在语言和文化及跨文化方面的发展。正如 Helm et al. (2012) 所建议的, 网络交换的活动应该以多模态的形式开展, 这样有助于体现学生的身份认同方面的多样化特点, 而不只是他们作为语言学习者的特点。

在组织网络交换的实际操作方面, 教师们常凭着对学科的热情和对学生的关注而自觉地投入在网络虚拟交换的项目中, 而且多均处于摸索的阶段, 亟待需要适时有效的培训, 以便把大量组织的时间和精力节省下来, 用于更加有效的任务设计等与学科发展密切相关的方面, 在中英网络交换中的任务设计的有效性也是非常值得研究的领域。

目前在中国和欧洲 (包括英国) 高校网络虚拟合作项目中, 专注于中英语言和跨文化能力的发展无论从实践还是在实证研究方面均处于初期阶段, 似乎研究同时使用即时和非即时工具的也不多。也许因为疫情之前, 中文学习者更倾向于去中国进行真实的语言交换, 毕竟存在由于时差等原因造成线上交换的困难。但由于疫情的影响, 远程合作的实践将出现一个繁荣发展的新阶段。我们期待在国际化策略、大学课程设置 (O'Dowd, 2021) 等研究中探讨虚拟交换项目的深层次含义以便更好地开展数字化时代外语教学改革实践。

## 6. 结语

本文简略回顾了网络虚拟交换领域近二十年来在外语教育尤其是中英双语和跨文化方面的

研究和实践, 所回顾的研究也很有限。这些研究仍然多限于欧洲语言和英语之间的交换, 并且欧美高校之间的合作占多数。由于中国紧缩的防疫政策, 使英国高校从前与中国高校建立的国际合作关系不得不转向以网络为主; 如此挑战的同时, 也给国际中文教育和跨文化研究的发展提供了机会和空间, 期待很快会有很多学者将注意力转向与此相关的研究, 推出一种新型的国际合作模式, 相信即使在后疫情时代, 虚拟交换也能成为必要的补充, 为混合式的国际合作新模式做出贡献。

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# The Development of Intercultural Competence and Digital Competences in the Context of Chinese and English Virtual Exchange

## 中英文虚拟交换环境下跨文化交际能力 与信息技术能力的发展

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**Abstract:** Virtual Exchange (VE) is “the process of communicating and collaboratively learning with peers from different locations through the use of technology” (Dooly and Vinagre, 2021, p. 2). Studies have shown that students gain a deeper understanding of the social and cultural background of the target languages while collaborating on projects and communicating in their target languages (Belz, 2002; Brammert, 1996; Furstenberg, 2001). This study is to explore to what degree intercultural competence and digital competencies have developed through a Chinese-English VE programme. A total of 94 students from a UK and a Chinese university were enrolled in the programme from 2019 to 2021. The students communicated in both their native language and target language via technology-enhanced platforms, and accomplished language and culture learning while collaborating on self-directed projects. To gain insights in how learners develop linguistic, social, cultural and digital competences, students' email communications, weekly journals, video recordings of online meetings and a post-programme interview data were collected and analysed. The results show that students have developed their digital skills, social skills and intercultural awareness at operational and textual levels. Implications for future VE programmes will also be discussed.

**Keywords:** Intercultural competence, digital competence, virtual exchange

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## 1. Introduction

In a globalised world, the ability to communicate and interact appropriately with people from different cultures who are shaped by distinct values, beliefs and experiences is gaining increasing importance. Technology-enhanced educational programmes such as telecollaboration or Virtual Exchange have gained popularity in the last 20 years when studies on Computer-mediated Communication (CMC) experienced a shift from communicative competence to intercultural competence (Avgousti, 2018; O’Dowd, 2018). It is thought that international collaborative online learning programmes provide opportunities for learners to develop intercultural communicative competence and linguistic competence (Furstenberg, 2001), reduce geographical distance by linking learners from every corner of the world and from distinct cultural contexts together, and add international perspectives to course syllabus (O’Dowd, 2018). Meanwhile, communicating successfully in an online environment requires the student to become the “intercultural speaker” (Byram, 1997, p. 21) who has linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and intercultural competence which can only be better developed with an student-centred instruction that stresses peer interaction, independence and autonomy (Lee, 2011).

The advent of modern technology, especially interactive technologies in learning and teaching, has fundamentally changed the landscape of education in general, from classroom teaching to a mixture of face-to-face (FTF) teaching and CMC, from mainly text-chats to multimodal environments (Avgousti, 2018). Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) plus digital competence are gaining more importance (Hauck, 2007; Lee and Song, 2019; O’Dowd, 2003, 2018).

The majority of studies in this area were on learning English as the target language (TL), followed by Spanish, German, and French. Few studies were on Chinese as the TL. This research aims to bridge this gap and find out how learners develop intercultural competence and digital competencies in a VE programme between 2019 and 2021. This study will also explore the implications this programme brings to second language teaching and learning. This paper will consider the complexity of online learning from a sociocultural point of view in reference to Byram’s (1997) ICC model.



## 2. Literature Review

Sociocultural theorists maintain that learning is an active, social and collaborative process through which learners use material artifacts (e.g., computers) and symbolic tools or signs (e.g., gestures and language) to construct knowledge with others in order to accomplish joint tasks (Lantolf, 2015; Lee, 2011; Vygotsky, 1978). Learning occurs through interaction, negotiation and collaboration between a teacher or an expert and a child or a novice, in which an expert provides contingent assistance to a novice while a child initiates interactions between the teacher's expertise and their own knowledge gained during the particular historical and cultural environment (Aljaafreh, 1994; Storch, 2017).

VE programmes and similar telecollaborative programmes<sup>①</sup> adopt tandem learning format by pairing a native speaker with a non-native speaker to help each other learn the target language and culture (Dooly and Vinagre, 2021). Here the native speaker works as an expert and the non-native speaker as a novice in a multimedia environment to make dialogic conversations for the purpose of achieving the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). VE, especially telecollaboration is conducted via tasks or projects to enhance learning and intercultural development (Levy, 2005; O'Dowd and Waire, 2009).

In the field of foreign language teaching, Byram (1997) proposes an ICC model that involves knowledge, skills, and attitudes. According to Byram, knowledge and skills are acquired through learner experience and reflection or with the help of a teacher who usually follows the educational philosophy of the particular society. ICC is manifested by the learner's skills in interpreting and relating, and in discovering and/or interacting. Knowledge and attitudes are modified in the process of intercultural communication.

As the most influential model in FL education (Avgousti, 2018), Byram's (1997) model has been widely used in telecollaboration (Belz, 2003, 2007; Dooly, 2008; Müller-Hartmann, 2006; O'Dowd and Dooly, 2020). In Müller-Hartmann's (2006) study, it is discovered that telecollaborative partnerships facilitate the development of both intercultural communicative competence and critical media literacy in the foreign language teacher. Belz (2007) builds the pedagogy of telecollaboration on the basis of a detailed discussion of the five principles of Byram's ICC model, their respective curriculum objectives and possible activities that have been implemented in various telecollaborative partnerships.

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① O'Dowd and Dooly (2021) defined telecollaboration as class-to-class exchanges where partner teachers work together to design tasks or projects, integrated into the class syllabus, for students to carry out together; whereas virtual exchange refers to video conferencing sessions where students come together to engage in intercultural dialogue under the guidance of a trained facilitator (p. 361).

Taking computer-mediated intercultural exchange contexts and the accompanying social practices as a highly complex social activity (Müller-Hartmann, 2006) in promoting intercultural communicative competence, Helm and Guth (2010) have developed a framework for the goals of telecollaboration 2.0 that incorporates new online literacies which are manifested in the operational, cultural and critical dimensions. The operational dimension includes the “technical stuff” such as computer literacy, information literacy and new media literacies, and attitude, the “ethos stuff”<sup>②</sup>. It is an expansion on Byram’s model of ICC that links new online literacies and foreign language learning.

Byram (2000) argues that it is possible to assess change of attitudes in intercultural communication but it is not possible to quantify affective and moral development. He uses categories of intercultural communication entries (see Appendix I) as descriptors to test learners’ development of intercultural competence. Liaw (2006) adopts Byram’s (1997) ICC model and assessment guidelines (2000) as an intercultural framework to analyse and assess the exchanges. Tecedor (2020) combines Byram’s assessment guideline with aspects of Bennett’s Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity and accurately identifies the development stage of students’ intercultural competence. Studies show that new media such as blog interactions, Facebook and videoconferencing have a positive effect on the development of intercultural competence (Eloa, 2008; Jin, 2015; Tecedor, 2020). Jin (2015) and Liaw (2006) in their studies conclude that students are more interested in other’s culture but show less interest in changing their perspectives.

However, Angelova’s (2014) study of 26 American students paired with 26 Chinese students find that students’ stereotypes about life and the way of living of the other country changed after 5 weeks of Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication (SCMC) interaction. With regard to the conflicting results, researchers call for caution regarding the oversimplification of intercultural competence (O’Dowd and Dooly, 2020) and raise critical issues of students’ level of intercultural competence (O’Dowd, 2003), language styles and discourse genres (Kramsch, 2002) that affect intercultural communication, the factors of social presence (Hauk and Warneke, 2012, cited in O’Dowd and Dooly, 2021), technical issues (M. Dooly, 2011) and institutional practices (Belz, 2002) that can transfer attitudes and communication responses to others during interaction.

Given the complexity of intercultural competence, Deardorff (2016) concludes that assessment of intercultural competence should use “a multimethod, that is focused on the process of intercultural competence development” (p. 122). Drawing on Deardorff’s (2016) approach to assessing intercultural competence and Helm and Guth’s (2010) framework for the goals of telecollaboration 2.0, this study will look at three questions:

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② Willingness to explore, learn from, participate in, create, and collaborate and share in online communities (Helm and Guth, 2010:74).

- 1) How is computer literacy evidenced at operational level during SCMC interaction?
- 2) What social strategies do the interactants use while completing their tasks?
- 3) How is cultural awareness manifested in the interactants' exchanges?

### **3. Research methods**

#### **3.1. The programme**

The VE programme was a tasked-based virtual exchange programme between the University of Bath in the UK and Xi'an International University in China that operated between 2019 and 2021. By the end of 2021, a total of 94 students participated in the programme. Each term students had six or ten weeks of online exchange. They were asked to choose their own project topics but conversation topics outside of their chosen project topics were also encouraged in their interactions. In the fourth week of the project, students were instructed to present their projects and receive feedback from tutors in a 5-minute Show & Tell session. At the conclusion of the exchange, students presented their projects to the whole virtual exchange team. To trace their progress and self-reflections during their interactions, the students were instructed to write learning diaries every week.

Students could choose their own means of communication as they wish, via email, WeChat, Tencent meeting, text messages, or Skype. But they were advised to be considerate of each other's time and switch languages when appropriate. Students were encouraged to correct their partner's language usage, pointing out each other's errors or mistakes and to collaborate closely with their partners to solve language-related problems, but they were also told to be cautious about over-correction while the meaning was negotiated.

#### **3.2. Research design**

Due to the complexity of intercultural competence, the research uses a multimethod, i.e. direct assessment and indirect assessment to measure the development of intercultural competence and digital competences. The data set for direct assessment includes performance data (Deardorff, 2016), such as student final projects, email communications, recordings of videoconferencing and learning dairies. The data set for indirect assessment is a semi-structured interview (see Appendix II) conducted with

Chinese students straight after a six-week programme.

Data triangulation was used in the data analysis. The interview data was transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis to reveal the development of intercultural competence. The video-conferencing data was also transcribed and coded using the conventions of Conversation Analysis (CA) (see Appendix III) to support the themes developed from the interview data. The text analysis was administered to the email communications of the participants to see the development of cultural awareness at textual level.

### **3.2. Data collection**

This research takes an ethnographic approach to the data. With students' consent, their weekly learning diaries, email communications, video recordings of interactions and final projects were collected for analysis. This study focuses on data from a six-week programme where five dyads frequently communicated via email and Tencent meeting. The five native Chinese speakers had learned English for ten years and their English was at B1 level. The five English speakers had varied learning experience in Chinese and their language level was between A2 and C1.

A total of 32, 592 words in both English and Chinese of learning diaries, email communications and final project were collected, and 28,890 words of recorded video-conferencing data were transcribed, coded and analysed. A further 24, 975 interview utterances in Chinese and English were collected to explore the development of students' intercultural competence. Eight Chinese students who participated in the six-week programme took part in the semi-structured interview.

## **4. Results and Discussion**

The interview data and student performance data indicated that visualization<sup>③</sup> served as the core component of digital literacy and it was the tool to gain access to the foreign culture. The participants showed positive attitude towards intercultural communication. They tended to maintain rapport with their partners to engage, scaffold and act successfully in their interactions. Their cultural topics not only involved commonalities and differences in the two cultures but also conflicts in values and beliefs.

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③ The ability to interpret and create data representations for the purpose of expressing ideas, finding patterns and identifying trends (Jenkins et al., 2006)

#### 4.1. The core component of computer literacy

The students' learning diaries, email communications and video recordings of their final projects indicated that visualization in computer-mediated interaction worked as the central point for effective intercultural communications represented by technological support from screen casting, screen sharing and live broadcasting. Screen sharing enabled the dyads to see what the other party was doing and live broadcasting created an environment that 'no distance exists between the dyads', as Student 2 reflected in the interview:

*We had video chat and could see each other, the issue of distance between us, I felt, decreased ... the biggest hurdle was the barrier of language, as a matter of fact, he wasn't a fluent Chinese speaker after all, whereas I didn't know English very much. We considered language as an auxiliary tool for communication only. In fact, he screen casted, that is to say, to screen cast his own computer, then he searched Chinese online, or I used my mobile phone to something backstage, then I searched the text and edited it into English, then I will use the dialogue box to send it to him. I thought he was able to see my screen while I was taking some notes. (Student 2)*

This supports Nap's (2003) claim that visualization can improve the level of student participation and motivation. Figure 1 demonstrates how visualization is achieved by various means of social media in this study.

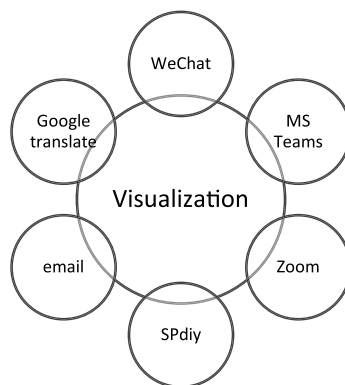


Figure 1. Visualization as the central component of intercultural communication

The participants used emails, WeChat, MS Teams, Zoom, Kingsoft PPT, Kingsoft WPS, SPdiy, and online translation tools and software for recording and capturing screen during their interactions. Professional architectural software was used to produce animation effect for their paintings and draw-

ings when a quite sophisticated video was produced to show the cultural similarities between China and Cape Verde in a children's rhyme "Diu Shoujuan" (Hiding the handkerchief).

The weekly data set showed that email as the most common and basic communication tool was used most frequently at the beginning of the virtual exchange programme to fulfil tasks which were given by teachers. For example, the dyads (English-Chinese) used emails to send PPTs or documents to their partners to discuss their work plans and decide on an appropriate way to communicate during their interaction. They also submitted their learning journals to their tutors via email. An intermediary who was able to use both email and WeChat was employed for communication when one participant's UK partner was unable to download WeChat initially. Before a proper communication channel was established, the UK partner sent emails to her friend in China, who used WeChat to send an instant message to the Chinese partner. Conversely, the Chinese partner used WeChat to send the message to the intermediary, who then transmitted the message to the UK partner.

The dyads used both mobile phone and computer versions of WeChat: the computer version was for typing English or Chinese characters and the mobile version was for writing and editing PPT slides and WPS documents.

The data revealed that interactants had their own preferred communication tools during their interactions. Chinese partners preferred WeChat to MS Teams and emails, while the UK partners preferred emails to WeChat as some UK partners could not download and use WeChat properly. Interactants tended to use preferred social media platforms with proven reliability and safety features because it took longer for them to learn to use a new social media that was complicated and not easy to use.

*I felt that I could not use that that Zoom and Kings. It was because it was unreliable and I couldn't log in for some time. It turned out that we could only use Zoom to communicate. She sent me a video link, then I logged in but was unable to send my link. Eventually I was unable to create a chatroom. (Student 6 )*

All dyads were able to use different social media platforms for different purposes after six weeks of interactions. Digital technologies brought both conveniences and difficulties when the dyads communicated with each other. The quality of sound, delay and disruptions of the Internet were the problems encountered during their interactions. Except 1 indicates interactants' concern about the communication technology.

Excerpt 1: (L and S2 transcripts, 00: 00: 00-00: 00: 12)

- 1 L: hh.hh. >How is everything?< ((waving hands))
- 2 S2: H[i. ((waving hands))
- 3 L: → [>I doubt I can't see you<

- 4 L: ((wearing glasses))  
 5 L: eh. 你好 .  
 6 S2: ° 你 : 好 :: ° ?

Student L initiated the interaction, but her greeting was ignored as both of them were busy with preparing their video talk for the forthcoming learning session. At the same time, L was not sure about the new technology because they could not really see each other initially.

#### 4.2. The social strategies used by interactants

The data indicated that interaction followed the rule of “no argument” , “no embarrassment” and “no unhappiness” . “Being considerate towards partners” was another key word frequently emerged in the data.

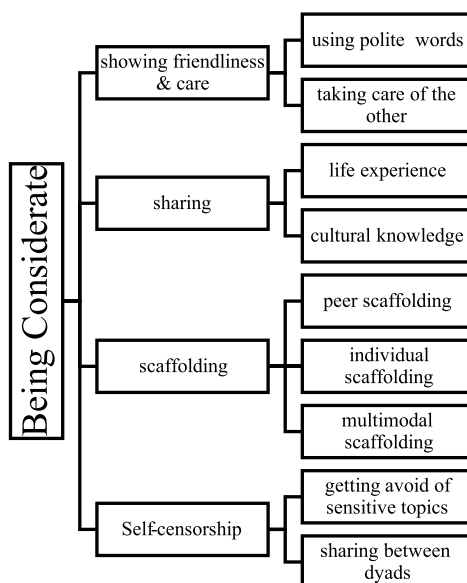


Figure 2. The social strategies used by the interactants during their interaction

Figure 2 indicates every facet of the theme “Being considerate” , which is manifested by the subthemes of “showing friendliness & care” , “sharing life experience and cultural knowledge” , “scaffolding” , and “self-censorship” .

“Being considerate” as the main cohesive device to tie dyads together is shown in the following interview transcripts:

*At the time when I prepared my dissertation, I felt like she was always with me and thought writing a dissertation had taken me a lot of time. Then she asked me about the progress of my work every day, yes, every day. (Student 2)*

#### 4.2.1 Showing friendliness and care

Five dyads used both Chinese and English during their email communications. One student wrote in English but expressed her wishes, humbleness and politeness in a typical Chinese way.

*I believe that through our mutual understanding[ and understanding], we will not only become comrades in arms who strive together in study, but also become friends who share the same ideals and share weal and woe in life. I want to show you that I still have a lot of knowledge to learn from you.* (Student 7. an email on Sun, Feb 23, 2020 06:25 AM)

The Chinese way of showing humbleness emerged in another email communication when an English student who had working experience in China talked about dumplings.

*That's amazing that you can cook dumplings. I love dumplings, but when I make them they look very ugly.* (an email communication on Mon, Mar 9, 2020 07:13 AM)

Student 7 understood Chinese culture and her values and beliefs are deeply imbedded in her thoughts and she was unable to change perspective (Category B) whereas the English student who has a Chinese husband was able to change her perspectives.

#### 4.2.2 Sharing

The dyads discussed topics that young people are interested in. Their interactions were engaging and they didn't shy away from talking about personal matters but the topic was kept private between the dyads.

The following transcript shows that their communication was about commonalities and differences in cultures and it was a process of transition from an ethnocentric point of view to an ethno-relativist mindset.

*Then I found out that one food in their country is quite similar in shape to Chinese dumplings. They put fish or a kind of vegetable in it. It looks like Chinese dumplings when it is steamed. It is a sort of snack there but a main dish in China.* (Student 6)

The sharing was not only among dyads but also among dyads' friends – a process of cultural transmission is clearly seen in the data. The following transcripts are from an interactant who was



talking about the children's game of "Sapatinho de Licá" and 《丢手绢》 (Diu Shoujuan) popular in Cape Verde and China. It was an amazing discovery: even though they grew up in different continents, they both played this remarkably similar game in their childhood.

*At the time, she, I remember that she taught me [the song] for several weeks. It was in Portuguese. There were some rolling R sound that I could not pronounce. Then she replaced a few words for me. ... all our dorm mates now can sing the song. (Student 6)*

The interactants produced joint work on an array of interesting topics including food, tea culture, tourism, embroidery, religion, history, music, festivals, films, and much more. It was a process of sharing cultural knowledge, values, rituals and practices. The main channel of sharing was through cooperative projects designed and agreed by the dyads and interactions via audio and visual conferencing. The most effective way of sharing culture was the use of live streaming.

*He shared the view, buildings when he was walking on the street. I was impressed with many special and well-preserved English castles dated back to the Middle Ages. The houses were really big, really beautiful. (Student 7)*

#### **4.2.3 Scaffolding**

Available scaffolds such as cues, hints, graphics and features of digital systems discussed above were also spotted in the data to support and promote both written and audio-visual interactions. Native speakers used simple words to communicate with their partners and their speed and use of language were more standardized. Translation software was frequently used whenever there was a potential issue in understanding a language item.

*When I had a video talk with my partner, I quite often used translation software as my partner's mother tongue isn't English. She is also an international student and she did have difficulties in language. Then I used translation software most of the time, that is, translating words I wanted to say to her. (Student 3)*

Conversation analysis revealed that peer scaffolding, multimodality scaffolding and individual scaffolding were the devices used to co-construct language related knowledge.

Excerpt 2: (L and S8 transcript, 00:27:08-00:27:19)

- 1 L: ar:gh, so you use heaters.  
2 S8: Yeah, then, ahh. in Ch[in]=  
3 L: [hh:  
4 S8: → =in Chinese is nuǎn qì ↓  
5 (.)  
6 L: nuǎn qì.

When student L was talking about ‘heaters’, student S8, who was a native speaker of Chinese and identified herself as a teacher in the conversation, provided its correspondent Chinese word for her partner to acquire this new word. The unsolicited input was used as peer scaffolding which showed the responsibility of the “teacher” to actively engage the “learner” in the interaction (Donato, 1994; van der Zwaard and Bannink, 2019).

Excerpt 3: (L and S5 transcript, 00: 00: 00-00: 00: 34)

- 6 L: 你 是 > 怎么样 ?<  
nǐ shì zěnmeyang?  
you BE how?  
How is everything?  
7 S5: 嗯, 我 很 好 .  
èn. wǒ hěn hǎo.  
hm, I very good.  
hm, I am fine.  
8 S5: 我 今天 休假 .  
wǒ jīn tiān xiū jià.  
I today go on a holiday.  
I am taking today off.  
9 S5: (6.0) ((typing))  
10 S5: → I’m taking: today off.  
((reading from the screen, sending the message))  
11 L: Oh-:

In this episode, student L, a non-native speaker of Chinese, initiated the conversation by greeting her partner S5, a native speaker of Chinese who then completed her second part of the greeting. Then student L initiated a new turn saying that “我今天休假” (I am taking today off) but at the same time predicted that the word “休假” (go on a holiday) was difficult for her partner, then she didn’t continue to give new information but instead stopped for 6.0 seconds and typed her translation of the Chinese sentence and moved conversation forward. The features of the digital systems were fully utilised: the



### 4.3.1 Cultural awareness at operational level

Interactants' exposure to the TL in the real world, their interaction with individuals from different cultural background, and their understanding of narratives presented by images and/or live broadcasting of an unfamiliar society provided them with the opportunities to experience, sensitize, and digest the outside world.

Students experienced in-depth understanding of the differences between classroom TL and TL used in real life, by the virtual (real) experience of the beliefs and values of another culture and by the collapse of stereotypes created by the general public, the media and the society.

*We are pretty much interested in the impact of language, that is we are more concerned with how to use my dyads' language correctly. Moreover, what they use is in fact some simple words, rather than some sophisticated words as we had imagined. The use of simple words is merely a change of form, rather than a copy of some particular meaning as we had learned from English textbooks. (Student 2)*

Values and beliefs are usually reflected more in nonmaterial cultures such as arts, history, religion, rituals, conventions, ideology and philosophy and cultures such as food, clothing and other artefacts. The interview data suggested that the interactants had established their new images of British people, which were somewhat different from what they had learned from teachers, textbooks, and the media.

Table 1. Images created by the Chinese interactants

Men	Women	People in general
gentlemen-like polite use of appropriate language old men funny, lovely and diligent	warm kind-hearted strong	kind approachable multilingual some with strong accent

Table 1 demonstrated the images created by the Chinese interactants after three months of the Virtual Exchange programme. One interactant was quite impressed with her partner:

*It was that Grandpa, he was lovely and especially hardworking. I think that he was working very hard. He still learns Chinese at the age of 80. I admired him very much as he can speak so many languages. (Student 4)*

The conflicts of values and beliefs are apparent in the interview data and the Chinese interactants

were surprised to see their partners' ideas and what they had experienced in video interactions were different from their expectations in terms of election, success and Chinese traditional medicine.

*She shared the scenes of the President election in her country. She and her brother went to cast their ballot tickets. After that, an unerasable print was put on each of their hands. Then I felt there is a huge difference between their country and China. (Student 6)*

*In our mind, one's success mostly depends on one's effort and hard work, then your hard work will lead to your success; however, in Mark's mind, one's success is related to one's effort and hard work, but most of the time people have to worship their god, if you transmit your wishes of getting success to your god, then you will succeed. At that time, we really couldn't figure it out. (Student 8)*

Student 8 showed her interest in other people's experience of life and way of thinking but obviously she wasn't able to understand.

*At one point, I introduced Chinese moxibustion therapy to my partner, she didn't believe in it...she refused to accept traditional Chinese medicine. (Student 7)*

The data didn't reveal whether or not conflicts in values and beliefs could lead to change in perspectives. However, it might be possible if the participants lived in the target country.

*I think I can only understand how they live if I follow [a] foreigner's life style, having the same food, enjoying the same landscape and doing the same things. Then I can understand what aspects of their life is different from mine. I will have a different understanding if I can really do that. (Student 8)*

The transcripts presented here exemplify what Helm and Guth's (2010) have named the "ethos stuff" : the willingness to explore, learn from, participate in, create, and collaborate and share in online communities, and Byram's (1997) *Savoir-être*: attitude of openness and curiosity.

#### **4.3.2 Cultural awareness at textual level**

Interactants used bilingual parallel email texts, in this case Chinese and English in their communications. A comparative study was conducted to the performance data and the result reveals the interactants' awareness of cultural differences at textual level.

Student A, a native English speaker, lived in China for four years and married a Chinese husband.

Her email texts in English and Chinese were idiomatic and followed the conventions of letter writing in both languages.

Table 2. Letter writing chunks from Student A's bilingual email communications

	English text	Chinese text	English gloss
1)	Dear Zhang Yichun <sup>⑤</sup>	张义纯, 你好。	Zhang Yichun, hello.
2)	I hope this email finds you well.		
3)	I have been moving house this week and it has been very busy.	我这个星期搬家了, 每天都很忙。	I this week move house particle le, every day all very busy.
4)	I look forward to learning more about you!	我期待你的回信, 让我更好认识你。	I expect your reply, let me better know you.
5)	Speak soon!	期待你的回信。	Expect your reply.

Note: English gloss are added by the researchers.

The drop of the pronoun 'it' in the Chinese text in 3) complies with the Chinese syntactic structure, i.e. the subject can be dropped if the context is clear enough to indicate the specific meaning of the sentence. However, huge difference exists between English and Chinese in this example. The "it" in English conveys the message that it was the job of "moving house" that kept the writer busy rather than the writer herself. Sentences 4) and 5) are the most frequently used concluding sentences in letter writing and 5) is less formal and usually used among friends, but their Chinese equivalents are all quite formal, even though grammatically incorrect.

Student 3, an 18-year-old native Chinese speaker, had no experience of traveling to an English-speaking country.

Table 3. Texts from Student 3's bilingual emails

	Chinese text	English text
6)	在这里向你说明我还有许多的知识需要向你学习, 同时你的中文很棒哦, 还希望在以后的学习中能够多多指教。	I want to show you that I still have a lot of knowledge to learn from you. At the same time your Chinese is very good. I hope you can give me more advice in the future study.

Student B's English text was almost identical to its Chinese equivalent with no modifications and adaptation in sentence structure and culture connotations. Her choice of externalized communicative expressions is motivated by the "Self-belittling and Others-esteeming" principle in the Chinese context (Gu, 1990).

<sup>⑤</sup> Not the participant's real name.

On another occasion, when Student 3 talked about the celebration of the “three eight goddess day” in her email, Student A re-casted Student 3’s term as “International Women Day” and stressed that “Unfortunately, I don’t think it is really celebrated in the UK, so no cake for me today!” The interpretation of the cultural events was dragged into the context of the UK culture – popular gifts like female hygiene products, shampoo or small gadgets in China were changed into “cakes” .

It looks like Student A was at the intermediate or advanced level as she was aware of cultural differences, able to write in colloquial Chinese and ready to investigate genre across cultures; whereas Student 3 was still at the beginners level as she saw cultural similarities and was more ethnocentric in expressing herself in English.

## 5. Conclusion

This research found that the participants’ digital literacy was high at the start of the VE programme and developed during the programme. Visualization as the core component of digital literacy provided the students with real-time opportunities to experience a different and “real” culture, even though live streaming cannot compare with the real experience of residing in the target country for a period of time.

The participants relished the opportunity to talk to people from their age group in colloquial English or Chinese, and they felt motivated to develop their language skills, interculture competence and digital competences. Social strategies such rapport building, sharing and scaffolding and self-censorship were used in their interactions. In addition, the CA analysis showed three types of scaffolding in participants’ interactions, i.e. peer scaffolding, individual scaffolding and multimodal scaffolding, which promoted language learning (Pica, 1994; Roushad, 2016).

The data revealed that cultural awareness was enhanced through the VE programme at operational and textual levels. A continuum of ethnocentric and ethno-relative orientations co-existed in the data but improvement of ICC competence was not evident in the data. It is safe to suggest, however, that the development of intercultural competence is related to the interactants’ language level, the design of the VE programme, and the mindset of the interactants.

Dooly (2016) thinks that a well-structured programme with sufficient workload for students is more attractive and interesting than a programme that works as a side-dish of the main course. Our study shows that telecollaboration between universities is sustainable. As socio-cultural theorists point out, dynamic assessment during the course of the programme will give students more opportunities to understand their achievement in both language and culture. Task-based teaching, project-based teach-

ing and content-based teaching are the main options to organize the collaborative programme. This type of collaboration should start from course design, curriculum and syllabus and credits would give students more incentives to continue learning.

## Appendix I: Assessment of Intercultural Communication Entries

Category	Description
A. Interest in other people's way of life and introducing one's own culture to others	-I am interested in other people's experience of daily life, particularly those things not usually presented to outsiders through the media. -I am also interested in the daily experience of a variety of social groups within a society and not only the dominant culture.
B. Ability to change perspective	-I have realised that I can understand other cultures by seeing things from a different point of view and by looking at my culture from their perspective.
C. Knowledge about one's own and others' culture for intercultural communication	-I know some important facts about living in the other culture and about the country, state and people. -I know how to engage in conversation with people of the other culture and maintain a conversation
D. Knowledge about intercultural communication	-I know how to resolve misunderstandings which arise from people's lack of awareness of the view point of another culture -I know how to discover new information and new aspects of the other culture for myself

Adapted from Byram, (2000) and Liaw (2006)

## Appendix II: Interview questions

### BU-XAIU Semi-structured interview sheet

#### Instructions

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. The interview is to see how well you understand your partner's culture after the virtual exchange program. Your personal information such as age, gender is not disclosed to a third party. Your name will be anonymised in the research paper, which will be published after this interview.



This interview will be recorded, please say no if you think recording is not appropriate. You may change your ideas any time before or during the interview. This interview will last 30 minutes, and we will contact you for further interviews if necessary.

### **Personal information**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender:

a) male

b) female

Contact:

a) WeChat: \_\_\_\_\_

b) Tel: \_\_\_\_\_

### **Interview questions**

1. What Apps or computer software did you use during this project, especially when you prepared your final project?
2. What social media did you use? WeChat, WhatsApp, Zoom, Tencent Meeting, subtitling, dubbing
3. Did you or your partner find frustrating when using those software or social media? Please say more about it.
4. To what degree, were you willing to explore the life and culture of your partner? What did you learn from your partner? How did you create opportunities to share your life and culture with your partner?
5. What are the appropriate ways of communicating online? What problems or issues did you have when you discussed your final project with your partner?
6. What kind of topics did you try to avoid during your conversation? Why?
7. What impressions you had on British people have changed after this project? How did you find your partner differ from what you learned from movies, TV programmes, social media or news?

### **Appendix III The coding of the audio/visual data based on Ochs (1996)**

- = a single, continuous utterance with no break or pause
- (0.5) silence, half a second's silence

(.)	a micropause of less than 0.1
?	rising intonation
.	a falling intonation contour
:	stretching of the sound
-	a cut-off
<u>WORD</u>	some form of stress or emphasis
°	markedly quiet or soft
££	a smiling voice
><	compressed talk
hh	aspiration
(())	the transcriber's description of events

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# Looking Beyond the Pandemic: Smart Device Assisted Chinese Character Learning

## 后疫情时期：智能工具辅助汉字学习

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**Abstract:** This study investigates Irish university students' perceptions and strategies for learning Chinese characters using digital devices amid the Covid-19 pandemic period. In this exploratory study, forty-seven first-year university students were randomly divided into two groups, with experimental group (EG) using digital device typing method to learn Chinese characters and control group (CG) using handwriting method. The end-of-term test results show no significant difference in writing between the two groups, however, there is significant difference in listening, reading and speaking in favor of EG. The follow-up in-depth interviews revealed that although the pandemic brought challenges such as remote learning on the screen, no face to face (FTF) interactions, technological issues and more workload, digital devices do have some positive effect on Chinese learning, including more fun for motivation and engagement, more flexibility in time and venue, and higher efficiency in recognizing and typing characters. The interview results also reveal that to a large extent, the learning effect and outcome depends on lecturer's pedagogy. The pedagogical implication from this study is that language educators need to keep open-minded and introduce different ways to the students to make good use of digital facilities.

**Key words:** Chinese character, teaching strategies, digital devices, online learning

### 1. Introduction

Learning Chinese continues to gain popularity in the last decade (China Daily, 2019). Among many other European countries, France alone attracted quadrupled students over the past 10 years (China Daily, 2017). Across the world, over 4,000 overseas universities, 30, 000 middle schools and

45,000 Chinese educational organizations offer Chinese language courses, and more than 25,000,000 people are learning Chinese outside China (Zhong, 2021). Chinese learning was not stopped by COVID -19 pandemic in 2020 but was moved online instead. In the online situation, the previous pedagogy of showing students stroke by stroke on the board and helping them write hand by hand in the classroom was out of the question. Chinese language educators had to quickly explore how to use smart devices (SD) to suit the online situation, what strategies can students use to adapt to the new mode of learning to achieve high learning outcome.

## 2 Literature Review

### 2.1 Challenges of learning Chinese characters

Chinese characters, or Hànzì ( 汉字 ), are commonly held as the most difficult element in learning Chinese (Li, 2021; Olmanson, et al, 2021), because of the large number of the most commonly used words, lack of connection between a character and its pronunciation, as well as the effect of different tones.

Learning Chinese characters means learning three constituents: orthography (the shape or form of a character), phonology (the pronunciation) and semantics (the meaning). Studies have shown that it is hard for students to memorize the stroke sequences of 2,000 most frequently used characters and master 18 different compound structures in which characters are organized (Qian, Owen, & Bax, 2018). It is true that some Chinese characters are formed by radicals, indicating the meaning and phonetics components, indicating the pronunciation and therefore although students may not know the exact meaning of a character, the ideogram radical component of a character may give a hint on the meanings, e.g., “ 足 (zú)” for foot, and ‘ 犭 quǎn ’ for animal. However, for students with alphabetic scripts language background, to follow a sound-symbol or grapheme-phoneme correspondence and to understand the relationship between the meaning and pronunciation in a Chinese character are not easy.

Another challenge is that words with the same pronunciation may have different characters when pronounced with different tones, e.g., ‘xifu’, can mean xī fú ( 西服 suit) or xífù ( 媳妇 wife); or ‘shuijiao’ for shuìjiào ( 睡觉 sleep) or shuǐ jiǎo ( 水饺 dumplings). Students are often confused and unable to choose the right character in a right context (Sung, 2014). Moreover, students have to

differentiate a large number of homophones (Sung & Wu, 2011) such as ‘b ē ijù’ for 悲劇 (tragedy) or 杯具 (cup), and ‘chénmò’ for 沉默 (silent) or 沉沒 (sink) etc.

## 2.2 Chinese character teaching and learning strategies

Facing the challenges of learning Chinese characters, great strides have been made in character learning strategies over the last two decades, e.g. deep graph-based model (Wu and Zhang, 2021); radical based knowledge (Li, et al., 2021); visual aids (Gu and Lornklang, 2021); and word presentation (Xiong, Qin, and Yang, 2021). Introducing and explaining character rationale help learners understand the interconnectedness between phonological, semantic and orthographical aspects of characters, and thus helps to lessen learning difficulty (Li, 2020), e.g., using classification, naming and characters-building ability of character non-formation components to supplement the teaching of Chinese character components (Han, 2021), separating teaching speaking from teaching writing (Ju, et al, 2021), and “encouraging more recognizing than writing” (Rai and Li, 2021). Various character learning strategies are proved to be useful, e.g., Gottardo et al (2021) found language and literacy skills in a first language with alphabetic language backgrounds are related to performance in a second language and that these relations are reciprocal. Using Strategy Inventory for Language Learning instrument and Spearman correlation coefficient, Zhang’s (2021) statistics demonstrated that strategy use played a vital role in online multimodal Chinese learning. Motivation was also found to have a significant effect. These findings highlighted the need for teachers to raise awareness of using character learning strategies among learners to achieve better results.

Regarding using SD typing or handwriting, studies have generated conflicting results: orthographic knowledge, repeated practice, rote repetition and repeated handwriting are believed to be the most useful strategies (e.g., McGinnis, 1999). In contrast, students in other studies relied heavily on orthographic knowledge-based strategies and considered using SD typing more useful in learning characters (Sung, 2014; Wang & Leland, 2011). However, using SD also has disadvantages owing to the lack of sound-shape association characters, which makes it hard for CFL students in terms of recognition, memorization, comprehension and writing (Gong, Gao, & Lyu, 2020; Gong, Lyu, & Gao, 2018).

Although these studies are invaluable in different aspects, they are based on FTF context but not focused on online learning, and thus the urgent need is to have an integrated approach for the current online learning.

### **2.3 Smart device (SD)-assisted Chinese character learning**

SD has enhanced language education in many aspects, e.g., easy access to native speakers; multi-modalities; flexibility of time/venue for learning etc. However, SD-assisted Chinese character learning has not been without limitations: requirement for computer literacy, a heavy workload imposed on learning outside the classroom, task complexity, and technology bugs such as the time limit for voice messages, limited teacher-student interactions, and high demand on self-regulation and learner autonomy (Reinders & Hubbard, 2013).

As SD-assisted learning features multimedia that contains textual mnemonic cues, visual images, pronunciation demonstrations and interactive videos, it has huge potential to facilitate CFL learners' meaning-making, pronunciation, recall, and application of target vocabulary. In addition, the use of mobile learning in vocabulary study will increase the opportunity for incidental character learning, promote long-term retention, and benefit students by providing active self-generated learning opportunities, leading to improvements in CFL learners' Chinese language performance (Xu, et al., 2021).

From the students' perspective, Sriyanalug's (2017) study revealed that students had positive attitudes towards the use of mobile phones in enhancing Chinese proficiency. Similarly, the research conducted by Chee et al. (2017) on students' perception also showed that the integration of smartphone applications could leverage motivation and interest. Foreign language learners can quickly zoom into target content knowledge, as it provides interactive social learning experience, and it supports seamless learning between contexts in both formal and informal environments. It can also promote cooperative learning and be personalized to meet different learning needs and styles (Ozdamli and Cavus, 2011).

Positive effects of using SDs to support their character learning have been demonstrated by recent studies: radical knowledge, typing, and playing games with the aid of a variety of online platforms and mobile applications can accelerate character acquisition and enhance learning outcomes (Liu & Olmanson, 2016). Mobile applications make it easier for students to search example sentences and looking up stroke orders (Mason & Zhang, 2017) and Pleco was the most frequently used mobile app (Manson and Zhang, 2017). Qian, Owen, & Bax (2018) found that UK-based learners at the beginner Chinese level adopted some new strategies such as typing pinyin to learn to recognize new characters and constant self-testing.

While these studies have investigated the impact of a range of SD-assisted Chinese character learning, a few of them explored the SD component as a 'medium' to enhance the effectiveness



of learning practices and provided limited attention to the underlying features leading to impact. Notwithstanding the proven effectiveness of SD-supported strategies in character learning, no study has examined CFL learners' strategies for learning characters online during pandemic in the context of Ireland.

To fill in this gap, this study addresses the following research questions: 1) What do students say about SD-assisted Chinese character learning? 2) What are students' strategies in learning Chinese characters?

### **3 Research design**

The present study was conducted at the University College Dublin with Chinese minor degree students, who were supposed to learn Chinese characters, vocabulary, grammar from absolute initio beginners to HSK 1 level. Pinyin and simplified characters were taught simultaneously from the very beginning. All classes were delivered via Zoom. The assessment composed of two online in-class tests and one end-of-term exam, including listening, reading, speaking and writing, and students' marks were used for data analysis. The characters were required to be handwritten and the scanned and submitted online as photos.

#### **3.1 Participants**

Forty-seven first-year students registered for the CFL who were randomly allocated into two groups: Experiment group (EG) using SD-assisted typing method to learn characters while control group (CG) used handwriting method. Six voluntary students were selected for follow-up interviews, with 2 high, 2 low and 2 medium score achievers, in an attempt to have different voices heard. Pseudonyms are used for ethic reasons.

#### **3.2 Data collection and analysis**

Data are drawn from test results, class observations and follow-up interviews. Students' performances in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing were closely observed, recorded and analyzed. Two in-class tests throughout the semester and one end-of-term exam results are used for analyzed with independent T-test using IBM SPSS (Version 24).

Focusing on students' attitudes towards handwriting and typewriting in learning Chinese charac-

ters and the strategies they employ during the learning process; the semi-structured interviews were conducted to offer opportunity for students to express their views in depth. The interview schedule and questions were drafted in advance and then piloted with two CFL learners to make sure that they understood all the questions. Interview data were first transcribed and then manually coded and categorized by the researcher. The data capturing common threads across an entire set of interviews were identified for thematic analysis (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013).

## 4 Findings

### 4.1 Findings from tests

The first in-class test took place in week 4, and the results showed no significant difference between EG and CG in terms of reading, listening and writing.

There was no significant difference in the scores for listening ( $M_1=32.3$ ,  $SD=5.2$ ) and ( $M_2=31.9$ ,  $SD=5.4$ )  $t(45)=0.27$ ,  $p=0.79$ ; for reading ( $M_1=11.70$ ,  $SD=10.4$ ) and ( $M_2=20.42$ ,  $SD=9.0$ );  $t(45)=-3.08$ ,  $p=0.48$ ; for writing, ( $M_1=13.85$ ,  $SD=8.07$ ) and ( $M_2=22.62$ ,  $SD=10.1$ );  $t(45)=-3.29$ ,  $p=0.70$ .

Table 1 Results of independent sample T-test for difference in the first in-class test.

Variable	Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of mean		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Listening	0.000	0.79	0.270	45.000	0.790
			0.271	44.999	
Reading	0.517	0.48	-3.079	45.000	0.004
			-3.070	43.584	
Writing	0.154	0.70	-3.288	45.000	0.002
			-3.304	43.657	

The second in-class test took place in week 8 and the results showed that EG demonstrated significant higher score on the written although there is no significant difference for listening and reading between EG and CG.

The results illustrated significant higher score on the written task ( $M_1=16.3$ ,  $SD=9.9$ ) and ( $M_2=23.4$ ,  $SD=6.1$ )  $t(45)=-3.0$ ,  $p=0.01$ . and for listening ( $M_1=25.9$ ,  $SD=8.3$ ) ( $M_2=30.2$ ,  $SD=6.3$ )

$t(45) = -2.0$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ; but not significant difference for reading ( $M_1=23.04$ ,  $SD= 6.3$ ) ( $M_2=22.83$ ,  $SD=6.5$ );  $t(45)=0.1$ ,  $p= 0.91$ .

Table 2 Comparative results from test 2

Variable	Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of mean		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Listening	0.687	0.411	-2.012	45	0.050
			-2.000	41.163	0.052
Reading	0.541	0.466	0.112	45	0.911
			0.112	44.992	0.911
Writing	6.267	0.016	-2.986	45	0.005
			-2.957	36.294	0.005

The end-of-term exam took place in week 12 and the results show that EG demonstrated significant difference in listening, reading and oral, but not the writing marks.

Teacher A's group performed better on all four aspects of Chinese language skills. For listening ( $M_1=75.9$ ,  $SD= 17$ ) and ( $M_2=83.6$ ,  $SD=10.3$ )  $t(45) = -1.9$ ,  $p= 0.07$ ; for reading ( $M_1=55.7$ ,  $SD= 19.0$ ) and ( $M_2=65.4$ ,  $SD=11.3$ );  $t(45) = -2.131$ ,  $p= 0.04$ ; for oral ( $M_1=13.5$ ,  $SD= 6.6$ ) and ( $M_2=14.8$ ,  $SD=4.4$ );  $t(45) = -.788$ ,  $p= 0.43$ . There was significant difference in the scores for writing ( $M_1=16.3$ ,  $SD= 9.9$ ) and ( $M_2=23.4$ ,  $SD=6.1$ )  $t(45) = -3.5$ ,  $p= .00$ .

Table 3 Comparative results from end-of-term tests

Variable	Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of mean		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Listening	4.860	0.033	-1.883	45	0.066
			-1.864	35.884	0.070
Reading	5.238	0.027	-2.131	45	0.039
			-2.110	35.763	0.042
Writing	1.495	0.228	-3.512	45	0.001
			-3.491	40.986	0.001
Oral	6.476	0.014	-0.788	45	0.435
			-0.782	38.075	0.439

It should be noted that the final exam is an open-book test due to the pandemic situation. Students were allowed three hours to refer to any resources for completing the reading and writing tasks.

## 4.2 Findings from interviews

In order to find students' preference in learning characters and what strategies they used, six individual interviews were conducted at the end of the semester. The interviews show that participants from both EG and CG had strong interest in learning Chinese characters, with EG students more enthusiastic in SD-assisted character learning and CG students more interested in repeated handwriting.

Their comments indicated that the strategies they used largely depend on their lecturer's teaching strategy and pedagogy.

As Peter from EG commented that,

*Because my lecturer showed us video episodes in zoom, I also use YouTube to watch videos of characters writing stroke orders. It shows stroke by stroke with changed colors. I can easily follow it and what is more, it is visually impressive, so I can remember it more easily. Apart from that, I also use WeChat to show off to my Chinese friends what I have learnt, and we exchange messages frequently.*

From another angle, Joey remarked that "It is all right to use SD, but I do not have a sense of community. Not like on campus, we can have a coffee and lunch together while sharing what happened on the day". Sense of community is an area that language educators need to be aware of and probably create some activities that can help students to have a sense of belongings.

Charlotte from CG recalled that "My lecturer showed us how to write on a piece of paper and insisted us to write on paper as well and then to submit as a photo. I enjoy writing characters on paper with a pen. To me, it is real, and that is how I learnt English words when I was little". Dario agreed with this point and supported that "for me, to learn characters is like to learn an art. Writing character is like drawing calligraphy". Josh added "I write the characters again and again in the evening before I go to bed, and the next morning before I get out of bed, I recall these words in my mind and write them down from memory".

Anthony from EG talked with excitement "I use Quizlet for meaning and pinyin matching of characters. It is good fun, especially when doing it in zoom class, when my score is higher than other students, I feel like a champion". Eleni added "I use Learn Mandarin Chinese 5000 Words app for flashcards and games. I can do it quicker and quicker. It is more exciting than learning the characters in the classroom stroke by stroke on the board". "You know what? I use Skritter for HSK revisions, and I feel much more confident after playing with it". They all agreed that Pleco was the most used for Flashcards and characters. Bryne remarked that

*“Some apps are free like Learn Mandarin Chinese 5,000 Words, very simple to use and individualized. It makes Chinese character learning much more engaging! However, the sequence of the words is only by alphabetical order or random arrangement. It would be helpful if the content and order could be arranged in accordance with the order I want.”*

Although students have utilized multiple different apps on the SD and had high perception on these apps for practicing and memorizing characters, they also discovered some disadvantages, e.g., the explanation of the culture behind characters are largely missing, the error tolerate rate is low when writing with digital pen on iPad. Ennis pointed out that exercise and explanation are not sufficient, “For Chinese characters that I don’t understand, there is not much explanation in the application, and it will only be repeated mechanically until I mark it as ‘remembered’”. Hone also found that some of the games designed for characters are too simple and not challenging enough.

For students who have clear objective of passing HSK exam, they found that Skritter very helpful in that it is targeted for HSK exams and has rich Chinese character learning content. Murphy used the apps of Chinese characters, which also matches with the HSK levels with training on radical especially. However, for the character learning, only English meaning are offered, Chinese sentences in context are missing and the pronunciation from AI was unnatural. Tuathail enjoyed using the app of “汉字的故事” as it offers the origin or root of the character and a bit of culture knowledge about the character are introduced. However, the handwriting function in this app only offers the Oracle version of the character instead of the modern characters and the pronunciation is not given.

## **5 Discussion**

It can be seen from the interview results that different student has different learning strategies. For those who prefer handwriting, they appreciate the beauty of the characters and describe them as calligraphy. They also habitually learn words in this way in mother tongue and thus apply this method to character learning. Those who prefer SDs, they reap the benefits of time and location flexibility associated with character learning. They also enjoyed the apps with change of colors and sequence to show the character writing, which are visually impressive. For the students who are exposed more to the typing exercise demonstrated better test results. The typing training has an advantage in strengthening the phonological representations of characters and establishing the link between orthography and phonology. Using more SD-assisted tools e.g., Quizlet and Pleco also enables students to have more

opportunities to utilize typing and pinyin knowledge in practicing Chinese characters. More importantly, students use WeChat for social life all the time, which shows that class exercise and homework in EP have extended the character learning beyond class to students' everyday life.

The SD-assisted Chinese character teaching and learning is an emerging area of research, the feedback function of Chinese character learning apps needs further improvement on learning efficiency and offering dynamic, timely and continuous feedback. Students' strategies can be strengthened if the exercises are more diversified, the cultural elements or stories behind the characters can be traced, and if the students can form a community sharing their experience of using apps, sharing the progress they have made on social platforms and get a sense of achievement.

The implication for Chinese character teaching would be that typing can be introduced to the beginner-level students for improving their digital literacy and accessing SD-assisted learning resources through multiple channels to enrich the teaching model. Make effective use of the apps during and after class and integrate the use of apps with classroom teaching. For those who choose handwriting, they can be encouraged to continue, as different students have their own strategies of learning after all.

The no significant difference result between EG and CG in writing contradicts the findings from previous behavioral studies, which showed that handwriting is more effective for learning, more accurate in memorizing and more precise in orthographic character representations than keyboard writing (Mangen et al., 2015). This may be due to the fact that during the pandemic period, students are exposed to SD-assisted learning all the time, which may minimize the function of handwriting only. Due to the online only environment, it is hard to declare which is more effective, handwriting or SDs at this stage.

The EG surpassing CG in reading, listening, reading and speaking support the research of Xu et al (2021) which perceived value of online tools in character instruction and lecturers' self-confidence in online character teaching.

The interview results echo Jiang and Zheng's (2015) finding that the awareness of the strengths and challenges of the two writing modalities may allow students to adopt the one most suitable to the specific aspect of the Chinese language they are focusing on at any given time. Handwriting and SD-assisted character learning might not be an either-or choice. It is worth trying to introduce both methods to the students and leave students to decide which suits them more.

To answer RQ 1) What do students say about SD-assisted Chinese character learning? Students' responses are positive about SD-assisted Chinese character learning because of multimedia mode, flexibility in time/venue to learn, practical functions in apps, fun in games and competitiveness in quizzes. To answer RQ 2) What are students' strategies in learning Chinese characters, different students have different strategies, some prefer handwriting, some prefer SD-assisted learning. Those who preferred

SDs, they claimed to have benefitted from the change of colors and sequence of strokes for characters, the visual effectiveness and the fun elements in apps for learning; while those who preferred handwriting appreciated the beauty of calligraphy elements in characters and the cultural stories behind the characters. Lecturers should respect their choices which work for them most.

## 6 Conclusion

This study has explored university students' perceptions and strategies for learning Chinese characters using SDs. The test results show that there is no significant difference in writing between EG using SDs typing method to learn Chinese characters and CG using handwriting method. However, there is significant difference in listening, reading, and speaking in favor of EG. The interview results revealed that SDs have some positive effect on Chinese learning, including more fun for motivation and engagement, more flexibility in time and venue, and higher efficiency in recognizing and typing characters. The pedagogical implication is that language educators need to keep open-minded and introduce different ways to the students to make good use of digital facilities. In the future, both typing and writing with digital pen might be replaced by the voice input, as Speech Recognition technology is improving at a high speed. Advancements in technology, such as the Internet of Things (IoT), smart devices, voice assistants, smart homes, and humanoids, have made its usage nowadays trendy. The accuracy levels will enable us to move towards voice-based input, just like how people use Echo and Google Home now. The voice input and typing would allow more efficiency when people need more time to think in the hyped-up age. Handwriting will probably not disappear like Chinese calligraphy but becomes an art rather than an everyday communication tool. Language educators need to be better prepared to welcome the new era with new SD and new strategies for learning. characters. hybrid approach might work better, including both SD-assisted and handwriting Chinese character teaching approach, as this approach can meet different students' different needs.

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# |第三部分| Part 3

## Internet Celebrity Mini-Video: A New Learning Resource 网红短视频 - 语言学习的新资源

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**Abstract:** Digital technologies for education have burgeoned steadily around the world, and along with this trend have emerged internet celebrities attracting people online every day. The language they use in their short videos and mini talks tends to be humorous, entertaining, while disseminating new knowledge and experience. How to make good use of these resources for language learning could be a topic worthy of exploring, and this study is an attempt to achieve this purpose. To investigate university students' attitudes towards and practices in using these resources, a series of 10 episodes from different internet celebrities were selected, with 8 assigned as homework and 2 viewed and discussed in class for the third year and final-year students. Two in-depth focus-group interviews were conducted at the end of the semester. The study results reveal that students have favourable views toward the use of these resources, and they acknowledge that apart from improving the target language, their cultural awareness is enhanced as well. The study highlights that by using these resources, students build up their confidence in understanding the language and culture in everyday-life settings, and using these resources helps to bridge the gap between informal learning online and formal learning in the classroom.

**Key words:** internet celebrity, influencer, learning language and culture, cultural awareness

## 1. Introduction

The current era is marked by digital technology acceleration and rapid social change. As more and more educational/social activities are moving online, internet celebrities become popular, and the wave has mushroomed up a networked business, comprising communication (Tao and Sun, 2020), publicity (Li, 2021), representation (Hoffmann, 2021) and language education (Bruzos, 2021). Internet celebrities, used for the most diverse purposes, have strongly altered the forms of communication, information, and interaction, and thus it will be interesting to know their impact on language learning and this study is an attempt to meet this demand.

## 2. Literature review

The phenomenon of internet celebrity is theorized by cultural studies scholar Rojek (2015) as using digital technology and social media for circulating personal content, which ushers in a new form of ordinary person celebrity. Internet celebrities, also known as web celebrities, microcelebrities, and social media influencers etc., are celebrities who have acquired and developed their fame and notability through the internet with their personality and skilful use of image and language (Abidin, 2018).

### 2.1 Internet celebrities

Unlike traditional celebrities who mostly have an innate talent and their performances are professionally constructed, internet celebrities appear when the public begins to take an interest in their lives and therefore their identities and performance can be transient. As the reputation and the interaction with the viewers/followers go up, the internet celebrities gradually transform content production into semi-professional production, which in turn provides the impetus for the follow-up development (Zhou, 2021). In China, the term is “wanghong” (网红) with the colour red signifying popularity. Their celebrity status may not be for demonstrable talent, but for their specific ability to attract attention on the internet within the vast ecology of internet users (Xu, 2020).

## 2.2 Digital media platforms

In tandem with the increasing media formats evolved and social media platforms diversified, ordinary people are increasingly attaining flash fame on the internet and this phenomenon has formed a tabloid culture (Turner, 2013). On the social media platforms, including Wechat, Facebook, Whatsapp, Instagram, TikTok, Snapchat, etc. and programs such as Talk Show (脱口秀), internet celebrities can broadcast and negotiate how they would like their identities to be perceived (Xu and Pratt, 2018). Coupled with the ubiquitous network, omnipotent smartphones, and the all-time internet celebrity events, the influence of internet celebrities has become more extensive (Ferreira, 2021). However, the simple use of digital media does not imply an educational innovation or an improvement in the quality of education, if they are not used with teaching that meet students' learning needs, and the use of digital media in educational institutions does not constitute improvement, advancement, or innovation if the teaching practice remains conservative.

## 2.3 Internet celebrity and digital media for language learning

Neither internet celebrity nor digital media on its own can accelerate or consolidate language learning outcome, as it is learning theory and pedagogy that count. Lai and Tai (2021) acknowledge that social media hold great potential for language learning, but the interaction learning theory behind the teaching design works, since language learning is closely intertwined with socialization. In their study with 565 students in Hong Kong, the structural equation modelling analysis revealed that both passive consumption of social media contents and active contribution of social media contents contributed positively to language learning motivation via cultural identification.

With 127 undergraduate students learning in person, hybrid, and distance mode, and Content Analysis research method, Ferreira's (2021) research illustrated that when the teacher made use of the digital technologies in pedagogical practice, language learning had the best results. In Wang, Grant, and Grist's (2020) study, students welcomed the experiential learning opportunity to explore Chinese culture and language outside the classroom with an immersive 3D virtual environment, and the anecdotal evidence suggested that in this environment students became more aware of the complicated pragmatic issues in real life communication. Similarly, Duraisingh, Blair and Aguiar (2021) conducted a research on students in four different countries participating in a digital exchange programme learning about cultures. The abductive analysis result suggested that social media-type and learning formats offered particular opportunities for students to: 1) engage with different cultures and feel a sense of

connection to people with different cultural affiliations to their own; 2) expand their view of culture as a complex, multifaceted, fluid phenomenon; 3) consider or reconsider their existing understandings of culture(s) in ways that may involve upending stereotypes; and 4) situate their own lives, identities, and values relative to those of other students and reflect on how they themselves have been influenced by cultural forces.

On a larger scale with 1635 international students from ten different countries and across ten universities, Demuyakor and Sackey (2021) investigated how social media use impacted intercultural communication among international students. By using frequencies, percentages, standard deviations, mean, and coefficient of variation for data analysis, the findings demonstrated that social media use had impacted positively in promoting intercultural communication among international students, and reinforced that encouraging social media use among international students helped sustaining intercultural communication processes among students from different background and cultures.

To be more specific with internet celebrities, in a survey with 232 university students, Tao and Sun (2020) found that the reasons that students were attracted to this culture were that most internet celebrities were post-90s, post-95s or even post-00s from the grassroots, and their speech, dress and daily life were closer to life. The survey results showed that 67.7% of university students believe that internet celebrities were a form of entertainment and recreation that could relieve stress in life; 8.2% believe that they can achieve a kind of emotional release. At the same time, 31.9% students thought it satisfied their curiosity, and 4.3% students thought it could satisfy their desire for domination and reflect their sense of existence at the same time. They liked to get involved by making comments, clicking 'like', forward to friends, to follow, and post status. 82.8% students believed that they were affected by the content disseminated by internet celebrities, including technology (32.8%), and professional knowledge (11.6%).

The literature above has provided the rationale of interaction and immersion learning theories that guide language education, and their use of internet celebrity resources and social media platforms.

### **3. The study**

Based on the literature discussed, this study aims to apply the interaction and immersion learning theories into language learning with two research questions: 1) what are UK students' attitudes toward 网红? and 2) what impact can 网红 have on their language learning ?

The study was conducted in the autumn semester in the academic year of 2021-22. The teaching mode was hybrid. Ten episodes of internet celebrity mini-videos and short talks were selected. The

criteria for the selections are: 1) the number of viewers, e.g., 1.102 k for Michael McIntyre; 2) the interesting and funny content, e.g., sb. who looks Chinese but does not speak Chinese and the embarrassment encountered; 3) language points, e.g., pun, rhyme, or alliteration. These mini videos provide students with language points to learn, cultural differences to observe, and ideas worthy of further exploration.

### **3.1 Participants**

Two groups of students participated in the study: one group was third-year students (n=22, F=13, M=9) who were supposed to be studying abroad in China but because of the pandemic, they were learning online in the UK instead; the other group was final-year students (n=32, F=21, M=11) who were in the UK in their first and second year. During their third-year study, some had a chance to learn one semester in China, some for a few weeks, but most of them were learning online in the UK. The participants were recruited on the voluntary bases.

### **3.2 Implementation**

The web address of the internet celebrity mini-videos and short talks were made available to the students before class. Key words and meanings in the context were given to save students' time from checking up in the dictionary and discussion topics/themes were also given beforehand so that students could come to class with prepared mind. Two typical examples of the internet celebrity mini-videos and short talks were chosen to be discussed in class: one was 张彩铃 (Cailing Zhang), a Chinese celebrity doing PhD in London, the other is British celebrity 司徒建国 (Jianguo Situ), working in China. Students discussed the episodes from a variety of angles: pun, background, setting, dress, tone, structure, implied meanings etc. After the heated discussion, students would do the other eight episodes by themselves.

### **3.3 Data collection and analysis**

Two in-depth focus group interviews were conducted at the end of the semester: one with four final-year students in the open-air on campus, and the other with two third-year students online. Recording was not made because the sound effect was not good in the open air, and the format of the two interviews needed to be consistent, but the notes were checked with the participants and agreement was reached. Key word search and theme thread methods were used for data analysis. The interviews

brought to light their perceptions of this learning approach, and their responses provided insights into learners' attitudes toward this new resource and its impact on their language learning.

## **4. Findings**

Interesting themes and patterns emerged from the in-depth semi-structured interviews and themed data analysis.

### **4.1 Playing with words and recognizing word connotations in the context**

“It is fascinating to know the meaning behind the words” as S1 commented, “for example, I know 上货 means to get goods to sell, but when used in the context by 李雪琴 (Xueqin Li), it means to copy from other famous people, what a sarcastic way to criticise plagiarism” she added. Vocabulary is a core feature of language proficiency, and to know the meaning behind the words is one step further to enhance the language proficiency. This skill helps students to think and to digest rather than to memorize only. Though the skill is not easy to gain, it is comparatively easier for students to acquire from the interesting context.

“At first, when my Chinese flatmates burst into laughter with the internet celebrity jokes, I could not follow, as I did not get the funny points, and I became worried and annoyed of myself. Then I watched the video clips again and again, when I am having my meal, having my afternoon tea and biscuits or before I go to bed. Each time I know more words, understand the meaning a bit more and eventually when I can use the right words to denote the meaning, my flatmates cheered and felt proud of me, and you know what, this is a huge encouragement” . Applying newly learnt words to everyday conversation is the key to the student's success and the encouragement from the surrounding people plays an important role.

At the end of the semester, the students' high level of language proficiency gives evidence on the beneficial impact of exposure to the language and such exposure on enhancing the students' language skills. Their vocabulary was greatly enlarged, especially the colloquial and idiomatic use of the words.

### **4.2 Cultural knowledge**

Language is an indispensable carrier of culture and culture finds a representation through language use (Hu, 2011). Students need to accumulate the knowledge of culture as well as the knowledge of the



language. When learning a foreign language, it is inevitable to come across its cultural knowledge, and furthermore, to have target cultural knowledge helps students to be aware of their own values. For example,

“I was thinking to buy my mom white roses for Christmas, as she loves flowers and white is unique and distinctive. After I watched 张彩铃’s video and got to know the implied meanings of white flowers, I decided to buy red ones instead” (S3). “I will be careful in giving flowers to friends in China, otherwise it might turn out to be a joke” (S2). Another student (S6) happily added “I am experiencing a different culture as an insider, as I can use their language, which enriches my ability to appreciate varied cultural experiences” .

The most successful language learners learn culture and language together, such that teaching language and teaching culture cannot be separated. To learn another language fosters greater awareness of cultural diversity because students with foreign language skills appreciate others’ values and ways of life more readily.

### 4.3 Intercultural communication competence

Cultural differences may cause misunderstandings, since the same words, expressions, non-verbal behaviour may not mean the same to people of different cultures. As S4 observed that “In that episode, a Canadian young man (tall, huge and strong) asked an old Chinese man if he could play table-tennis and the answer was ‘not great but could play’. The old man easily beat him without even moving his feet at all. The Canadian young man thought of another sport activity that he was good at and asked a middle-aged Chinese man if he could swim, and the answer was ‘not great but could play’. The Canadian kept a long and deep breath under the water, and when he raised his head above water, he saw the Chinese man was miles ahead of him. So perhaps ‘not great but could play’ is an indication of Chinese modesty. S1 agreed and added, “Compared with Chinese modesty, perhaps I am showing off too much. I quite often boost myself to draw other people’s attention” . “I have also noticed a couple of times that Chinese students say in a very low tone, but what they said is precise and accurate. Comparatively, my showing off is a bit superficial” (S3). Being aware of the cultural differences helps students to have a deeper understanding of what people of other cultures say, and the implications. Knowing the meaning from both sides facilitates intercultural communication.

Another aspect that drew students’ attention was the Chinese ethics of filial piety. Take an episode from Li Ziqi for example, country life with traditional cuisine, craft, or taking water from well was attractive to western students. As S4 observed “at the dining table, the senior lady sat down and had the first bite, then the other family members followed. I can tell the cultural values behind, such as

filial piety, harmonious society, living with nature by having seasonal diet. The value of civilization, the value of romance and the value of diet to physical and psychological health and wellbeing are all embedded. Another student added “My grandma lives on her own, watching tele every day. After watching this video, I make more phone calls to talk with her, and make more visits to her, as I do appreciate this ethic value. I think this common ground makes it easier for me to talk with Chinese international students, and as I watch more video clips, I can have more topics to share with the Chinese native speakers” (S3). The anecdotes in the mini videos exert an impact on students’ attitudes and actions. With accumulated knowledge of another culture, students’ confidence is built up little by little, which helps enhancing their intercultural competence.

#### **4.4 Model role and inspiration**

司徒建国 is an English man from Oxford University, and he has been working in China for 15 years. His pure pronunciation of Chinese, his choices of Chinese words and the idiomatic use of Chinese phrases set up a role model for the current students in Chinese Studies. As S5 students commented, “What strikes me in 司徒建国 ’s video is his Chinese, the accurate pronunciation, pleasant tones, and perfect pace. I wish my Chinese can be like that” . S6 added “Michael’s episode is exactly what I experienced. My mom is from the south of China and my dad is British. I was born and brought up in Italy. Wherever I go in China, local people talk to me in Chinese, which I do not fully understand. It is as embarrassing as Michael in his video. I wish my Chinese can be good enough for daily communication” . The stories in the mini videos mirror students’ own life and they feel they are part of the video. Students’ strong motivation to learn Chinese well is encouraged by the role model of internet celebrities. The internet celebrities’ noble moral characters and positive images added students’ strong sense of identity and resonance.

Based on what they have learnt from the internet celebrities, students set a higher target for themselves, as one of the final-year students expressed that he wanted to be an internet celebrity himself. As he was in China for one semester and experienced various delicious cuisines and felt that it was a shame not to have it in the UK. He did a survey tour himself and found that none of the Chinese restaurants or take-away shops around students’ halls provided the same taste as that he had in China and therefore, he made the cuisine himself and put it on the internet and had more than a thousand followers within two months. He proudly claimed that “although I am not a celebrity yet, I will be a big celebrity one day, as I am on the way to introduce Chinese food for the population of international students so that more people will be aware of Chinese food culture, which is vast and abundant” .

The negative side was also pointed out by one of the students “it takes time to surf and find an

internet celebrity resource that suits my language level, and it takes more time to understand the meaning behind the words and the laughing points” .

Overall, the students’ comments from the interviews illustrate that internet celebrity resources have gone beyond a tool for learning but have turned out to be a learning experience. As it not only reinforces students’ language skills, but also provides students with opportunities to use and practice language in a meaningful context such as talking with flatmates and customers.

## 5. Discussion

Digital technology has advanced, and social media have instituted new forms of interpersonal and intercultural communication. This environment has made it possible for internet celebrities to shine on the media platform with their everyday lives. Students are digital natives and so are the internet celebrities and both speakers and followers are familiar with the tools in digital media, which Turner (2013) terms the ‘demotic turn’. It has more power to normalize social practices and identities as being more common and accessible. Internet celebrities win over students by their personal charm, funny words, exaggerated performances, lively displays, vivid images, and cordial communication.

Therefore, in the digital age, different modes of language learning are required, new ways of designing classes are needed and the theoretical studies incorporating critical perspectives of the new resources for language learning can move the field forward. This view is in line with Dubreil (2020) who claims that the learning design with digital resources needs to be combined with language learning pedagogy to enable students to think critically and contribute meaningful solutions to the challenges. Continued research that investigates how internet celebrity resource elements in digital environment could possibly facilitate language learning (Xu et al., 2020).

Furthermore, the role that internet celebrity resources play helps the formation of the twenty-first-century skills including learning skills, literacy skills and life skills, via informal learning outside the classroom, and using digital technology. The study provides evidence to show that students regard using internet celebrity resources as an extramural learning experience and playing with these resources both in-class and out-of-class helps solidifying the 21st century skills. It is through how the internet celebrities talk in a variety of contexts that the meaningful disciplinary understanding of knowledge construction and its transferability potential cohabit.

To answer the research questions 1) what are students’ attitudes toward 网红? the answer is positive. Students enjoyed the learning experience of using internet celebrity resources. To answer research question 2) what impact can 网红 have on students’ language learning? The answer is that students

learnt how to decode the implications of the words, acquired target cultural knowledge, developed intercultural communication competence, and used the internet celebrities as models for inspiration.

The limitations of the study are that there is no end-of-term exam as these two courses are year-long modules and therefore it is impossible to make a comparative study between those who use the resources and those who do not. Another limitation is that this has applied only to high-level students in this study, but it will be interesting to see what effects it can produce for students across all levels.

## **6. Conclusion**

This paper has presented an updated view of internet celebrity resources and their impact on students' language learning. The study suggests that in addition to formal classroom lecturing, internet celebrity short clips, anecdotes, and stories can be embedded as out-of-class activities in teaching the language, encouraging students to think, to challenge, and to integrate language and culture, and thus language learning can move from memorising thought pattern to all-angle, all-aspects, and more diverse perspective with multi-path learning routes. The study has also revealed that the internet celebrity resources can be conducive to enhance intercultural communication competence, as the resources cover an extensive range of topics which offers insights of innovative, diverse, and adaptable approach to language learning. The study has presented an illuminating account of the current state of high tech by reviewing most of the available knowledge and practice about the internet celebrity resources and the application to language learning. It synthesizes a plethora of the most recent theoretical and empirical research together with students' accounts to address digital technology with pedagogical practice, and thus provides pragmatic and valid solutions to these cruxes for practitioners to carry out this multi-optional approach in their own contexts. The study enriches readers' perception of the new resource and opens new avenues for language education and can be a powerful invitation to break boundaries between digital technology and language learning. It would be beneficial to see perspectives from bigger user groups learning different languages, or more challenges they might face. It will also be interesting to see how learners use different kinds of internet celebrity resources at different stages in their language learning process, and what components have greater impact on their learning. Overall, this study serves as a roadmap that takes readers through the innovative approaches to raise the awareness of new resources. This study moves the agenda of internet celebrity resources for language learning forward.

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# Strategies and New Methods in Compiling Localized Chinese Grammar Books

## 论本土化汉语语法教材的编写原则和创新方法

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**摘要:** 以面向瑞典学习者的《汉语语法》为例，本文对本土化汉语语法教材的编写原则和创新机制进行探索分析。本土化语法教材应该考虑学习者母语特点，重视对比分析，突出差异点和习得难点。此外应该注重实用性，利用正迁移，减少负迁移。还应吸收语法研究新成果，并注重文化融合性。数据驱动是新一代语法教材的重要创新机制。

**关键词:** 汉语语法教材，本土化，语言对比，数据驱动

### 1. 引言

随着汉语国际教育的深入发展，海外汉语教材的本土化已经成为广为接受的共识。然而从媒介语来看，除了使用英语等大语种以外，使用其他非通用语种编写的汉语教材为数甚少，尤其是用小语种撰写的语法教材还严重不足，这已经成为汉语国际教育走向区域化和精细化发展的限制瓶颈。

从 2011 年开始，笔者本人和瑞典著名汉学家罗多弼教授（Torbjörn Lodén）合作，编写一部面向瑞典学习者的《汉语语法》(Kinesisk grammatik, Appell Förlag, 2022)。在十年多的时间中，从框架设计到资料收集，从初稿撰写到翻译修改，数易其稿，终于即将付梓出版。在这部本土化汉语语法教材上，我们花费大量精力，也积累了一定思考和经验。本文即以该教材的编写实践为例，对本土化汉语语法教材的编写原则和创新机制进行探索分析。

## 2. 瑞典汉语教学和语法教材的发展背景

瑞典的汉学研究有三百多年的悠长历史，而汉语教学也有一百多年的发展历程。中国是瑞典在亚洲的最大贸易伙伴，在本世纪初两国在文化和科技等诸多领域交流都有长足发展，受这些因素的影响，汉语教学也呈现出良好发展势头，有近十家大学和四十多所中小学学校开设汉语课程，中小学每学年取得汉语课程成绩的人数达到上千名。由于政治原因，两国关系近年来比较紧张。这对汉语教学和文化交流也产生一定冲击，境内的四所孔子学院和两家孔子课堂都相继终止合作协议。但是瑞典民间学习汉语和了解中国的愿望还是相当强烈，其中一个表现是大学和中学的汉语学习者数量并没有减少，在少数学校有时还呈现出上升的趋势，如乌普萨拉大学 2022 年春季汉语半日制初级班的授课方式改为线上进行，报名人数达 133 人。因此对于本土化的汉语教材尤其是语法教材的需求，一直是有增无减的。

在汉语语法教材方面，瑞典实际上已有两本：一本是瑞典已故著名汉学家，瑞典学院诺贝尔文学奖评委马悦然（Göran Malmqvist）教授撰写的 *Nykinesisk grammatik*, Stockholm: Stockholms universitet, 1973。另一本是乌普萨拉大学汉学教授 Joakim Enwall 编写的 *Kinesisk grammatik*（现代汉语语法概要），Stockholm: Stockholms universitet, 1995。两位作者都长期从事汉语一线教学，其编写内容能考虑到教学对象的语言文化特点及实际教学需求，突出汉语词法和句法特点等，并且语言简明，都是高质量的“本土化”教材。二者虽然均未正式出版，主要用于大学中文专业作为内部教材使用，在瑞典汉语教育上还是发挥过重要作用。

当然，尽管两位教材编写者的汉语造诣很高，但是毕竟汉语不是其母语，其编写教材中所用例句难免存在这样或者那样的偏误（为简略起见，上述二书在下文分别标为 M. 和 E.）：

(1) 10 090 yíwàn línglíng jǐ ǔ 一万零零九 (E.pp. 10)

(2) 由早上六点到晚上十一点他一直都很忙。Från sex på morgonen till klockan elva på kvällen är han hela tiden mycket upptagen. (E.pp. 94)

(3) 一班学生们。(M., pp. 16)

在语法现象的解释上，有时不够合理。比如认为“杯子”“瓶子”“句子”等带有“子”后缀的名词，其内部结构是“量词+子”（M. pp. 9）。对于方位词隐现规则的归纳，也不完全符合汉语事实，如认为“当处所短语用在动词前，表示为人所知的场所，则方位词可以略去”（När lokativfrasen syftar på en bekant plats och är placerad före verbet kan lokativpartikeln också utelämnas. E., pp.100）其所举例句如下：



(4) 我在邮电局买邮票。Jag köper frimärken på posten. (E., pp.100)

(5) 你在飞机场接我吗? Möter du mig på flygplatsen? (E., pp.100)

其实上述二例中的“邮电局”和“飞机场”本身就能表示处所，通常是不加方位词的。

此外，由于编写时代比较久远的关系，有些内容显得陈旧，也需要调整和更新。如：

(6) 打学习班回来，小芳就当上了拖拉机手。När lille Fang kom tillbaka från kursen blev han traktorförare. (E., pp.88)

总之，上述语法教材已经很难满足一般汉语学习者，尤其是中小学低龄学生群体的学习需求，有时他们不得不退而求其次，选择一些面向英语母语学习者，以英语为媒介语的语法教材，而这样的教材对瑞典学生显然缺少针对性，教学效果有限。编写一本专门针对瑞典学习者并且具有时代性的本土化语法教材，已经成为当务之急。

### 3. 《汉语语法》的编写方式

本土化汉语教材的编写要充分考虑学习者的习得特点，对其母语与目标语的语言文化进行对比分析，这些都相当耗时耗力，离不开中外双方的长期紧密合作。诚如赵金铭（1998）所言，“要想在针对性上有所突破，应该走‘中外合编’的方式。”单纯由外方教师编写的本土教材有时候难免出现汉语不够规范，对目标语的语言点及文化点的解释不够准确的现象。而单纯由中方设计的统编教材，则往往水土不服。

本教材的两位编者有过十余年的教学合作经历。作为瑞方合作者，罗多弼教授是当代著名汉学家，瑞典斯德哥尔摩大学荣休教授，从事中国汉语文化教学与研究近半个世纪时间。作为中方合作者，笔者本人专业为汉语言文字学，进行汉语研究和教学三十年，其中包括在瑞典一线教学和研究十余年，熟练掌握瑞典语，对瑞典社会和文化有一定了解。两位编者均热衷于推动瑞典汉语教育的健康发展，在知识结构和教学经验上也具有比较理想的互补性。邓氏香（2004：24）指出，“中外合作是提高对外汉语教材针对性的必由之路。而且‘合作’应该是语言对比及文化对比的全面合作”。在具体操作上，先由本人用汉语写就初稿，罗教授审读并提出修改意见，尤其是对汉语与瑞典语比较的内容进行把关，有些问题经过深入讨论达成共同结论。接着是将全书翻译成瑞典文，双方再度共同审读修改，反复切磋，历经数年成稿。

为保证质量，本书成稿后还请数位同行专家审核，提出修改意见，其中包括挪威著名汉学教授 Halvor Eifring 和 Øystein Krogh Visted, 瑞典语教授 Elisabet Engdahl, 普通语言学教授 Östen Dahl。这些专家不仅指出遗漏，错误，还从不同角度提出大量改善意见，如减少专业术语的使

用，用简明图表代替复杂的表述等。鉴于汉语和瑞典语在数量表达上的差异比较复杂，我们还专请瑞典数学教授 Christer Oscar Kiselman 对“数词”一章进行审读。而 Östen Dahl 教授则在语言共性和差异性的表述，在术语和语法书规范方面提出许多重要建议，都尤其珍贵。

#### 4. 《汉语语法》的编写原则

该教材以学习者的母语瑞典语为媒介语，全面描写汉语语法的基本词类，句法结构和句子类型。主要遵循以下几个原则：

##### 4.1 对比性

一般来说，教材编写的首要依据是针对性。李泉（2004:50）就此指出“针对性是教材编写不可逾越的一项原则”。从语法教材来看，其针对性主要表现在是否能够充分考虑学习者母语的语言特点，将其跟目标语进行深入细致的对比分析。诚如邢志群（2011:7）所言，对比分析法“可能是对外汉语教学中，乃至所有的第二外语教学中，最基本的、可以为教学提供教学内容的方法”。正是秉着这一理念，本教材从汉瑞两种语言的经典语法资料着手，对二者的词类和句法结构和句子类型进行全面梳理和对比，找出其主要差异和习得难点。

对于瑞典学习者来说，其母语瑞典语中的许多语法范畴是通过形态变化来表达的，而汉语缺乏形态变化，这些范畴在汉语中又是如何表现出来的，是其首要的学习难点。比如瑞典语名词在形式上分单数和复数，定指和非定指。以汉语的“书”为例，就有四种形式，bok（单数），böcker（复数），boken（定指单数），böckerna（定指复数），而这些形式会影响到对汉语句子结构的正确选择。由于瑞典语的名词具有定指形式，其在句中的位置比较自由，例如“Boken står på bordet” = “På bordet står boken”。其中 boken（那本书）既可以出现在动词前，也可以出现在动词后，而句子意思不变。受此影响，学习者经常会造出不规范句子“# 桌上在那本书”，而不知道正确的表达是“那本书在桌上”，因为汉语的定指名词成分倾向于出现在主语而不是宾语的位置上。

瑞典语动词有丰富的时态形式。汉语动词没有时态变化，但是有体标记。虽然时态和体之间关联紧密，但二者之间不是简单的对应关系。学习者如果直接地在二者之间划上等号，就容易出现下面这类错误：

(7) När jag gick till parken igår såg jag Pär. (gick 是“去” går 的过去式)

# 昨天我去(了)公园时，看见 Pär。

同样地，由于瑞典语形容词有比较级和最高级形式，而汉语形容词在词形上没有这些变化，但是在单独做谓语时经常含有比较之意。理解到这一差异，就能避免出现“# 中国比瑞典更 / 比较大”这样的错误，而是正确地生成出下面的句子：

(8) Kina är större än Sverige. 中国比瑞典大。

汉语时点成分一般处于动词前，时段有时位于句首，有时位于动词后，而在瑞典语中无论时点还是时段都一律处于动词后面，同时会使用不同的介词来进行区分。瑞典汉语初学者不清楚这种差异，容易犯两类错误：或者习惯于将所有时点时段成分都放在动词后，如(9)——(12)，或者是错误地颠倒语序，如例(13)和(14)。

(9) 上午游客很多。 # 游客很多在上午。

Det kom många turister på förmiddagen.

(10) 我们后天见。 # 我们见后天。

Vi ses i övermorgon.

(11) Mats 要在上海学习一年。 # Mats 要在上海一年学习。

Mats kommer att studera i ett år i Shanghai.

(12) 他三天没来学校。 # 他没来学校三天。

Han har inte kommit till skolan på tre dagar.

(13) 我等了一个小时。 # 我一个小时等了。

Jag har väntat i en timme.

(14) 小李两个月学会了开车。 # 小李学会了开车两个月。

Xiao Li lärde sig köra bil på två månader.

此外，汉语的“框式介词”中方位词的隐显，宾语的语义多样性，补语结构的复杂语义关系和句法形式，汉语中特有的量词强制使用及其与数词的配合，离合动词，包括把字句在内的各种特殊句式，大量表义微妙、功能丰富的语气词，要么在瑞典语中缺少对应的语法范畴，要么在用法上与瑞典语有很大的差别，对学习者来说都是困难之处。在《汉语语法》中，这些自然就都成为说明和解释的重点内容。

## 4.2 实用性

在当代汉语语法教材中，“突出实用”已是共识。杨德峰(2012: 70)曾概括指出“这些教材一般不重视语法理论，而重视语法知识；不重视语法分析，而重视语法描写；不拘泥于语法

的系统性，而是根据学习者的实际需要来选择、安排语法点。”在实用性方面《汉语语法》也努力借鉴前人经验，主要注重语法描写和语法规律的揭示，而不追求理论系统性。此外，努力做到表达准确，浅显易懂。尽量缩减语法专业术语的使用，在例句的选取上力求贴近生活需要。总体来看主要做了如下几方面的工作：

一是突出瑞典语语法和汉语语法的区别，积极减少负迁移。本土化的语法教材，要在内容项目上要突出重点。周小兵、陈楠（2013：273）就曾指出“语法编写本土化，指基于学习者母语语法特点和学习难点选择和注释语法点等”。如汉语反身代词“自己”与瑞典语的 reflexiv form 具有一定的相关性，但不能简单对应。在瑞典语中有不少及物动词兼有“动作指向动作者自身”和“动作指向他者”的双重意义。在表示前一个意义时，要带上 sig, mig, dig, oss, er 等反身代词。而在汉语中，与这些动词对应的却是不及物动词，即这些动词本身只表示“动作指向动作者自身”这一意义。因此在翻译成汉语时，通常的做法应该是将“自己”略去不说，而不能将这些反身代词简单地直接译成“自己”。如：

(15) Jag lägger mig på golvet.

我睡在地板上。 # 我睡自己在地板上。

如果让这些动词表示“动作指向他者”的意义，则需要使用介宾短语来引进他者，或者改用为其他的动词：

(16) Jag lägger boken på golvet.

我把书放在地板上。

(17) Oskar gömmer sig. / Oskar gömde nyckeln.

Oskar 躲起来了。/Oskar 藏了钥匙。

在明确指出两种语言的上述表达差异时，我们还给出学习者自己经常“创造”的典型病句。适当结合学习者的偏误例句来凸显两种语言的结构差异，有利于学习者提高自我监控能力。需要说明的是，这些语料均出自编者自建的小型中介语语料库。语料库的语料来源是瑞典哥德堡和乌普萨拉两所大学的中文专业一二年级学生的短文作业，时间跨度为2015-2021。由笔者本人常年收集，并定期整理，该语料库还在不断更新中。

二是指出瑞典语语法和汉语语法的相同点，努力促进正迁移。有些语法形式，从学习者熟知的母语中类似的语法范畴入手进行解释。例如，在说明汉语结构助词“地”的语法功能时，我们将其与瑞典语中形容词用作副词时需添加词尾“t”进行对照，指出二者具有相似性，这样处理易于被学习者理解接受。

(18) 他慢慢地打开了包裹。

Han öppnade långsamt paketet.

(19) 她高兴地回家了。

Glatt återvände hon hem.

(20) 学生们非常认真地填写了表格。

Studenterna fyllde noggrant i blanketterna.

当然也要指出同中之异，比如瑞典语形容词作状语时加“t”词尾是强制性的，不受形容词本身音节多少的制约。汉语则不同，单音节形容词作状语时通常是不加“地”的。

(21) 慢走!

Gå långsamt.

三是对形式相似或者功能相近的语法形式进行对比分析，避免混淆。如“去 VP”与“VP 去”、“去 VP 去”三个相似构式之间的联系和区别。又如“为什么”和“怎么”具有相近功能，即用来询问原因，但是区别在于后者在表达疑问之外，还包含“非预期”之义。

(22) 咖啡为什么苦?

(23) 她刚才很高兴，怎么突然哭了?

语法学习是一个“内化”过程，需要通过大量多样的练习来实现。只有通过反复操练，才能理解、消化和巩固所学的语法知识，并最终达到自动准确地输出。本教材练习的主要类型有两种，一是瑞典语和汉语互译，有单句层面的，也有简短的篇章片段，后者的训练目的是让学习者对汉语语篇衔接方式和手段有一定的了解。二是错误辨析，即要求学习者对病句进行正误判断，并对错误进行改正。需要说明的是，所用病句都取自我们自建的中介语语料库，是瑞典学习者的真实语料。

#### 4.3 前沿性

在《汉语语法》中，我们积极吸收语法研究的新成果。对于一些语法问题，语法学界有过不同研究成果。我们经过比较，努力采用近期更为合理的说明。如副词“又”有时表示“前提否定”，“再”有时表示“推迟实现”。

(24) 他又不是医生，怎么可以给人开药呢?

(25) 现在太晚了, 我们今天不去了, 明天再去吧。

二是有意识地介绍学界新发现的一些特殊语法现象。如谓语句由不及物动词充当的“新兴被动句”以及欧化句式“是时候 VP 了”:

(26) 多人被处分, 一人被下岗。

(27) 在这一报告中, 居民的收入被增长了。

(28) 是时候表演真正的技术了!

上述内容的增加, 都是“有意识地把语法学界或编写者发现的一些新的语法现象或得出的一些新结论吸收到教材中去”, (杨德峰 2012: 71) 目的是使得该书具有一定的时代性, 以满足学习者不断增长的学习需求。

#### 4.4 文化融合性

语言和文化紧密相关, 在汉语教材尤其是本土化教材中应该适当加入学习者所熟悉的本土文化, 这也是学界共识。语法教材也要注意文化, 应该注重选择富有本土特色的词汇, 让相对枯燥的语法知识变得易于接受。“语言输入的最佳项目是学习者身边的事物和思想。因为这些地方的知识和概念最具有可理解性、重复率和突显性, 同时也最能引起学生的兴趣、共鸣和参与热情。”(邹为诚 2000: 8)。正因如此, 《汉语语法》在内容上也适当地结合瑞典文化以及学习者的学习环境和学生生活, 增加学习者母语文化比重, 进行中瑞文化对比, 努力促进学习者跨文化交际能力的养成。具体做法有:

一是选择不少富有瑞典和北欧区域本土特色的词汇。

国家名: 瑞典, 挪威, 芬兰, 冰岛, 意大利, 西班牙 ……

地名: 斯德哥尔摩, 乌普萨拉, 哥德堡, 马尔默, 老城, 王宫, 王后大街 ……

品牌名: 宜家, H&M, 沃尔沃 ……

人名: Mats, Pär, Lena ……

传统节日: 圣诞节, 仲夏节, 复活节, 运动周, 秋假 ……

食品: 瑞典肉丸子, 臭鲱鱼, 三文鱼, 采蘑菇, 草莓, 蓝莓 ……

生活习俗: Fika 咖啡文化, 爱好运动, 喜爱自然, 酷爱夏天 ……

社会文化人物: 诺贝尔, 林格伦, 皮皮, Findus, Petterson ……

二是加入一些体现时代发展的词汇。如: 网络, 手机, 电脑, 打游戏, 同性恋, 性少数群体, 气候变化, 绿色能源, 可持续发展, 极端天气, ……

三是例句内容贴近本地的社会价值观念, 体现出对学习者母语国文化习俗和国情特点的尊

重。在初稿中曾出现个别用例，含有一些暴力和对女性外貌评价的内容。后来经过编者讨论，考虑到瑞典文化特点是不喜冲突，女性社会地位高尤其是“Me too”运动后对女性更为尊重，因此都做出了改动：

(29) 他敢打人吗？改为：他敢蹦极吗？

(30) 她既年轻又漂亮，大家都喜欢她。改为：她既聪明又能干，大家都喜欢她。

四是进行适当的文化比较。

语法教材的一些语法项目或者例句词语，有时会涉及到目标语和学习者母语存在差异的内容。比如在姓名文化上，瑞典社会习惯于直呼其名，汉语则重视使用合适的社会称呼。汉语中计算公寓房间数时，一般不包括客厅，而瑞典语中则算作一个房间。在楼层序号上，由于瑞典语中有零楼（楼房通向地面的出口层），汉语中没有，因此汉语的“二楼”实际上对应于瑞典语中的“一楼”。诸如此类的内容为数不少，我们都予以简要说明。

## 5. 本土化语法教材的创新机制

科学性始终是汉语教材创新的根本目标。在撰写过程中，我们深切地体会到数据驱动是语法教材科学性的重要促成机制。于海阔、李如龙（2012：96）指出“为了从根本上解决教材在地化问题，很有必要提倡制作一个万能的大型汉语语料库，… 就像一个‘大超市’，让师生从中选取合用的成品直接组装教材”。当然这是教材编写的一个理想状态，还需要长期投入。在这样一个万能语料库成为现实之前，还有不少现成语料库资源可以利用，此外有些小规模的专业语料库也有可能建成，为本土化教材编写提供技术支撑。

合理利用大型平衡语料库，能为语法教材提供更为准确的语法例句和使用语境。一个成功例证是 *A Reference Grammar of Chinese* (Huang, Ch., & Shi, D., 2016)，该书基于数据驱动，所有例句来自语料库，真实可信，丰富多样。在编写过程中，我们也部分使用了北大和北语的有关语料库，寻找合适例句。然而限于时间和精力，未能完全彻底地进行。当然有些问题还需要讨论，比如自然语料库的语料能否直接用于本土化语法教材，是否需要以及怎样加工以便调整为合适的难度？

平行语料库尤其是可比性双语语料库 (Xiao, R., & McEnery, T. 2010) 将有助于更为全面系统地发现汉语与学习者母语的语法差异。此外，也可以为高级学习者提供深入性的自主语法练习。比如学习者可以自己利用语料库，检索出汉语“被”字句与瑞典语的哪些句式相对应，并且考察在与相关句式对应时的限制条件是什么等。在帮助自主学习，实现“翻转课堂”等方面，各种语料库可以发挥很好的作用，因为“可以为其提供类型丰富、数量充足的教学与练习材料”

(张宝林 2019: 19)。可惜的是, 目前包括瑞典语在内的很多小语种与汉语的平行语料库还不多见, 还需要学界同行共同努力。

如前所述, 本书的对比分析是利用了笔者自建的小型中介语语料库。不过该库规模有限, 覆盖面不够, 难以系统性地发现瑞典汉语学习者语法偏误全貌。我们正在计划建设一个瑞典语学习者动态口语中介语语料库, 该库的建立将有利于对语法偏误的形成因素尤其是篇章层次上的偏误进行深入分析。

我们相信, 上述重要数据库的开发和利用, 都将促进包括瑞典在内的本土化语法教材质量的极大提升。

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# An Investigation on the Ranking of Common Chinese Character Words in Chinese and Korean of National Textbooks Based on Vocabulary Syllabus Level and Acquisition Difficulty

## 基于词汇大纲等级和习得难度的国别型教材汉韩共有汉字词排序考察

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**摘要：**汉韩共有汉字词是对韩教学的重点和难点，其排序问题是国别型教材针对性的重要体现。本研究以《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版中共有汉字词为例，首先与《新汉语水平考试（HSK）词汇》大纲比对，然后以 HSK 动态作文词料库 ver2.0 作为参照分析资料，对该语料库收录的 1993 年至 2005 年期间韩国籍学生 59195 条作文错误句子中的不同类型共有汉字词偏误进行统计，并采用单因素方差分析方法，发现不同类型的共有汉字词之间存在习得难度差异。从共有同义汉字词的角度发现其形式上存在习得问题；对韩国别型教材根据词汇大纲等级排序以及调整不同类型共有汉字词的序次，与学习者习得难度关联薄弱。基于对《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版“共有汉字词”的排序考察，本文提出相应建议。

**关键词：**国别型教材；HSK 语料库；汉韩共有汉字词；排序；

### 1. 引言

专门为相同国别编写的，能够更好地照顾到有关国家语言、文化等方面特点的国别型教材（李泉、宫雪，2015），能够弥补通用型教材针对性不足的问题。

汉语教学要考虑学习者的背景，考虑他们是汉字圈的还是非汉字圈的学习者（李泉，2004：51）。汉字对韩国本民族语言、文字的发展产生了极为深刻的影响，最突出的表现就是给韩语里面增添了大量的汉字词（杨等，2001）。同属汉字文化圈的韩国学习者，对汉字并不陌生（甘瑞媛，2002），研究者起初认为韩国学生在汉语词汇的理解与运用方面比欧美学生强（徐建宏，1999）。但随着研究的深入，学者们逐渐意识到这种观点过于乐观，冯学锋、吕菲（2008）

指出韩国学习者的汉语习得偏误与汉字词有关。对韩国别型汉语教材的“针对性”真实内涵需要体现在对学习者的母语和汉语特点的充分认知基础上,在教材设计过程中突显教学重点与难点,汉韩共有汉字词在国别型教材中的合理排序恰恰是对韩国别型教材针对性的表现。目前学界关于对韩教材的研究主要集中在装帧设计、话题设置、语法难度、词汇总量等方面,王宇、吴长安(2015)关于韩国教材编写的思考中建议教材应装帧精美简洁、补充材料丰富多样、具体内容划分明确;Mihyang, L(2017)的研究表明韩国教科书中的学习活动的主题符合一定的社会文化,可以引起学习者的积极参与;胡晓慧、金秀景(2009)通过对200名韩国学生发放调查问卷指出中国出版对韩教材话题存在设置过于繁杂、语法太难、词汇量过多的问题,影响了教材被当地选择、接受的程度。对汉韩共有汉字词排序考察的成果较少。

前人对于汉字词的习得研究主要探讨了汉字词的正负迁移和习得因素,如奇化龙(2000)对《汉语教程》词汇表进行考察,有1677个是同形同义词,占总量的95%。韩国留学生可以对同形同义词见字明义,不教自会,在学习汉语的时候,这些同形词将起到正迁移的作用。同样,孟柱亿(2005)认为韩汉所指相同的同形汉字词是积极的孪生词,留学生使用起来得心应手,自然产生正迁移。另外与早期语言学家提到学习者母语和目的语差异大的地方是难点不同,两语之间差异不大的地方往往误导性更大。赵杨(2011)对细化的同形同义汉字词、同形异义汉字、异形同义汉字词、近形同义汉字词对韩国留学生进行测试,考察其习得情况以及影响习得的因素,发现同形同义汉字词语最容易习得。

以上研究中的同形汉字词多从意义上进行考察,其书写形式也为简体字但韩国一直沿用繁体字(全香兰,2015),而中国已经对汉字进行了简化处理,1956年国务院颁布了《汉字简化方案》,1979年又有了《第二次汉字简化方案(草案)》(邵敬敏,2011)。因“同形词、同形汉字词”掩盖了汉韩汉字词在现实中的书写形式,用“共有汉字词汇”表称,可以更准确的涵盖其历时传承与共时存在状态(魏慧萍,2013:20)。在汉语教学时不但要排除学习者语言理解的障碍也要解决运用方面的问题(张英,2006),所以本研究选用“共有汉字词汇”,不但包含对意义同时也包括对形式的考察。在寻找汉韩汉字词之间的对应关系时,是从“大华语”(李宇明,2016:1)范围进行考察的,即“汉韩共有汉字词”概念中的“汉韩”对照,体现的是包括港澳台和海外华语在内的词汇对应。例如:“地下铁”、“麦酒”等。为行文简洁,以下将“汉韩共有汉字词”简称为“共有汉字词”。除此之外,对共有汉字词的习得情况考察多是以测试的方式搜集探讨,通过语料库材料对实际偏误进行穷尽式统计的比较少见。研究以《体验汉语生活篇》1韩语版中汉韩共有汉字词为例,参照HSK动态作文语料库ver2.02资料进行考察,以发现不同类型的共有汉字词习得难度如何?对韩国别型教材汉韩共有汉字词现有排序情况怎样?

## 2 教材共有汉字词排序问题考察

《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版是国内出版较为通行的专为初学汉语的韩国人编写的教材，共12个学习单元，生词总数为491，从中提取的共有汉字词118个。比对《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版与《新汉语水平考试（HSK）词汇》（2012）3大纲共有汉字词的收录情况，有93个与大纲词条完全重合，4个超纲词。此外，还有的词本身虽未在大纲中出现，但在意义保持一致的前提下，可由大纲中的词汇成分作为语素构成该词语，此类共计21个，归为“其他”类。例如：“手”未单独出现在大纲里，但“手表、手机”均出现在大纲中。共有汉字词汇等级如表1：

表1: 教材共有汉字词在《新汉语水平考试词汇大纲》的数量和等级情况

大纲等级	数量	共有汉字词
HSK1	41	在,是,我,有,能,人,不,好,多,一,他,大,小,点,太,回,本,三,四,十,工作,二,五,零,七,月,多少,冷,八,六,先生,九,下午,衣服,椅子,上午,朋友,小姐,商店,茶,号(日),
HSK2	23	要,到,再,高,近,比,件,可能,快,次,新,累,白,黑,生病,眼睛,洗,便宜,妻子,丈夫,休息,游泳,姓,
HSK3	13	放,分,西,接,短,位,刻,口,半,南,脚,附近,矮,
HSK4	9	行,毛,空,厚,旅行,收拾,葡萄,咳嗽,散步,
HSK5	6	薄,灰,蔬菜,病毒,套,玻璃,
HSK6	1	夫人,
超纲	4	麻婆豆腐,日本,日本人,德国人,
其他	21	打,北,左,病,手,肉,床,右,斤,度,病人,今年,十一,十九,二十,三十,零下,保安,冬天,中国人,十字路口,
共计	118	

汉字成为韩国官方正式书面语之后，又有了训民正音（杨等，2001），随着韩国语的发展，其中的汉字词也由汉源汉字词、朝鲜本民族自己产生的汉字词以及后来吸收了受西方文化影响明治维新时期日本汉字词组成。共有汉字词主要有以下几类（徐建宏，1999；甘瑞瑗，2002；孟柱亿，2005）：

第一，共有同义词。如：病人、旅行。

第二，共有词义有重叠并含各自不同部分的词。如：保安、黑。

第三，共有韩语义项多或范围大的词。如：冬天、妻子。

第四，共有韩语义项少或范围小的词。如：北、左。

第五, 共有异义词。如: 斤、便宜。

教材中的共有汉字词分类情况, 如表 2 统计所示:

表 2: 教材共有汉字词分类统计

NO	汉字词类型	数量
1	共有同义的词	33
2	有重叠义项又各自有不同的部分的词	27
3	韩语义项多或范围大的词	8
4	韩语义项少或范围小的词	43
5	共有异义的词	7

研究以 HSK 动态作文语料库 ver2.0 作为参照分析资料, 从该语料库收录的 1993 年至 2005 年期间韩国籍学生 59195 条作文错误句子中的不同类型共有汉字词实际偏误进行统计, 以发现不同类型的汉字词组间是否存在习得难度差异。表 3 为部分举例:

表 3: 不同类型共有汉字词实际偏误简表

	第一类共有同义词偏误 - 例句	汉字词	偏误类型
1	* 这表示用科学的各种手 [B 毛] 段来创造几十种的自然之声解决噪声问题, 这还表明提高人们的生活质量, 更提高人们生活得 {CC 的} 幸福 {CJjy}。	手	笔画
2	其二是 [C] 发生问题时 [F 时] 不要迴 [F 回] 避 [B 辟], 通过对话 [C] 寻 [C] 找共识。	回	繁体字
	第二类共有词义有重叠并含各自不同部分的词偏误 - 例句	汉字词	偏误类型
1	* 可是医生发现有些患者得了病 [B 疲] {CJX} 由于吸烟, 可是, 他们并不是吸烟的。	病	笔画
	第三类共有韩语义项多或范围大的词偏误 - 例句	汉字词	偏误类型
1	* 只要坐 [B 座] 飞机 {CD 得} 三至四 [B 西] 小时, 就到达汉城 [BQ.] 可以看见 {CC 遇见} 家人。	四	笔画
	第四类 HSK 动态语料库错误例句 (韩籍学生)	汉字词	偏误类型
1	* 当时, 我一直不理解父亲对我的态度 [B 渡], 跟 {CC 比} 我朋友 {CQ 的} 父亲不一样。	度	同音词
	第五类 HSK 动态语料库错误例句 (韩籍学生)	汉字词	偏误类型
1	* 其次每个人要有 {CC1 注意} {CD 对} “绿色食品”的意识, 去市场买东西不要因为价格便宜 {CC 宜便} {CQ 就} 买, 而 {CJ-zy 要} 仔细地看 [BD.] 是不是“绿色食品” [BQ.] 然后才买。[BC.]	便宜	倒序
2	* 我最近为了考上好大学, 不让您们失去对我所寄的希望, 每天都苦读书、复习功课, 虽然身体比较累 {CC 苦}, 有时因成绩不好而气馁, 但我始终没有忘记我的目标与责任, 所以对这一点您们也不用担心。	累	词义

\* 数据表详见附录 4

共有汉字词不同类型偏误率统计情况如下，

表 4: 共有汉字词相对偏误比例简表

编号	词汇	总次数	错误数	比例	开根值	编号	词汇	总次数	错误数	比例	开根值
1	手	800	31	3.88%	19.68%	3	冬天	21	0	0.00%	0.00%
1	病人	191	9	4.71%	21.70%	3	姓	139	45	32.37%	56.90%
1	今年	179	3	1.68%	12.94%	3	五	306	7	2.29%	15.12%
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2	八	125	2	1.60%	12.64%	5	床	75	1	1.33%	11.55%

\* 数据结果表详见注释 4

以表 4 的内容为例：编号 1（共有同义词）中，出现的汉字词“手”，在 59195 条语句中，“手”这个汉字词出现的总次为 800，其中学生写错的次数为 31 次。因此，可以算出 31 次占 800 次的比例为 3.88%，其它词语类推可得。

表 5: 描述性统计

编号	汉字词类型	个案数	平均值	标准偏差	标准错误
1	共有同义词	33	0.071	0.090	0.016
2	有重叠义项又各自有不同部分的词	27	0.156	0.108	0.021
3	韩语义项多或范围大的词	8	0.163	0.189	0.067
4	韩语义项少或范围小的词	43	0.129	0.091	0.014
5	共有异义词	7	0.036	0.062	0.023
	总计	118	0.116	0.108	0.010

表 5 中对数据进行统计分析，察看各项不同类型的汉字词错误比例均值是否存在差异。首先，先看描述性数据统计，表中显示共有同义词种数 33 个，数值处理后的均值为 0.071，标准差为 0.090；共有词义有重叠又各自有不同的部分词共 27 个，均值为 0.156，标准差 0.108；共有韩语义多的词有 8 个，均值为 0.163，标准差为 0.189；共有韩语义少的词有 43 个，均值为 0.129，标准差为 0.091；共有异义词共 7 个，均值为 0.036，标准差为 0.062。

表 6: 方差齐性检验

Levene Statistic		df 1	df 2	Sig.	
汉字词 HSK 错误率	基于平均值	1.483	4	113	0.212
	基于中位数	1.269	4	113	0.286
	基于中位数并具有调整后自由度	1.269	4	88.235	0.288
	基于剪除后平均值	1.548	4	113	0.193

由表 6 可知, 基于平均值的  $\text{Sig}=0.212 > 0.05$ , 说明数据满足方差齐性, 可以进行下一步的单因素方差分析。

表 7: 组间差异检验表 (ANOVA 单因素方差分析)

	平方和	自由度	均方	F	Sig.
组间	0.179	4	0.045	4.250	0.003
组内	1.189	113	0.011		
总计	1.368	117			

观察表 7, 组间的  $\text{sig} = 0.003 < 0.05$ , 说明数据组间至少一组存在差异。

通过 SPSS 提供的 Post Hoc Tests 检验, 我们可以得到表 8:

表 8: Multiple Comparisons(多重比较)LSD, 因变量: 汉字词错误率

(I)	(J)	平均值差值 (I-J)	标准误差	Sig.
1	2	-.0847118*	0.027	0.002
	3	-.0920720*	0.040	0.025
	4	-.0574621*	0.024	0.017
	5	0.035	0.043	0.411
2	1	.0847118*	0.027	0.002
	3	-0.007	0.041	0.859
	4	0.027	0.025	0.282
	5	.1199291*	0.044	0.007
3	1	.0920720*	0.040	0.025
	2	0.007	0.041	0.859
	4	0.035	0.039	0.383
	5	.1272893*	0.053	0.018

4	1	.0574621*	0.024	0.017
	2	-0.027	0.025	0.282
	3	-0.035	0.039	0.383
	5	.0926794*	0.042	0.029
5	1	-0.035	0.043	0.411
	2	-.1199291*	0.044	0.007
	3	-.1272893*	0.053	0.018
	4	-.0926794*	0.042	0.029

由上表可知编号 1（共有同义汉字词）与编号 2（共有词义有重叠又各自有不同的部分词）组别的显著性水平为 0.002，小于 0.05，说明这两组存在差异，同理编号 1 与编号 3（共有韩语多或范围大的词），编号 4（共有韩语少或范围小的词）亦存在差异，与编号 5（共有异议词）没有显著性差异，其中编号 1 与其他三类相比均值最低为 0.071。编号 5（共有异议词）与编号 2、3、4 的组别也存在显著性差异，共有异议词平均数最低为 0.036。编号 2、3、4 组别间未见显著性差异。这一结果说明编号 1（共有同义汉字词）与编号 5（共有异议词）比编号 2、3、4 的偏误率低，较容易习得，按韩国学习者习得难度排序应先于其他类排在教材中。

我们将教材中共有汉字词的大纲等级、习得难度以及所在教材单元位置进行了比对，以下展示部分，如表 9、10、11 所示：

表 9: 大纲等级与习得难度一致的排序

序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
1	我	1	编号 1	1
2	人	1	编号 1	1
3	不	1	编号 1	1
序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
4	快	2	编号 2	4
5	再	2	编号 4	4
6	西	3	编号 4	7

大纲等级和习得难度一致的排序，“快、再、西”大纲等级高于“我、人、不”，在教材中出现的单元也更靠后；同样从习得难度来看，编号 2、4 难于编号 1，出现在编号 1 后。

表 10: 大纲等级与习得难度不一致的排序

序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
7	旅行	4	编号 1	11

8	蔬菜	5	编号 1	12
9	玻璃	5	编号 5	12
序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
10	大	1	编号 2	3
11	小	1	编号 4	3
12	到	2	编号 4	7

大纲等级和习得难度不一致的排序，“大、小、到”的大纲等级比“旅行、蔬菜、玻璃”低，相应的出现在更早的单元中，但从习得难度的角度看编号 2 和 4 应该排在编号 1 和 5 的后面。

表 11: 调整后与习得难度不一致的排序

序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
13	游泳	2	编号 1	10
14	件	2	编号 1	10
15	衣服	1	编号 1	12
序号	共有汉字词	HSK 词汇等级	共有汉字词类别	教材单元
16	西	3	编号 4	7
17	薄	5	编号 2	3
18	灰	5	编号 4	3

与大纲等级不同的排序是教材所做的调整，但与习得难度也不一致。“西、薄、灰”的大纲等级比“游泳、件、衣服”高，出现在了相对靠前的位置，从习得难度来看编号 1 要比编号 2、4 容易习得，却排在其后的单元。

### 3 讨论

邓守信（2015）认为“排序”背后的决定性因素在于“难易度”，“难易度”则是藉由语言本身难度参数所界定的。而周小兵、陈楠（2013）则指出应根据留学生的习得情况，留学生自然习得顺序进行选项排序。其对海外教材本土化的考察中发现编写者考虑到不同母语习得难点，在讲解顺序上做了调整。陆俭明、马真（2016）同样认为词语的排序，要考虑学习者认知难度等问题。通过研究语料库材料，发现韩国学习者对五类共有汉字词的确存在习得差异，“共有同义汉字词”有笔划书写、繁简体、倒序等形式上偏误，这拓宽了前人在“同形同义词”的范围对其习得的考察，从这个角度讲，韩国学习者在学习这类汉字词时不全是正迁移的作用，不教自会的。但其习得难度较低，相对较易习得。另外“共有异议汉字词”虽在词义上距离大，但习得难度比与之相关的词义上有相似的汉字词习得难度相对要小，这一结果与早期语言学家



提到学习难点不同,与孟柱亿(2005)大的差异学习者会正确区分,误导性比部分异议相异的词相对要小的观点较为一致。

两种排序方法也不是非此即彼的关系,而是有二者共同存在的价值。国别型教材具备根据汉语自身规律来呈现教学内容,关注汉语学习者的普遍需求,同时针对某一语种或文化背景编写的特点。其共有汉字词的排序对词汇等级的考虑具有普遍性,与韩国学习者习得难度部分一致的应保留;同时国别型教材也需参考学习者现实的习得难易情况,进行合适的调整,突显其针对性。编号1、编号5先于编号2、3、4出现在教材单元与大纲等级低先出现在教材单元中排序一致的这部分保持不变;编号1、编号5晚于编号2、3、4出现在教材单元与大纲等级低先出现在教材单元中排序,以及需要调整排序时,应依据学习者的习得难度进行改动。就《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版上表出现的具体共有汉字词举例,应保持“到、再、快、西”排在“是、我、人、不”的后面不变;“大、小、到”应调整到“旅行、蔬菜、玻璃”的后面;“西、薄、灰”也应出现在“游泳、件、衣服”后面的教材单元中。

#### 4 结语

基于对《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版共有汉字词排序情况考察,发现从共有同义汉字词的角度发现其形式上存在习得问题,有一定的负迁移;对韩国别型教材根据词汇大纲等级排序以及调整不同类型共有汉字词的序次,与学习者习得难度关联薄弱。共有汉字词排序保留大纲等级与韩国学习者习得难度一致的部分,同时对不一致和需要调整的地方需参考习得难易情况。

我们目前的研究是以《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版作为汉韩共有汉字词调查统计的范围,这部教材和它所选取的汉韩共有汉字词无疑是具有典型意义的,但汉字词在韩语中占有很大比例,在今后的研究中,我们将不断扩大教材样本及汉字词数量和类型,为对韩国别型教材研究做出更多努力。

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## 注释

1. 文中汉韩共有汉字词提取自朱晓星《体验汉语生活篇》韩语版
2. HSK 动态作文语料库 ver2.0 网址 <<http://hsk.blcu.edu.cn>>
3. 新汉语水平考试 (HSK) 词汇 (2012 年修订版) 网址 <<http://www.chinesetest.cn/godownload.do>>
4. 表 3、表 4 详细数据可通过链接: <https://pan.baidu.com/s/1vR0al7OF9FZC6EtVp60VQw> 提取码: 8u2m 获取

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|第四部分|

# Part 4

## An Inquiry into the Professional Identity Construction of Hanban Teachers in British Schools

### 探究汉办教师在英国中小学的职业身份建构

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**摘要:** 本文从职业身份理论视角出发,探讨汉办老师在进入英国中小学场景初期的身份建构,挖掘该群体在英国中小学复杂的经历。作者采用了叙述性探究的研究方法,通过对七位汉办教师进行采访、观察、分析其个人记录,收集了广泛的数据材料。本研究聚焦在汉语课堂中目的语和母语的使用这一主题,研究发现通过参与教学实践,教师个人对于新环境的理解不断增长,习得了新知识;在实践过程中,教师也经历了在跨越不同社区时的矛盾。这些矛盾要求他们去调和经历过的或正在经历的不同人生轨迹,也为其提供了在新环境中进一步发展的机遇。文章最后讨论了对汉办教师师资培训的启示。

**关键词:** 汉办教师、身份建构、职业身份、教学实践

## 1. 引言

随着汉语教学的推广，越来越多的汉办教师开始进入英国中小学。文献已经指出，在英国中小学开设并发展普通话教学的过程中，汉办教师发挥着重要的辅助作用（Filmer-Sankey *et al*, 2010: 3）。但这些学校在接收汉办教师的时候可能对这个群体了解甚少，这种情况会对汉办教师适应新学校环境的过程产生消极影响。Tinsley 和 Board（2014: 8）也阐发了类似的担忧，他们提出来自中国的汉语为母语的或助教在普通话课堂上并没有得到充分的利用。这群老师的实际教学经历常常被看作困难重重、充满挑战，他们所接受的行前培训也被认为不够充分（CILT National Centre for Languages, 2007: 12; Starr, 2009: 72; Tinsley & Board, 2014: 4）。因此，本文尝试从职业身份这一理论视角出发，探究汉办教师在英国中小学复杂的经历。

## 2. 理论框架

### 2.1 在实践中学习以及身份建构

尽管已经有很多学者用身份建构这一理论视角来研究教师经历，但他们却没有就其定义达成共识。我们以 Sachs（2005:15）为教师职业身份下的定义作为本文的工作定义：

它为老师提供一个框架，来建构他们对“如何存在”、“如何行动”、以及“如何理解”他们的工作和自己在社会中的位置等问题的理解。重要的是，教师身份不是固定的也不是强加的；相反，它是在经历和教师赋予这些经历的意义之间协商产生的。

这个定义描绘出了身份建构的多面性，一个框架包含着多个层面：“如何存在”、“如何行动”、以及“如何理解”。这表明教师的实践与他们的身份之间存在着深刻的联系。它包含着对教师主观能动性的认识。教师的教学理念是由他们自己构建起来的，而非由上而下规定出来的原则和行为所决定。最后，Sachs（2005:15）的定义强调身份不仅仅是教师头脑中的心理过程，而且还是经由他们个人经历的调和，个人与更广阔的社会之间的不断协商与建构。汉办教师从他们以前学校的过渡包括两个阶段，第一个阶段是过渡到培训项目里，第二个阶段是过渡到英国学校中。这样的过渡引发了一个剧烈的身份建构期。培训项目和初入学校的教学实践构成了学习成长为一名合格的汉办教师的完整过程。

由 Lave 和 Wenger (1991) 提出的情景学习理论 (Situated learning theory), 为我们提供了一个将身份建构和实践联系起来的视角。本文将在这一理论的指导下, 来探索教师关于“怎么教”的看法, 以及这些看法如何揭示他们在成长为称职的普通话教师时不断变化的职业身份。在讨论“怎么教”时, 我们将着重讨论教师对于普通话课堂上目的语和母语的使用这一问题的看法。这一主题不是提前设定好的, 而是在数据分析的过程中逐渐凸显的。我们将用这个传统的教学法主题系统地检视教师在新环境中关于“怎么教”的想法的变化, 以及在这其中的身份建构。

## 2.2 在实践中学习

本研究中使用的第一个概念是“在实践中学习”。Lave 和 Wenger 将学习看作是“社会参与”(Wenger, 1999: 4)。他不把知识看作“静止的学科知识”, 而将其看作“与某项有价值的事业相关的能力”(Wenger, 1999: 4)。获取知识, 在 Wenger 看来, 是指主动参与到实践中去。这一过程能够引导人们掌握某项能力。参与实践既是学习的过程, 也是学习的结果。

此外, Wenger 将“在实践中学习”和“个人身份的建构与发展”建立起了明确的联系。他认为, “学习不仅仅是习得记忆、习惯和技能, 而且还是形成某个身份”(Wenger, 1999: 96)。这一观点与 Lave(1996: 157) 对学习者的实践和身份建构之间关系的阐述产生了共鸣, 他认为:

如果我们非常重视我们生命存在的集体社会属性, 以至于我们将其置于首位。那么, 在实践中雕琢身份将变成主体参与的最根本的项目; 雕琢身份是一个社会过程, 而增长知识和技能也是参与社会实践的重要组成部分。

因此, 这个学习过程不仅关乎参与某项活动, 也关乎个人的发展。在实践中学习不仅关乎做什么和怎么做, 也关乎成为谁和如何存在。这暗含着对此刻如何为人这一问题持续不断的协商。在实践社区里, 在从新人变为合格成员的过程中, 个人一直参与在身份建构的过程中, 期待变为“一个有能力的人, 能够预测到可能出现的问题, 并且清楚它们的解决方案”(Wenger-Trayner *et al*, 2014: 43)。

## 2.3 身份建构作为多重身份的联结点

本文第二个重要的概念是身份建构作为多重身份的联结点。Wenger 指出, 个人不是只属于一个, 而是属于多个不同的实践社区, 这些社区不仅包括现在所在的, 也包括过去所在的。个人身份的建构在一定程度上同时受到来自过去和现在参与的实践社区的影响。因此, Wenger 提出, 个人的身份建构不应被看作是沿着一条单一的轨迹, 而是沿着交互连接的多重轨迹发展,

在身份建构的过程中,为了让不同的轨迹调和,个人需要付出很大的努力。身份建构这个概念,从本质上讲,就包含了“多重成员身份以及需要调和的工作”(Wenger, 1999:160)。当个人离开一个文化场景(landscape),进入另一个的时候,不仅要习得关于新社区的信息,还需要处理“不同社区所要求的满是矛盾的个性和能力”(Wenger, 1999:160)。因此,他们所面临的巨大挑战可能就是要调和不同身份之间的内部矛盾。

汉办老师从他们以前的社区来到现在的社区,他们就参与到了能够让他们认识英国学校场景的实践活动中去。此外,他们还面临着需要处理各种矛盾的情形,这些矛盾来自于自上而下的教学指南对“怎么教”和“成为谁”的不同引导。鉴于以上各个概念,我们将研究问题确定为:

- 1) 从中国派出的老师如何发展成为合格的汉办老师?
- 2) 多重身份下的不同身份之间如何互动,这些互动如何影响整体身份的建构?

### 3. 研究方法

#### 3.1 抽样

根据 IOE 孔子学院的官方定义,汉办老师是指一群在英国工作的高技能汉语母语教师,他们暂时从国内的教职借调到英国(IOE 孔子学院, 2016)。通常,这群由孔子学院管理的老师被称为汉办教师,而由英国文化教育协会管理的则被称作汉语助教(Chinese language assistants)。然而,在此项研究中,我们将两个群体都称作“汉办老师”,因为两者有着很多共同的特质:

- 汉办参与了他们的选拔、培训和派出;
- 他们在中国国内都是有资质的老师;
- 他们中大多是从国内的中小学借调来的;
- 他们大多是直接从中国招聘过来的,之前没有在英国接受过学位教育,也没有在英国工作或生活过。

为了招募参与者,我们联系了两个机构,一个孔子学院和一所学校,总共招募到了七名参与者。

#### 3.2 参与者

此研究的参与者一共包括六名女老师和一名男老师,他们的年龄在 20 到 50 岁之间,母语

为中文。他们在英国不同类型的学校里面担任着一系列不同的角色和职责，有的作为助教，帮助一小部分学习上有困难或不遵守纪律的学生，而有的作为老师，给全班上课。所有的参与者都出生在中国，并在中国完成了本科教育。郑老师是唯一拥有英国硕士学位的参与者。表 1 提供了参与者的相关信息。所有名字都为化名。

表 1: 参与者的背景信息

姓名	教育背景	赴英前的教学经验	在英工作年限
1 赵老师	语言类本科	作为英语老师 5-10 年的工作经验	第一年
2 钱老师	语言类本科	汉语作为外语教学 1-5 年的工作经验	第一年
3 孙老师	语言类本科	作为英语老师 5-10 年的工作经验	第一年
4 李老师	教育类本科和硕士	作为英语老师和教师培训师 20 年以上的工作经验	第一年
5 周老师	语言类本科;教育类硕士	汉语作为第二语言教学 1-5 年的工作经验	第四年
6 吴老师	教育类本科	作为英语老师 20 年以上的工作经验	第一年
7 郑老师	其他学科的本科和硕士	作为英语老师 1-5 年的工作经验	第一年

### 3.3 数据收集

此项研究在质性研究的范式开展，具体来说，使用了叙述性探究的研究方法 (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000)。我们使用了三种研究工具：半结构化采访、观察和教师个人的记录。

我们采访了汉办老师、孔院员工和本土老师，共计 26 次，每次用时 20 到 90 分钟。此外，我们去三位目标群体老师所在的学校进行了六个整天的调研，跟随每个老师两个整天，并写了田野笔记。我们还参加了四次由孔院组织的活动，并从老师和相关机构收集了 31 份文件（例如，教师日记、政策文件）。

受本文讨论范围和焦点的限制，我们分析了采访转录稿和来自七位汉办老师的文件。其他来源的数据也使用了，虽然没有对它们进行系统的分析，但它们都帮助我们形成了对田野的认识。

在老师们开始他们的教学实践之前，我们问了他们以下问题：

- 他们对英国汉语课堂里汉语教学的理解；
- 他们对作为汉办老师在英国居住和工作的理解；
- 在开始教学实践之前他们的感受和想法。

通过这些问题，我们的目标是洞悉他们在完成行前培训之后与开始实际教学之前这个边界上的身份建构问题。通过对他们所给回应的分析，课堂中目的语和母语的使用这一主题才逐渐开始凸显。

汉办老师在英国学校工作一个月后，我们进行了第一轮采访。第二轮采访于第一学期末进行，第三次和最后一次分别在第二学期和最后一学期结束时进行。之所以要选择进行多次采访，是因为从理论上讲，身份建构不是固定的，而是在不断变化的。

### 3.4 数据分析

基于对老师们行前想法的初步分析，我们发现目的语和母语在汉语课堂的使用是参与者回应中常常出现的主题。通过查阅现有的关于外语教学方法的文献，我们意识到这是一个经常被讨论的主题。因此，在接下来的几次采访中，我们进一步追踪了老师们关于这个问题的想法和实践。数据分析是按照以下五个步骤进行的：

1) 阅读所有的采访转录稿，并标注出关于这个主题的内容。两个线索对这一步骤有帮助：一个是我们采访时所提的问题，一个是关注受访者在什么时候提及了说英文或中文。

2) 来自一个参与者的所有相关部分被整理成了一个样本数据库。根据“不间断比较的原则”(Charmaz, 1995: 42; Holton, 2007: 277)，这些样本数据被编码或压缩成模式编码(Miles et al, 2014: 73-96)，以实现“捕捉、综合和理解陈述中的主要主题”的目的(Charmaz, 1995: 40)。

3) 为了增加评定者间的可信度，第二个研究者被邀请来与我们一同分析样本数据。

4) 利用根据样本数据建立的分类来分析其他数据。

5) 建立分析框架。我们将这些编码分为两个大类：1) 在实践中形成并发展的知识；2) 多重身份在跨越不同社区时的矛盾。在第二大类中，我们又发展出了三个小类：a) 第一次碰撞：当过往经历遇到行前培训；b) 第二次碰撞：进入实际教学实践；c) 个人层面与职业层面的矛盾。

这并不是一个线性的过程。伴随着这个过程，每个大类和每个小类的属性和维度都在不断地增加或改变，添加了一些新的大类和小类，也改变了一些类别的名称。

## 4. 研究发现和讨论

### 4.1 在实践中形成并发展的知识

正如之前讨论的那样，通过参与新社区的实践活动，一个新成员也参与到了知识的习得，这种知识指的是“一种能力”(Wenger, 1999: 4)，并且这种知识是指某个特定社区的本地知识。我们的研究数据表明，通过参与到教学实践中去，教师个人对于新环境的理解也增长了。他们在教学上关于目的语和母语使用的选择，深深受到了他们在这个复杂的新环境中获得的信息的



影响,比如以学生为中心的教学理念、英国中小学的汉语教学现状、学生特征、现有课堂的实践。当他们尝试着去建立起一个行动根基时,各个方面的新知识都必须考虑到,并且要将它们纳入教师个人的理论框架中去(Eraut, 1994)。

到了英国以后,小孩儿小,你一张口,两三句话听不懂他就不听了,他就不合作。所以你在这一边是必须用英语教汉语,而且学生又小。

(周老师,第一次采访)

如果学生们在下面讨论,声音比较大,他们就会说“三、二、一”,使用不同的语言,或者有的老师会说“五、四、三”,一般到三或者二学生都已经安静了。然后我就在这周周三的中文俱乐部上试了一下。我已经教会他们说数字了,一到十。然后呢,我说如果,我就尝试了一下,我也没跟他们说,我就尝试了一下,我说“三、二、一”,在我说到三的时候就已经有学生意识到就是我是在让大家安静下来,就已经有学生帮助我对其他学生做这个动作,告诉他们要安静下来。当我说到二的时候基本上已经没有人说话了。我觉得这是非常有效的一个课堂管理的方式。

(郑老师,第一次采访)

周老师和郑老师都谈到了目的语和母语的使用与学生行为管理的关系。在以上采访节选中,周老师讨论了英国学校里学生的行为和认知特征。他在考虑了这些特征之后,做出了用学生母语作为教学媒介的决定。他对学生的了解是在他实际参与到实践中时形成的。这些认识可能受到了来自对于之前一些不成功经验的反思和调整。情态动词“必须”的使用表现出了他对于这件事的信心,也显示了他在英国工作三年之后已经形成了能够胜任本职工作的从业者身份。

郑老师谈到了她尝试着以目的语为工具来对学生进行行为管理。通过参与到新的学校社区,她逐渐掌握了一项被很多有经验的老师共同使用的技巧,这个技巧是已经为教师和学生所熟知的行为管理方式。在给予学生汉语水平正确的评估之后,她尝试着用汉语来使用这个小技巧,最后大获成功。这件事表明了她作为一个新手教师的身份建构的过程。在这个过程中,她积极地向有经验的老师学习,并在教学中试验所学到的教学技巧。

上面两段采访节选也回应了 Shulman (1987: 8) 提出的教师的七类知识根基的假设,这些知识是提高学生的学习体验所必需的。进入一个新的学校环境,参与者通过参与实际教学,逐渐习得一整套的知识。然而,从一个环境过渡到另一个环境,习得新知识只是其中一项任务;老师们还需要应对由“不同社区所赋予的互相矛盾的个性和能力”而引起的矛盾感(Wenger, 1999: 160)。

## 4.2 多重身份在跨越不同社区时的矛盾

此项研究的理论视角将身份建构看作是多重身份的联结。教师身份同时涵盖个人与职业两个层面，并且两者不断互相作用。在过去社区中建构起来的身份可能会跟现在所属社区期待建立的身份产生矛盾。这些矛盾要求个人去调和他们经历过的或正在经历的不同人生轨迹；这也为他们提供了在新环境中进一步学习和发展的机遇。

我们将讨论目标群体老师所经历三类不同形式的身份建构矛盾。这些矛盾涵盖了目的语和母语的使用，面对这些矛盾时的身份建构，以及主观能动性在其中所扮演的角色。

### 第一次碰撞：当过往经历遇到行前培训

目标群体老师进入行前培训时，他们满载着自己过去的职业经验和个人经历而来。如果他们已有的想法与培训项目中所提倡的教学理念和实践一致，那么二者的相遇并不会碰发矛盾。否则，矛盾就会发生，从下面李老师和吴老师的访谈节选中可以看出来。

当时在国内培训的时候，这是一个争议很大的问题，因为当然我们在 XX 大，那儿的老师呢，他就建议我们在课堂上全部使用汉语。所以我们在第一次试讲的时候，因为大家没有经验嘛，用了大量的英语，老师给我们指出来，你们这样不行，应该用汉语。到了我们第二次试讲，我们就都变成汉语了。实际上对我们来说，是一个很大的挑战……当时我就提出了我的观点是什么呢，我觉得在中国教外国学生学汉语，跟在英国教英国学生学汉语是完全不一样的。因为他们在那边有中文环境嘛，对，他周围听到的全都是中文。他有这个条件去练习。但是 you 在这边没有条件。结果来到这边之后就果真验证了。

（吴老师，第三次采访）

通过了解我对英国中小学汉语教学是有困惑的，感觉和我二十多年来的英语教学理念是有较大区别的。其中最重要的一点是当地的汉语课堂教学使用英语进行教学，课堂汉语输入很少，学生输出自然不多。这样的教学效果如何，很想能进一步了解。在上海培训时，法国的一位老师介绍法国是要求尽量用中文授课，她的一些理念和做法也引起了我的共鸣。希望在英国期间能通过学习工作能找到答案。

（李老师，行前邮件往来）

吴老师和李老师是两名教学经验最丰富的参与者。他们在中国的时候都是专家型教师，拥有多年的一线教学经验。他们已经建立起了稳定的职业身份，不仅仅是作为教师，而且还是作为专家型教师，他们对自己的教学理念和实践都很自信。专家型教师和新手教师不同，他们更容易从自己过去的经验中寻求方法来解决新环境中面对的问题（Sternberg and Horvath,

1995:14)。所有参与者中,只有这两位专家型教师对行前培训提出的关于目的语和母语在课堂中的使用原则进行了反思。至于其他参与者,周老师毕业于中国国内一所著名大学的对外汉语专业,并且已经有作为汉语教师的经验。他的想法和实践跟行前培训的理念一致,因此并没挑战他已建构的身份。剩下的参与者,相关工作经验相对较少,工作了两到七年。但是,他们所有人都热切地希望成为更好的老师。其结果是,他们并未经历任何矛盾感,因为他们将培训项目看作是他们的成长为合格的汉办老师的重要职业发展资源。

上文提到的李老师和吴老师的采访节选表明,在行前培训中关于目的语和母语的使用主要有两种声音。第一种观点支持最大限度甚至是完全使用目的语作为教学语言。这个观点与中国国内汉语作为第二语言教学界所推崇的主流原则相一致。这个理念也被法国和美国的成年学生教学项目所采用。第二个观点提倡将学生的母语作为教学语言。这个观念主要是在专门针对英国中小学的培训项目中被提及的。此观点也得到了在英国有过实际教学经验的老师的支持。

面对这两种声音,吴老师质疑了最大限度使用这一观点。基于她对中国和英国语言学习环境差异的理解,她对实际汉语教学中最大限度地使用目的语这一技巧的可行性持怀疑态度。她也提到当她听到第一种声音的时候,感觉受到了很大的冲击和挑战。然而,李老师却对第二种声音的效能提出了质疑。她认为这两种声音是二元对立的。基于她长期以来从英语教学经验中所吸取的外语教学理念,她深信要让语言学习者达到最好的学习效果,只有通过为他们提供最大限度的目的语输入。因此,她同意第一种声音。当她意识到她自己的想法、理念和实践与她将要前往之地的不一致时,她表达了强烈的困惑之感。

此外,李老师和吴老师,作为经验丰富的老师,面对行前培训为“怎么行动”开出的药方,他们都表现出了强烈的主观能动性。主观能动性在身份过去的创建、现在的维持和将来的发展的整个过程中都发挥着作用(Day et al, 2006: 613)。尽管他们觉得受到冲击、感到困惑,李老师和吴老师并没有全盘接受行前培训给出的行动指南。相反地,他们准备积极发挥主观能动性,面对开始教学之前的这些矛盾感,两位老师都计划在实际教学中去尝试、试验不同的理念,进而找出什么才是最好的实践。

## 第二次碰撞:进入实践教学实践

当参与者开始在英国学校社区开始他们实际的教学实践时,他们倾向于表现出他们在过往的教学经验和行前培训的影响下所建构的职业身份。然而,新的工作文化场景可能会要求他们表现出新的个性和能力。这就极有可能引发他们教师身份建构的第二波矛盾感,可以从周老师和李老师以下的采访节选看出来。

我刚来的时候,完全就是把北京绿色公园大学的那一套搬过来……对,最基本的就是用汉语教汉语。我发现来这边根本,根本用不了。

(周老师,第一次采访)

这个想法一直都有，因为以前在国内教英文就是全部用英文教，从来不用中文教。当然也有其他人用中文教，总感觉学生一开始，我们可以通过各种身体语言呀，环境啊，各方面来让学生理解你的英文。但我们在想中文课为什么不可以这样教。然后我们在上海培训的时候，法国巴黎大学他们那边那么就是全中文教授中文，所以感觉各个国家的方法不一样吧。所以这个想法也应该说一直都有，这么多年教学，也就是今年在英国，觉得不能用目的语来教目的语，我们觉得还是挺困惑的一件事儿。但是因为这边整个环境是这样，也不敢轻易地进行尝试。真是这样。

（李老师，最后一次采访）

对于“完全”和“根本”这两个词的选择，表明了周老师意识到以前和现在工作的学校社区的要求大相径庭。他在前一个社区里建立起来的职业身份并不能完全适用于新的社区。这两者强烈的矛盾感促使着他努力地去建立起一个与现在环境更契合的职业身份。

李老师却不是这样，她的陈述表现出她身份建构过程中持续不断的冲突感。上文的节选来自最后一次采访，也就是当她已经英国工作了一个学年之后。直到那个时候，她还在表达对为什么不能用目的语教目的语的困惑。我们对她挥之不去的困惑感有两点解读。第一，作为中国的一个专家型老师，她所建立的职业身份十分稳固，以至于一直在寻求表达的机会。然而，作为现有社区初来乍到的新成员，她缺乏或者没被赋予主观能动性，去挑战现有学校文化所推崇的好的教学方法和实践。因此，对于李老师来说，这种矛盾感，不仅仅只关乎过去和现在实践的差异，从前者过渡到后者；还关乎她的身份建构，涉及到如何在一个新的社区中“存在”的问题。于此同时，她还经历着一种转换，从之前社区里的专家教师、正式成员，转变为现有社区的新成员，只能“边缘参与”其中（Wenger, 1999）。

### 第三次碰撞：个人层面与职业层面的矛盾

在英国学校社区工作了一段时间之后，老师们的职业身份开始慢慢转变。这反映在他们对现有教学时使用学生母语为教学语言这一实践接受。然而，伴随着这个转变，涉及到他们个人身份的另一层问题又慢慢凸显出来。作为非英语母语者，英语不够熟练精通让他们认为自己是不够格的汉办老师。这种身份建构过程中个人与职业层面之间的矛盾可以由以下陈述看出。

有时候困难是困难在交流上面，因为我觉得英语还是特别匮乏。在如果在教他们汉语的时候，有时候英语就很匮乏，你比如说哈，他们现在形成的习惯是，嗯，“明天”这么一个汉语的话就是在英文当中就是 tomorrow 对吧。他就会问你，为什么 tomorrow 是一个词，而这个是两个词，然后他就要你一个一个地解释，“明”是什么意思，“天”是什么意思，那这个“明天”还好解释，但你换作另外一个词，那就是。

（孙老师，第一次采访）

再一个就是自己英语的水平还是欠缺的，因为他这里的课，好像学生的英语跟我们平常的英语是不一样的，我特别发现小孩儿的英语跟我们平常的英语是不一样的。包括跟我们国内的英语更加不一样。所以我觉得真的要跟学生顺畅地交流，那可能自己的英语水平真的还是需要提高。可能接下去我的努力发现就是自己的英语水平再提高吧。这个英语水平不是指国内我们学到的英语，而是学生他们所使用的一些英语，所以像我的话有时候也有意识地向学生去请教。到底这个你们是怎么说的之类的。他们教给我的词可能跟我们在学校里从课本上学到的词都不一样。但是如果你能够用学生的语言去跟他们交流，他们可能会觉得跟老师之间的距离会更小一点。

（李老师，第二次采访）

孙老师谈到在使用传统翻译法解释目的语的意思时，她觉得自己的英语水平不够。类似地，李老师也谈到她觉得自己还是不够精通英语，尤其是在跟学生交流的时候。然而，她主要担心的不是教学技巧，而是师生关系。她担心自己对学生母语掌握得不够好会阻碍她跟学生形成一个良好的关系。面对这个问题，李老师发挥自己的主观能动性，有意识地向她的学生学习他们的母语。这可能会使师生之间的权力关系发生变化，因为她同时既是学生的老师，也是他们的学生。

## 5. 对师资培训的启示

本文探讨了汉办老师在进入英国中小学场景初期的身份建构经历，主要聚焦在汉语课堂中目的语和母语的使用这一问题。从理论层面讨论了身份建构，从实践层面讨论了对教学语言的选择之后，现在我们将探讨这两个不同却紧密联系的层面对我们的师资培训有怎么样的启示。

### 5.1 身份建构、实践和汉办教师教育

身份建构和在实践中学习这两个概念应该被引入对汉办教师教育的构思之中。首先，不应该再把汉办教师的学习仅仅看作是个人化的认知活动，它也关乎学习如何成为学校社区中的某一类人。这个过程也包含着，在教学的过程中，与社区其他成员互相协商社会关系和社会实践。汉办老师的学习，也不应该再仅仅被视为局限在特定的时间里，局限在正式的培训项目中（例如，行前培训和在职培训）。因为参与者的经历告诉我们这些项目仅仅是他们成为一个优秀的汉办老师的初级阶段。在英国学校实践的最初阶段需要他们投入到一个高强度的学习和成长的过程中去。在这个过程中，汉办老师的个人经历、教师教育和学校现实的激烈互动。面对一个新的场景，几乎每个参与者都经历了不确定和困惑，不知道“怎么行动”、“成为谁”。在实践

中学习关乎的不仅仅是增长“如何教”的知识和能力，而且也关乎他们的信心，即在多大程度上把自己看作一名合格的汉办老师。他们最初在英国学校的实践是他们“学习成为”一名合格的汉办教师过程中不可分割的一部分。

## 5.2 行前培训的课程设置

汉办老师的行前培训通常包含两个连续的项目。根据学员的数量，这两个项目通常被称为小培训和大培训。小培训是由英国的孔子学院和他们中方的合作院校共同提供的。培训师是来自这些合作机构的相关人员。小培训通常持续一个星期，学员也仅仅是即将前往英国学校工作的汉办老师，因此人数不多（例如，20个人）。大培训则是由一所中国的大学单独承办，持续时间约一个月，人数较多（例如，200个人）。这个群体的老师将会被派往各个国家，而非仅仅是在英国。

行前培训帮助汉办老师从中国教育场景过渡到英国教育场景。它提供了关于在汉语课堂上如何教学的重要知识，这是预备老师的重要一步，尤其是对于那些从未有过汉语作为第二语言或外语教学经验的老师。然而，行前培训所提供的知识仍然不够充分，并且似乎对教师在新的社会文化环境中的学习缺乏深入的理解。尤其是这些项目提供的教学法知识比较偏理论，大多是由在中国国内针对成年学生的汉语作为第二语言的教学经验总结而来的。这与英国中小学这一背景下的语言学习环境、学生的学术和语言需求都有很多不同。

适合来华留学生的汉语教学方法也许适用、也许不适用于英国的中小学环境。实际上，前文所提到行前培训中的两种声音也反映出了由不同学习环境得出的不同理念和想法。这可能会让老师在学校教学实践中产生困惑，甚至会影响到他们的信心。因此，我们也呼吁培训项目的课程设置应该更加专注于英国中小学这一学习环境，进一步增加与其相关的内容。

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**Narrative Analysis on Cross-Cultural Vulnerability of Returned  
Female Overseas Chinese Mandarin Learners within the University-  
Affiliated Educational Programme**

**女性华侨中文学习者在大学附属教育课程里的  
跨文化脆弱性叙事分析**

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**Abstract:** This Mandarin learners-oriented study has a specific intersection with cross-cultural concerns for returned overseas Chinese, especially aiming at gender equality discussion for women as the research purpose. It examines whether the female Mandarin heritage learners from different cultivated country backgrounds experienced cross-cultural vulnerability in their transnational mobility from non-Sinophone societies to Taiwan. The implication of narrative analysis, based on the integrated perspectives of transnationalism and multicultural feminism, was to examine and analyse their experiences of transnational mobility, which was associated with a series of qualitative research methods, i.e., semi-structured interviews and transcripts compiling for further narrative analysis. As a result, it presents the general issues on cross-cultural vulnerability in their learning, as well as prospecting educational concerns of Mandarin learners' wellbeing within the cross-cultural learning circumstances.

**Keywords:** returned overseas Chinese women as Mandarin heritage learners, transnational experiences on gender equality issues

## **1. Introduction**

This paper discusses a relatively understudied population, female returned overseas Chinese for culturally Mandarin learning alongside the higher education promotion for contemporary gender equality, e.g., gender equality regulations, especially after feminist movements in higher education. It takes the specific group of returned female overseas Chinese learners as the realm and further clearly

addresses the argument below. Ethnicity-related migration as heritage learners seemingly enriched their Mandarin employability to derive many of the rewards promised by the contemporary Mandarin careers network. Nonetheless, certain frictions might arise due to the failure to considerate account for the significance of learning circumstances, as well as unpredictable occurrences that highlighted the cross-cultural tensions. Hence, certain Mandarin heritage learners not only experienced transnational mobility at a relatively young age for homecoming migration but also encounter cultural differences.

This study interrogates how the learners from diverse migrant backgrounds experienced transnational mobility, especially in female voices. It attempts to address and examine the individual experiences of transnational mobility and relevant issues through qualitative methods for a later collective voice, with a basis of the similar dilemmas, especially in the theme – how does the background shape a female heritage learner’s cross-cultural vulnerability?

## **2. Statement of the Problems**

The problems relating to female migration encompassed society in general, e.g., issues of ethno-culture, adjustment, language problems (Castles, de Haas, and Miller, 2014). What’s more, the call for the attention on gender equality could not be ignored (Palmary, Burman, Chantler and Kiguwa, 2010). This study focuses on gender inequality and marginalised migratory roles of the migrant women, mainly from Southeast Asia, for Mandarin learning in Taiwan. With local language barriers, these female students might have not experienced equal chances in learning advanced Mandarin subjects. It is crucial to understand the female students’ adjustment and thereby help to ameliorate the multiple gender inequalities they suffered, especially in terms of their gender-based cross-cultural adjustment. Such issues concern cultural differences of origins and migrant women’s empowerment. In addition, a bilingual connection between Mandarin and other Asian language emphasised on the ethnic Chinese migrants is expected to be explored for a further in-depth analysis.

## **3. Literature Review**

The exploration of representative literature review provided theoretical and substantive context for the argument. In short, this review of highly selected literatures in Taiwan studies combined transnationalism with multicultural feminism (as practically synonymous research stronghold) below. Most importantly, this section provides the foundation – to see whether the later semi-structured interview

findings support or contradict what were formerly noted in the literature review.

### **3.1 Transnationalism**

Steven Vertovec's concept of transnational communities of migrant women as one such example in Taiwan might support the rights of migrant women who were mostly from Southeast Asia (Wang, 2009, pp.3-11). In the study entitled '*The Formation of "Transnational Communities": A New Challenge to "Multicultural Taiwan"*,' Wang reinforced the conclusion that the female migrants were discriminated against because of their culture of origin (*ibid.*, pp.10-11). Nevertheless, the transnational communities carved out their own space in Taiwan, despite somehow prejudice, by means of ethno-cultural restaurants, shops, and festivals which permeated Taiwan. The transnational communities presented unique challenges to the issues of cultural adjustment and identity, and an emergent multicultural Taiwan because they brought a new experience of cosmopolitanism (*ibid.*, p.7). The literature studying transnationalism discussed how cultural rights had manifested themselves in cross-cultural dimension of the group of migrant women who were primarily from Southeast Asia. At the same time, the literature emphasised the advantages of the cultural differences brought to Taiwan by whom maintain their previous habitus hoping to make locals proud of their migrated cultures. Alternatively, Wang merged the case of overseas Hakkas' ethnic identity into Taiwanese Hakkas' pan-Hakka movement. Wang supported the development of ethnic Hakka literacy education associated with ethnic Hakka indigenisation movement (Wang, 2007, p.314).

### **3.2 Multicultural Feminism**

The reasons to add multicultural feminism to the literature review include not only their multicultural backgrounds but also good research practice. The term multicultural feminism could be defined as representing the marginalised voices and ideology of many kinds of underprivileged women. Lee's study, influenced by American feminist theorist Susan Okin, showed that female migrants suffered severe gender discrimination in patriarchal-based communities (Lee, 2009, pp.14-15). Lee investigated how migrant women's rights were influenced by the themes of nation, class, ethnicity, and gender. Lee also discussed the women's empowerment advocates and NGO grassroots groups (*ibid.*, pp.50-52), which was also stressed by another Taiwanese multicultural feminist Lin (Lin, 2009).

#### **4. Theoretical Orientation, Methodology and Methods**

This section is about the theoretical orientation, methodology and methods. The integrated implications of transnationalism and multicultural feminism are to examine and analyse the learners' experiences of transnational mobility, associated with narrative inquiry methodology and semi-structured interviews/transcripts compiling methods. On the integrated perspective, the discussed Mandarin-based adjustment education programme, then, could be an inefficient means to enhance female migrants' status in mainstream society, as well as potentially transmitting an accommodation of cross-cultural vulnerability to be investigated in this narrative analysis study.

The examples of the empirical semi-structured interview questions in random order showed the inquiries design and attempt to have better perception on the female respondents' relevant adjusting issues listed as follows: 1. What is your learning experience in terms of gender-based ethno-cultural relations? 2. Were the attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviours of others sensitive regarding your female transnational status? 3. What is your expectation of the university-affiliated educational programme concerning your ethno-cultural related rights? 4. Concerning the educational impacts, what strength and weakness do the curriculum have, and why? 5. Regarding the effects to the learners, is the curriculum multicultural? 6. Are instructional materials examined for ethno-cultural bias? 7. How do you view the ethno-cultural events in recent years? 8. What is the difference in Mandarin instruction if you have studied Mandarin before you came to Taiwan? 9. How do you conceive of the relationship between Mandarin-based adjustment education courses and ethno-cultural diversity, especially given the range of languages/dialects within the society? 10. How do the curriculum and overall learning circumstances affect your adjustment and socialisation, from a transnational female perspective?

The motivation to understand transnational sentiments of the young overseas Chinese women led me to focus on a study of these young female overseas Chinese returnees and relevant in-depth analyses. The fieldwork drew from 15 semi-structured interviews (as my study samples for this particular gendered, ethnic group, from a specific university-affiliated Mandarin-based adjustment education programme where the population of regular Mandarin learners are approximately forty), conducted from January 2020 to January 2021, with young Mandarin learners (mainly from Southeast Asia) via Skype. Indeed, a rationale/justification for the transnational feminist methodology was provided, especially for the selection of the young women originally from foreign countries, including Southeast Asia, alongside the method of snowballing (used when characteristics to be possessed by samples were difficult to reach) of recruiting 9 interviewees but limited each chain of referral (as Linear Snowball Sampling) to avoid sample bias. The other 6 interviewees responded to my request for interviews

posted at the public forum. And then I ultimately compiled collected interview transcripts for relevant in-depth thematic analyses. In addition to the data collection, the methods included relevant official documents and news reports collection for further analysis concerning relevant migration regulatory changes and Mandarin education programmes for migrants.

Also, I conducted the interviews in Mandarin and translated the excerpts quoted in the study. The entire semi-structured interview used open-ended questions. The interviews, which lasted for around one hour online. The 15 interviewees (see Table 1) were all females. All of the interviewee youths were aged between 18 and 24. With the consent of all interviewees, interviews were recorded and transcribed. The transcripts were coded by using the qualitative data analysis software NVivo, as I conducted initial coding by reading the transcripts carefully and identifying essential categories; I later reorganised the data by category and identified sub-categories in the process of advanced coding. In short, I contextualised the data and interpret them efficiently.

Table 1: Respondent’s Information Chart

	Age at Migration/ Current Age	Country of Origin	Employment Status	Highest Level of Education
Y1	18/23	Vietnam	Chef	Senior High School
Y2	16/19	Indonesia	Waitress	Vocational School
Y3	16/18	Thailand	Secretary	Senior High School
Y4	19/22	The Philippines	Care Worker	Nursing School
Y5	17/24	Vietnam	Saleswoman	College
Y6	16/21	Brunei	Care Worker	Senior High School
Y7	19/21	Cambodia	Clerk	Vocational School
Y8	19/24	Vietnam	Vietnamese Tutor	Vocational School
Y9	18/19	Myanmar	Assistant	Senior High School
Y10	16/19	Malaysia	Assistant	Senior High School
Y11	16/19	Vietnam	Clerk	Vocational School
Y12	18/21	Indonesia	Saleswoman	Senior High School
Y13	19/20	Vietnam	Chef	Vocational School
Y14	16/19	Thailand	Saleswoman	Senior High School
Y15	16/22	Korea	Social Worker	College

To sum up, on the data sources I used, the importance of studying this particular subject addresses experiences of transnational mobility from a transnational feminist perspective associated with the above qualitative research methods, i.e., semi-structured interviews and transcripts compiling/analysis.

In short, the qualitative research fieldwork combined with the methods were designed to collect data for further analysis and explanation of what experiences and paths they had, along with a form of transnational sentiments to respond to my following research theme.

## 5. Narrative Analyses

In the author's findings as the result, that is where the quotes from the interviewees as the subjects and further analyses are positioned. The research analyses and findings (based on the collection of each individual interview transcript compiling) are presented through how the dimension of background shapes their transnational mobility. I explanatorily analyse and interpret the data, based on the interviewees' sayings and witness, as part of a substantive argument below:

The thematic issues of this section are essentially based on cultural differences of origins. It addresses the personal experiences and issues of the controversial and difficult educational circumstances encountered by the migrant interviewees, particularly based on the cultural differences of their origins, e.g., Islamic societies. At first, the challenges of adjustment of overseas Chinese students were caused by the gap between their hometown ethno-culture and their new locality. Such transnational issues have been manifested on these cross-cultural Mandarin learners. Invariably, a migrant woman's self-image seemed to be embedded in the marginalised contexts they found themselves in, being largely to do with the perception of an inferior status, maintained and reinforced by oppression fostered by a patriarchal society. The circumstances where they felt comfortable, safe, and could get involved free from bullying or judgment were very important. Y2, an overseas Chinese migrant originally from Indonesia expressed her viewpoints with regard to the relevant social and learning circumstances,

I thought all this hatred amounted to censorship based on cultural differences of origins. Nothing can stop this type of censorship from spreading, and that was exactly what happened (Author's interview with Y2 at 10 am, 12 May 2020).

Y2 was one of those who thought all this amounted to the feeling of being censored, or under culture of silence surround the issues, which were based on cultural differences of origins.

With regard to the part of original cultural difference, Y10 from Malaysian, a part-time kitchen assistant in a noodle shop and a shabu-shabu restaurant, said,

I did my best to learn Taiwanese phonetic system in the adjustment education programme in higher education circumstances. However, I thought locals disliked my previous country's Islamic culture. They discriminated against that type of culture and custom which differed from the local culture. That was because the adjustment scheme was not efficient to tell locals to respect my previous

country's culture (Author's interview with Y10 was held in 4-6 pm, 11 July 2020).

In the narrative, Y10 expressed her experiences of discrimination against her previous cultural background. In her eyes, this bias could be attributed to adjustment scheme. Y8, an overseas Chinese who was born and raised in Vietnam, stated,

I had heard of some overseas Chinese learners being afraid of talking to the locals because they feared of getting disparaged. Though I understood that belittling type of bias, I did not really care (Author's interview with Y8 at 10 am, 24 October 2020).

This interviewee denoted the suffering of certain overseas Chinese learners with fears of getting disparaged by the locals. Next, Y1, born-and-bred in Vietnam, an overseas Hakka migrant woman married her Taiwanese Hakka husband, also noted the prejudice migrant women from Southeast Asia faced in Taiwan,

After having heard that most female overseas Chinese learners from Southeast Asia experienced prejudices and oppressed by local patriarchal society, I would suggest them to access to local information on Taiwan's customs/culture. Some students who were from diverse cultural backgrounds worked by day, so they did not have enough spare time to access to the information of local cultures supplied by the district information centres (Author's interview with Y1 at 9:50 am, 22 January 2020).

This statement of an overseas Hakka student confirmed the circumstances where most female overseas Chinese learners from Southeast Asia experienced prejudices and oppression at the hands of the local patriarchal society. Therefore, she suggested to the victims that they access to more local information about Taiwan's customs and culture in the district information centres.

Unlike natives in Taiwan, the implicit and explicit ties of Southeast Asian ones to their back home families were often mistaken for an unwillingness to be integrated into the host communities, associated with feelings of alienation, superiority, or other kinds of exclusionary cultural differentiation (Palmary, Burman, Chantler and Kiguwa, 2010, pp. 141-142). Regarding their transnational issues, there were limited data on the emigration of their original countries (Castles, de Haas and Miller, 2014, p. 296). However, the transnational feminist NGO-associated ones had become notably more outspoken in response to regulatory rhetoric in Taiwan. These young activists were against any forms of prejudices and unfairness that might place them in a vulnerable, victimised position. Their societal awareness which led them to participate in the movement for curricular reform was thus gradually emerging. To illustrate this point, Y3 who was an overseas Chinese and Thai mixed-race, Muslim, born and bred in Thailand firmly supported a multicultural plan of Southeast Asian language for bilingual employability connected with Mandarin,

Most migrant women from my hometown suffered too much merely because of their origins, accents, and looks. I thus supported Southeast Asian languages. In addition, local people must learn

to accept us. I did not like the concept of tolerance in the limited liberal curriculum, which sounded prejudiced to us. I hoped the authorities would be much more efficient in helping migrant women rather than doing nothing, and I would actively seek for the supports of the migrant women from my ethno-cultural association about it (Author's interview with Y3 at 1 pm, 30th July 2020).

Seemingly, even if Y3 disliked mere tolerance in the curriculum, the locals ultimately tolerated their identity as long as multiculturalists steered clear of any form of radicalism. This interviewee delivered on her pledge to promote multicultural voices in the public forum. In this way, the priorities of migrant women were no longer merely attached to survival in the local patriarchal society but promoted their own ethno-cultural identities based on their ethno-cultural associations.

Indeed, their vulnerable status was under the local hegemonic conservatism. This type of xenophobia in the local patriarchal society was heightened by the adjustment scheme. Y4 was thus concerned regarding their much vulnerable, marginalised status in the host society,

During the learning period, the negative, xenophobic descriptions of my people who were migrants here (e.g., maids, reproductive role, or human trafficking) in the curriculum made me feel shame of my own background. I felt we overseas Chinese migrant women from Southeast Asia were marginalised in the society (Author's interview with Y4 was held at 9-11am, 27 May 2020).

In conjunction with the patriarchal, xenophobic content of the curriculum, this female Mandarin learner emphasised the repressed voices of overseas Chinese transnational women as newly marginalised ones in the host society.

Nevertheless, it could be argued that the respondents who had strong overseas ties were more likely to be involved in the issues and voices of migrant women. Y5, who had stronger overseas ties, was more enthusiastic about the activities of a feminist NGO, and said,

We joined in the extracurricular activities because of the schooling and classroom discussion on the sensitive ethno-cultural related issues. Then, I had more connections with my country of origin and participated more in these multicultural feminist activities for transnational women originally from Southeast Asia. However, I believed that these activities were not so successful due to the unacceptance of the local society (Author's interview with Y5 was held at 4-6 pm, 28 May 2020).

This account illustrated that their extracurricular activities could be viewed as the extension of ethno-cultural conflicts in class. And the development of social awareness of female migrant students was highly relevant to the extent that it had been accepted in Taiwan, including multicultural women's issues, presenting as a social phenomenon triggered after the initial experiences of transnational migration.

Certainly, overseas Chinese Mandarin learners were eligible to apply for legal status for residence based on the right of return. This enables the overseas Chinese to move themselves from being in the



minority in their countries of origin to embrace their own ethnicity in the new community. Under these circumstances, overseas Chinese gradually came to their own individual assessments of the ethno-cultural aspects. For example, Y7 expressed her own perspective on adjustment education below,

It's a golden rule wherever one went – learning local official language for survival in a new place. It would be easier for a new life through learning local languages/dialects. I agreed with the promotion of Mandarin education, and I did not want to see the development of multiculturalism without the emphasis of official language education. The purpose of gender equality thematic Mandarin foundation education in higher education for new migrants was to help adjust themselves into the new learning circumstances. You know what? I have seen female illiterates who did not know the official language in the most miserable position in my home country. However, my campus bus-taking experience made me vulnerable as the approaching male strangers once noticed my accents of speaking Mandarin then discriminated against my Southeast Asian origin although my appearance looked as same as the local women, which made me avoid chats with male strangers on campus bus afterwards (Author's interview with Y7 at 9:30am, 24 June 2020).

From Y7's individual perspective as being a Mandarin learner, she seemed to firmly support the type of migration education. Nevertheless, this student with ethnic Chinese looks still encountered unpleasant prejudice against her overseas Chinese accents and chose to avoid the subgroup identifying over chats on campus bus within the learning circumstances.

Next, Y9, mixed-race daughter of an overseas Chinese minority and Southeast Asian also explained,

The language barriers in reading and writing were the most prominent problem for us as heritage learners. I tended to be a good follower of the Mandarin education programme. But locals could figure out our vulnerable places and belittle us due to the accents. So, we must also improve our accent issues through this higher education-affiliated programme (Author's Interview with Y9 at 1 pm, 30 April 2020).

This passage was about a female Mandarin learner who embraced the ethnic and linguistic concerns. Nonetheless, Y9 emphasised that the significance of the Mandarin-based adjustment education was essential for being afraid of the accent issues for exclusion, as a way of cross-cultural vulnerability.

Thus, this study further examines the prejudice experienced by the young Mandarin learners, based on the external physical factors and the internal cultural factors as follows:

Y14 argued that the curriculum discriminated against Southeast Asian origins by referring to them as servants along with their easily recognisable foreign appearance,

I felt the content of textbooks discriminated against the ones from Southeast Asia. Our behaves

and accents differing from locals made us much prejudiced on campus, which made me feel depressed but still attended the Mandarin-based adjustment education programme (Author's Interview with Y14 at 2pm, 9 May 2020).

The bias was emphasised rather than downplayed in the curriculum and learning circumstances. In particular, their accents when speaking Mandarin, together with different manners during interpersonal interactions, made the relatively young migrants easily identifiable and hence subjected them to discrimination.

Y11, an overseas Chinese learner from Vietnam, also explained this problematic issue, referring to her personal experiences of prejudice,

I also had encountered some forms of discrimination and 'xenophobia' as I was one of overseas Chinese learners from Vietnam with our own language usages. In the first instance, everything was unsatisfactory to me, for example, the way people mocked my accent made me feel unhappy and excluded. The way they talked and then they talked about the local culture which excluded me had a profound effect upon me, which hurt my feelings deeply. They said some strong language against me. They said that my words and feelings were immaterial to them. What was worse, they kept asking 'what did you want to get from us?' (Author's Interview with Y11 at 10:30 am, 24 April 2020).

According to this narrative, Y11 experienced discrimination based on the identifiable 'otherness' in her accent, producing feelings of isolation and exclusion. She and her ethno-cultural language group could be categorised by the locals according to their own language usages and, as a result, she felt stigmatised. Also, Y13 from Vietnam was enraged,

Being an optimistic, friendly person, I, an overseas Chinese learner, had still encountered somehow discrimination against my accent. Those annoying baddies passed by on my way towards the adjustment education classroom and said something nasty on purpose. But by what right did they assume the authority to discriminate against me? (Author's Interview with Y13 who spoke in Mandarin alongside partial Hô-ló-u ē at 6-7pm, 13 May 2020).

Despite Y13's efforts to integrate into local culture, their experiences of xenophobic attitudes made them feel depressed. This experience of prejudice is something that shaped their cross-cultural vulnerabilities.

Next, Y8 reflected on the cultural dimension of migration,

The programme seemed to have its own curriculum design, but it lacked understanding of Vietnamese learners' culture of origin, e.g., the expression of 'really?' as a cultural difference. The teachers who were not familiar with Vietnamese culture did not teach or explain cultural differences in class so that we encountered difficulties after class. A Mandarin expression – i.e., really? – was understood in local usages as an insignificant bridge to connect dialogues in Taiwan, while the expression casted

serious doubts on one's credibility in Vietnam. Students from Vietnam would misunderstand locals (Author's Interview with Y8 at 10:30 am, 24 April 2020).

According to this narrative, Y8 identified how even small local usages had heightened her sense of 'otherness' and uneasiness in using local idioms in Mandarin education. According to her argument, these distinctions had created long-standing barriers to integration into local culture for newcomers.

Besides, a Muslim Y12 noted,

The local historical events taught in the curriculum recalled my memory back home because of the similar ethno-cultural prejudices in history. However, my good understanding of the local sorrow history did not get enough respects to my religious minority status, especially gender parts of the faith in the educational settings (Author's interview with Y12 from 9am to 11am, 18 December 2020).

This prejudice experienced due to an ignorance of the culture of origins, was something that provoked their cross-cultural sensitivities. In order to decode the black box of national sentiment and identity development of whose origin was from Southeast Asia, it was essential to examine the detailed cultural differences between domestic and overseas Chinese societies. Moreover, their migration became the battleground for both gender and ethno-cultural issues. To understand this complexity, it was important to have empathy for the worries of female overseas Chinese learners at being excluded from mainstream society, and their self-awareness that emerged against the bias of faith/gender as xenophobia.

Last but not least, in the interviews, Y6 as a part-time care worker and Y15 as a part-time social worker both showed great concerns of the Mandarin learners' wellbeing. That part was essential to be alerted as general issues of their cross-cultural vulnerabilities so as to demonstrate educational concerns of Mandarin learners' emotional supports within the cross-cultural learning circumstances.

## **6. Discussion and Conclusion**

This article ends with the summary of my findings. Firstly, concerning the theme, the issues were based on cultural differences of origins. Secondly, transnationally mobile women understand and negotiate their positionality was mainly through the schooling and ethno-cultural associational activities. Thirdly, challenges and frictions that transnationally mobile overseas Chinese women might encounter were interracial dynamics that arose in their Mandarin learning and cross-cultural adjusting process, which can be revealed from their alienation and identity issues. Fourthly, the women's cross-cultural vulnerability in their learning/living was deemed a justification for boosting an educational care for Mandarin learners' wellbeing within the cross-cultural learning. And, unexpectedly, an overseas

Hakka, amongst the female overseas Chinese Mandarin learners, might solely retain their solid ethno-cultural identity, which provides an alternative insight in this field of study.

Besides, the discussion and conclusion are combined so that this is where I both summarise my findings above and connect them to the extant literature as follows: this study, differing from the given Asia-Pacific migration studies, reveals its own interpretation of the relationship between localisation and integrated transnationalism-multicultural feminism at the theme of contemporary migration practices. In detail, a plethora of understated issues of the extant literature confronted certain female migrant Mandarin learners, e.g., xenophobia-related gender bias attacks, which were revealed by the interview transcripts. Moreover, the habitus of female Mandarin learners' culture of origins (rather than specific Chinese societies/communities overseas) considered as religious minority, for instance, made their cross-cultural vulnerability visible, especially in description of gendered part of faith practice. e.g. the overseas Chinese Muslim minorities' narrative. What's more, this study presents a significant, unique finding that the Mandarin usages between locals and overseas Chinese learners vary in practice, and cultural differences made the expression misunderstood by one another, e.g., 'really?' in the dialogues of Mandarin education. Subsequently, a Mandarin-Southeast Asian language bilingual connection was proposed by the Mandarin learner originally from Southeast Asia.

Lastly, cross-cultural vulnerability of the female overseas Chinese Mandarin learners could demonstrate in their reflections concerning the flawed curriculum in class, and their experiences of ethno-cultural dressing styles associated with accent issues on campus. To find reasonable solutions to vulnerability issues grounded of creating truly multicultural circumstances stymied by the defective curriculum, the female respondents' voices addressed should be heightened, as tensions driven by public concerns over the issue showed the difficulties in diminishing cultural difference disputes through Mandarin education. It is hoped that this study may bring new light on future relevant studies, and most importantly, humanitarian concerns on the sufferings from the women in international migration – their cross-culturally emotional health as such. To sum up, as long as Mandarin learning curriculum and circumstances may genuinely construct the sense of ethno-cultural respects for the female overseas Chinese returnees, a balanced transition towards a more liberal vision of their learning experience paths and shapes is possible.

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# Research on Teaching Chinese in different teaching institutions in Spain

## 西班牙不同教学机构的汉语教学研究

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**摘要:**近年来,随着中国实力不断的提升,西班牙汉语教学发展迅速,越来越多的西班牙人认为学习汉语很有前景,许多教学机构,如语言学校,中小学和大学等都开设了汉语课程。本文以西班牙汉语培训机构、私立学校、公立学校、孔子学院(孔子课堂)、西班牙大学、西班牙官方语言学校以及华文学校为研究对象,从不同纬度分析各个教学机构的特点、数量、师资状况、学生特点、使用教材以及教学情况等,从而为西班牙汉语教学,以及汉语教师的职业发展提供参考和借鉴。

**关键词:** 西班牙, 汉语教学情况, 教学机构

### 1. 引言

在“汉语热”席卷全球的今天,越来越多的欧洲国家也呈现出热衷汉语学习的趋势,西班牙则位列其中。西班牙很多城市的大学都开设了孔子学院,算上兰州交通大学和塞维利亚大学合作新成立的西班牙塞维利亚大学孔子学院在内,在西班牙已开设9所孔子学院和9所孔子课堂。除了孔院以外,有200多所西班牙当地中小学也纷纷开设汉语课程选修课和必修课,多达1100多所的私立汉语教学机构也如雨后春笋一般涌现。同时例如巴塞罗那自治大学、萨拉曼卡大学、格拉纳达大学、塞维利亚大学等众多西班牙大学也开设了汉语学分课程,已将汉语纳入可获取学位的大学本科课程中。西班牙当地政府和人民也大力支持中文教学。中文学习者囊括了西班牙当地的儿童和成人以及中国移民和华裔的后代,大家都因不同的目的和动机齐聚在中文学习的课堂。西班牙对汉语学习的重视程度越来越高,不同教学机构越来越多,学习汉语人数和参加汉语水平考试的人数逐年上升。截至2019年底的数据统计西班牙学习汉语的总人数已经突破5万人,其中同年近一万人参加了汉语水平考试。西班牙连续多年参加官方汉语水平

考试的人数位居欧盟成员国首位,从2012年起一直保持欧洲第一。西班牙汉语教学蓬勃发展。然而以往的研究都是针对某个专题进行的研究,而没有针对西班牙整体汉语教学情况进行的调查。因此有针对性的整体研究和总结就愈发显得有意义。

## 2. 文献回顾

现存的关于西班牙汉语教学的文献可分为期刊文献和学位论文。期刊文献中,董稳娟、焦志沁、渠默熙从西班牙汉语推广的角度阐述了其所带来的启示、现状、问题及策略,周敏康主要针对的是汉语师资培养、本科汉语教学等主题的专项研究。刘旭彩、张丽则是从汉语教学纳入西班牙教育体制和汉语等级标准建设等宏观范围对西班牙的汉语教学进行了论述和研究。各类期刊文献都为西班牙的汉语教学研究提供了宏观和微观等多方位思考价值。

其中学位论文的相关文献更多的是专题研究和区域研究。其中专题研究有李颖和王少骏分别针对西班牙汉语教学的中国文化教学和西班牙中小学汉语教材对比分析及教材编写建议为主题进行的研究。对西班牙某一具体地区汉语教学情况开展的具体论述和研究的有周琳、唐晶、郑敏娟的针对马德里地区如孔子课堂和中小学的汉语教学调查研究;以及卢敏的帕尔马地区汉语教学现状调查与汉语推广研究。再如,韩迪所调研的是瓦伦西亚地区大学的汉语教学情况;熊雪君针对维戈市官方语言学校汉语课堂的调查研究;路睿的萨拉曼卡大学汉语教学现状;胡天霞的巴塞罗那地区孔子学院办学模式研究;贾凡调查的是阿斯图里亚斯自治区官方语言学校汉语教学现状等。可以看出以上现存的文献大都是针对某一地区或者单一教学机构的调查研究,涉及的领域主要是西班牙汉语教学的现状、问题和建议等。还没有一篇是针对整个西班牙不同教学机构的汉语教学研究,希望本文的研究可以填补这一方面的空白。笔者有意将不同教学机构的各自特点、教学情况等进行平行探讨和总结,给希望了解西班牙各大机构汉语教学现状的读者一个真实而全面的展示,为全球汉语教学发展提供一定的借鉴。

## 3. 研究方法

笔者在西班牙南部安达卢西亚自治区不同教学机构从事汉语教学工作多年,拥有多家汉语教学机构工作经验。本文以自身工作中的经验总结和多年的自然观察为起点着手,主要运用文献资料法作为研究方法,辅助以对汉语培训机构的问卷调查和对西班牙汉语水平考试委员会的电话访谈,通过多种研究方法对不同机构汉语教学情况做一个基本介绍,可以让西班牙之外的读者对西班牙的汉语教学有一个总体认知。

前期的观察法主要是通过笔者在不同汉语教学机构工作时对西班牙汉语课堂情况的细致观

察，并且在课堂教学实践中和各教学机构管理者与同事以及汉语学习者保持沟通与联系，总结并记录了不同教学机构的师资状况、学生特点、使用教材以及教学情况等信息。

但个人的经验和自然观察毕竟是有限的，因此在调研中期，笔者查阅了众多西班牙汉语教学的案例与中西文献，并搜集整理了很多西班牙汉语教学相关的期刊与论文，详细了解了西班牙其他地区不同汉语教学机构的汉语教学基本情况。其中西班牙巴塞罗那自治大学翻译系的周敏康教授及其学生的多篇中西文献，以及往届国内各大高校赴西汉语教学的硕士毕业生所写的毕业论文，为综合分析西班牙汉语教学的研究做了重要的理论依据。

后期通过做问卷调查和访谈调查等方式为辅，对文献资料中没有涉及到的教学机构和未能获取的数据做了进一步了解和补充。以问卷调查为例，通过联系到塞维利亚 Mandarin Center 汉语培训机构的校长 Carlos 先生，发给其西语版问卷调查，得到反馈后再整理成汉语并整合成文章内容。同时也对西班牙汉语水平考试委员会进行了电话访谈。西班牙汉语水平考试委员会是语合中心正式授权的在西班牙组织汉语水平考试、教师培训、教研出版等的官方机构。由于其在西班牙汉语教学的权威地位和对西班牙汉语教学情况的深入调研，在对其进行的电话采访的过程中，获取了西班牙汉语教学情况的许多综合数据，例如西班牙各类教学机构的数量、历年汉语学生学习人数和历年参加汉语水平考试的人数等。

#### 4. 研究结果

据西班牙汉语水平考试委员会最新统计数据显示，西班牙教授汉语的教学机构中共有 1100 多所语言培训机构、200 多所私立中小学、91 所公立中小学（包括孔子课堂）、9 所孔子学院、59 所西班牙大学、24 所西班牙官方语言学校，以及 50 所华文学校，共计约 1532 所不同教学机构开展了汉语教学。截至 2019 年底西班牙学习汉语的总人数已经突破 5 万人，其中近万人参加了汉语水平考试。对比 2014 年的数据 3 万多人学习汉语和 7300 多人参加汉语水平考试，以及 2018 年的 4 万多人学习汉语和 8000 多人参加考试，可以看出明显的增长，可见西班牙民众对汉语学习的热情日益高涨。西班牙每年参加 YCT、HSK、HSKK 等官方汉语水平考试的人数目前在欧盟其他成员国中占据首位，从 2012 年至今已经多年保持欧洲第一。



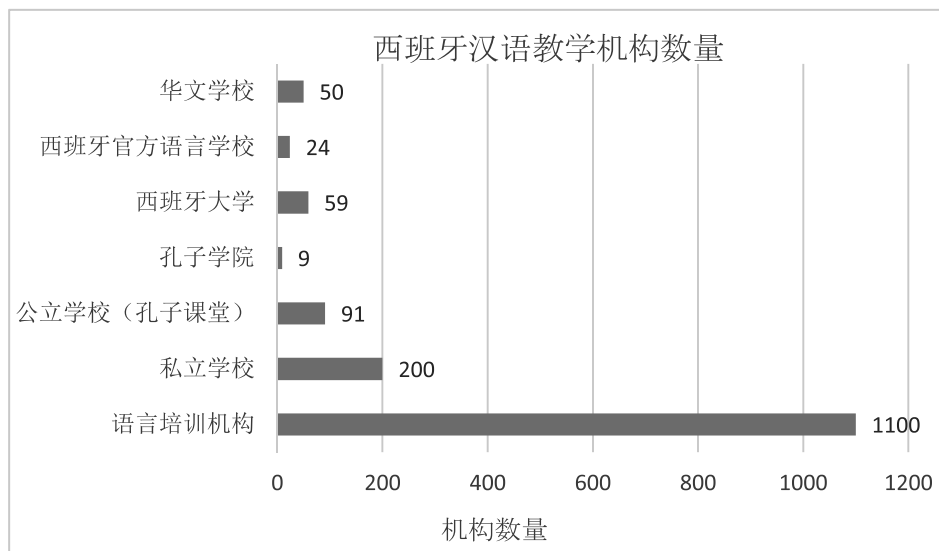


图 1：西班牙汉语教学机构数量  
(数据来源于西班牙汉语水平考试委员会)

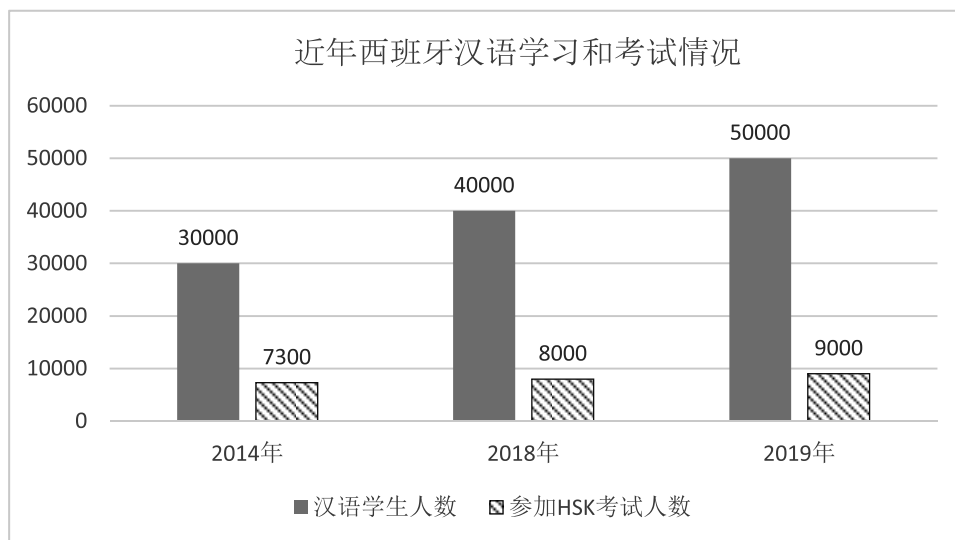


图 2：近年西班牙汉语学习和考试情况  
(数据来源于西班牙汉语水平考试委员会)

#### 4.1 西班牙汉语培训机构：

西班牙的汉语培训机构处于蓬勃发展时期，以下我们选取西班牙南部一所比较有代表性的机构进行分析。

Mandarin Center 教育公司成立于 2013 年，目前在欧洲（西班牙）、中国（北京）和拉丁美洲（多米尼加共和国）都设有代表处，在西班牙有 5 所分校。之所以选择 Mandarin Center 作

为汉语教育机构的调查代表，最重要的原因就是 Mandarin Center 是西班牙南部最大的汉语教育品牌，其以连锁的形式把分校开在西班牙以及世界的多个城市和地区，并且深度和中小学以及大学开展汉语教学合作，共同开设兴趣班或学分课。拥有自己的出版社，并自主进行教材和网络教学平台的研发。公司还十分注重教学方法与教学质量，所聘用教师大都拥有汉语教师资格证书，接受过正规的汉语教学培训，至少有 3 年的教学经验，并有一定的西班牙语水平。但是比较缺乏长期稳定的优质师资。教师上课大都使用平板电脑，便于课堂和学生游戏及测试互动，并且不定期举办中国文化周等活动。Mandarin Center 每个教学点拥有学员超过 120 人，其中不包括合作管理的其他学习中心（中小学、大学等）的学生。学员从儿童到成人各个年龄段均有，包含很多不同层次、不同需求的人群，其中比较多的一部分群体是很多被西班牙家庭收养的中国孩子。同时，Mandarin Center 也是汉语水平考试的官方考点，目前，在于 2021 年 7 月 18 日举行的最近一次 YCT 和 HSK 官方考试中，共有 65 名学生参加。目前，使用最多的是《轻松学汉语》和《HSK 标准教程》以及自行研发的学龄前汉语教材《你好》和《好好学习》。

语言培训学校所开设课程主要为汉语基础课和备考课，因主要以营利为目的，看报名人数开班，有的等级人数少，只能合并班级教学，会有学生重复学习同一等级，或者无法找到适合自己的等级情况。

#### 4.2 私立学校

西班牙有很多私立学校已经把汉语课作为必修科目纳入了学生的学习计划，很多学校甚至从幼儿园就开设了汉语课为孩子打好基础，比如塞维利亚非常有名的一所私立学校 Colegio Internacional de Sevilla San Francisco de Paula。私立学校不接受政府资助，在课程设置方面有更多的自主性和灵活性，有不少私立国际学校把开设汉语课程作为学校的特色名片进行宣传。Yago School 私立国际学校位于塞维利亚市卡斯蒂利亚德拉奎斯塔小镇。该校强调传统价值观，打造双语、体育、音乐和新科技相结合的全面教育，为学生提供个性化服务，把英语作为教学和工作的主要语言，把汉语作为小学阶段的必修课以及初高中阶段的选修课。由于私立学校资金自由，可以配备更多高科技的教学设备，学生在小学高年级和初高中阶段，分别配有平板电脑和苹果笔记本电脑进行学习，教室均可投屏互动。Yago School 的汉语教师主要有三人，都是长期从事汉语教学具有丰富教学经验的老师，分别负责学龄前儿童，小学阶段，初高中阶段以及汉语补习班的汉语教学。汉语学历课每周两节，每节课一个小时，汉语补习班每周两节，每节课半个小时。小学阶段所用教材是北京语言大学出版社的《轻松学汉语》，初高中阶段所用教材是牛津大学出版社的《鼓舞》。

在西班牙的学龄前和小学阶段，规定教学一般以活动为主，课后一般不布置作业，尽量不让孩子们感到压力。因此汉语课常采用儿歌、书画、舞蹈、手工等形式进行教学，提高学生学汉语的兴趣和积极性。

中学阶段和小学高年级阶段，有一定的考试要求，每年会进行 YCT 和 HSK 的选拔考试，通过三次模拟考试的学生可以报名参加正式的考试并且取得证书。在初高中阶段家长更看重语言学习水平和考证情况。

#### 4.3 公立学校（孔子课堂）

西班牙汉考委张丽老师在最新发文中指出，汉语教学已经被纳入西班牙的国民教育（包括基础教育）体系。全国已经有两个自治区制定了汉语课程大纲，分别是安达卢西亚自治区出台的小学课程大纲和卡斯蒂亚莱昂自治区颁布的中学课程大纲，为当地在基础教育体系中开展汉语教学提供了重要的法律依据（2021）。在国民教育体系内的公立中小学开设汉语课的两个大区都是由国内各省教育厅和当地大区教育厅进行合作，选派孔子课堂，孔子学院教师来任教，由中西院长和负责人共同合作发展的项目。

安达卢西亚自治区孔子课堂（以下简称安区课堂）自 2011 年起在全区范围试点推广中文进入公立中小学教育体系。这些公立学校隶属于安区教育体育厅管辖，得到安区公共财政系统的支持。截至目前，在安达卢西亚大区的 8 个省设立了 8 个孔子课堂，每个课堂由若干教学点组成，共分布在 16 个城市。截至 2021 年 9 月已有 42 个教学点加入安区课堂的汉语项目，在公立中小学内开设汉语学分班和兴趣班的汉语课程。这意味着汉语已成为当地公立学校的第三种官方语言。目前，安区课堂汉语教师 37 人（其中公派教师 10 人，海外志愿者老师 27 人）。学生人数 4000 多人，是欧洲规模最大的孔子课堂。除了汉语教学外，安区课堂也致力于中国传统文化的传播，在国内外资金的强大支持和校方的大力配合下，可以开展丰富多彩的文化活动并且组织国际交流活动等。并且各孔子课堂每年都会组织学生参加汉语水平考试，在最新一次的 YCT 和 HSK 考试中，整个大区学生的通过率高达 94%。所用教材包括《YCT 标准教程》、《HSK 标准教程》、《轻松学中文》、《快乐汉语》、安区课堂自编本土教材《十二色汉语笔记》等。

但是目前汉语还不是西班牙教育阶段结业考试或大学入学考试中的科目。2018 年 11 月 9 日，第二届“西班牙教育体制中的中文教学现状”工作会议在巴塞罗那举行。与会两国嘉宾一致认为，应尽快将中文正式纳入西班牙“高考”，成为高等院校入学考试的正式考核科目。

#### 4.4 孔子学院

在西班牙非学校机构的汉语教育中，孔子学院是其中最重要的组成部分。目前，中西双方已合作设立了 9 所孔子学院，分别为 2005 年设立的马德里孔子学院、2006 年设立的格拉纳达大学孔子学院、2007 年设立的瓦伦西亚大学孔子学院、2008 年设立的巴塞罗那孔子学院、2010 年设立的拉斯帕尔马斯大学孔子学院、2011 年设立的莱昂大学孔子学院、2016 年设

立的卡斯蒂利亚拉曼查大学孔子学院、2016年设立的萨拉戈萨大学孔子学院和2021年设立的塞维利亚大学孔子学院。孔子学院已经成为西班牙民众学习汉语、了解中国以及中国文化的重要窗口，成为中西文化交流的新平台。

其中发展最好的孔子学院要数巴塞罗那孔子学院基金会（以下简称“巴塞孔院”）。基金会由北京外国语大学与巴塞罗那大学、巴塞罗那自治大学、亚洲之家联合设立，从2008年成立孔子学院到2011年改制基金会形式正式运营到现在，巴塞孔院现已形成一套完整的制度体系，并且基金会的运营模式使得孔院可以更加灵活，快速的发展。基金会已经与一共11所大学签署了合作协议，以1+11的大孔院格局来开展教学、考试、文化和学术活动。目前，孔院共有32名工作人员。开设课程分为中小学、大学和研究生的学分课程以及各种非学分课程，比如文化推广课、长城汉语在线课、备考课、暑期强化课、综合课、书写课和专用汉语课等。并且在办学过程中注重本土化、多元化和数字化（胡天霞，2019）。

孔子学院在各大教学机构中优势明显，可以为学生提供各种比赛、访学和奖学金机会。师资水平好，办学规模大，信誉度高，文化活动丰富，学费公道合理，具有竞争优势。孔子学院为教师提供优质的培训机会和丰富的教学资源，其科研成果、翻译著作和其他类型的出版物颇多，经常开设大型讲座和培训。在西班牙的汉语教学中起到了示范作用，树立了行业榜样。

#### 4.5 西班牙大学

现如今，西班牙有59所大学开设了汉语课程，其中17所大学将汉语作为大学专业的一门课程。西班牙大学的汉语教育大致可分为三类：第一类是主要针对在校大学生开展的汉语专业的学位课程，并在完成学业后授予本科、硕士或博士学位；第二类是针对在校大学生开设的选修课性质的课程，学生可自主选修该课程，并可获得相应的学分；第三类是非学位课程以及语言课程，授课对象面向社会人士、大学生和中小学生等，主要以兴趣学习为主（韩迪，2015）。西班牙有2所大学开设了对西汉语教学硕士（针对母语为西班牙语的小中小学汉语教学），10所大学开设了包含汉语课程的本科专业，10所大学开设了汉语相关硕士，以及2所大学开设有汉语相关博士。大学任教的汉语教师主要为西班牙裔和华裔教师，本土汉语教师缺乏，并且入职要求严格。在开设汉语课程的专业中，比如，东亚研究本科专业，学生可以自行选择汉语、韩语或者日语中的一门外语，其中选择汉语方向的学生人数占总人数近三分之一。所用教材大多为《今日汉语》和《新实用汉语教程》。

大学阶段的汉语教育为西班牙汉语教学的发展输送了一批优质的汉语教研人才，培养了许多优秀的本土教师，至今活跃在西班牙各大汉语教学机构。

表 1: 西班牙大学不同层次专业开设汉语学分课程一览表

本科 (10)	马德里自治大学 (UAM) 亚非研究专业 马德里康普顿斯大学 (UCM) 东亚研究专业 巴塞罗那自治大学 (UAB) 1. 东亚研究专业 2. 中西翻译专业 3. 西班牙语和中文研究 : 语言、文学和文化专业 格拉纳达大学 (UGR) 1. 现代语言和文学专业 2. 翻译专业 加泰罗尼亚网络教育大学 (UOC) 东亚研究专业 马德里内布里哈私立大学 (UN) 现代语言专业 塞维利亚大学 (US) 东亚研究专业 萨拉曼卡大学 (USAL) 东亚研究专业 瓦伦西亚大学 (UV) 1. 翻译与跨语言协调专业 2. 现代语言文学专业 (辅修东亚语言文学) 大加那利岛拉斯帕尔马斯大学 (ULPGC) 现代语言学 (英汉专业)
硕士 : (10)	格拉纳达大学 (UGR) 1. 东亚研究硕士 2. 中学教师培训中汉语作为外语专业和现代语言文化双学位硕士 巴塞罗那自治大学 (UAB) 1. 欧盟 - 中国 : 文化与经济硕士 2. 全球东亚研究硕士 巴塞罗那大学 (UB) 东亚文化与商业硕士 庞培法布拉大学 (UPF) 1. 全球背景下的亚太研究硕士 2. 中西翻译硕士 马德里自治大学 (UAM) 东亚研究硕士 胡安卡洛斯国王大学 (URJC) 1. 法律和司法翻译与口译硕士 (包括中文专业) 2. 欧盟与中国硕士 阿尔卡拉大学 (UAL) 1. 中印经济学硕士 2. 公共服务跨文化交流、口译和笔译硕士 (包括中文专业) 3. 商务会议口译硕士 (含中西语方向) 萨拉曼卡大学 (USAL) 1. 东亚研究硕士 2. 东亚语言、文学和文化高级研究硕士 巴利亚多利德大学 (UVA) 国际关系和亚洲研究硕士 巴斯克大学 (UPV) 中国研究硕士
博士 (2)	巴塞罗那自治大学 (UAB) 翻译与文化研究博士 马德里自治大学 (UAM) 人文科学博士 : 地理学、人类学以及非洲和亚洲研究
其他学分课程	马德里康普顿斯大学 (UCM) 中西翻译课程 瓦伦西亚理工大学 (UPV) 揭开中国语言和文化的面纱课程 瓦伦西亚大学 (UV) 瓦伦西亚和丝绸之路东亚专家课程 瓦伦西亚大学 (UV) 推广课程 : 中国 : 发现并揭开其语言和文化的神秘面纱 高等语言学与翻译学院 (ISTRAD) 语言、文化和东亚贸易关系专家课程
对西汉语教学硕士 (2)	巴塞罗那自治大学 (UAB) 汉语教学硕士 西班牙卡米阿斯大学 (UPC) 汉语教学专业硕士

从表 1 可以看出西班牙目前在大学的本科、硕士和博士等不同层次专业均开设有汉语相关课程。共计有 17 所大学开设了汉语学分课程, 主要集中在东亚研究专业、翻译专业和现代语言学专业。

#### 4.6 西班牙官方语言学校

西班牙的官方语言学校是政府机构, 在西班牙各个大区的许多城市均设有官方语言学校。由于是政府承办, 收费普遍较低。其开办的目的是为了让更多西班牙人掌握一门外语, 从而改善西班牙人掌握外语情况不尽理想的状态。学生毕业时颁发相应语言合格证书, 也可以作为西班牙

牙境内升学就业的语言水平证明。官方语言学校教师来源主要为当地华裔、本土教师、以及孔子学院合作外派教师。学生来源多样化,有社会在职人员,也有在校学生。学员普遍学习兴趣高、动机强、态度认真。不过汉语课开课年级数量较少,课时安排集中于下午和晚上,没有汉语课程考试,课程设置较为单一,多为初中级别水平。但是这些语言学校可以借助政府官方平台招生,开展更多有权威的活动。官方语言学校的汉语教学在西班牙有很大的发展潜力,由于分布广泛,可以使汉语教学覆盖到更多的城市。



图 3 : 西班牙官方语言学校分布图

( 图片来源 Chen Kaiwei ( 2015 ) La enseñanza del chino está dando en Cataluña )

图 3 中不同颜色区域所代表的分别是西班牙的 17 个大区和下属的 50 个省,同一颜色的每个大区又被划分成若干省。图点标出的都是各自治区每个省所开设的官方语言学校,其中浅色点是开设了汉语课的官方语言学校。可见西班牙的 17 个大区每个省都开设有官方语言学校,其中共有 8 个大区下属的 11 个省所在的官方语言学校开设了汉语课。

#### 4.7 华文学校

据欧华网报道,截至 2020 年官方统计在西班牙的中国移民近 20 万,华人为第六大移民群体。旅西华人家长对子女华文学习的重视,促进了西班牙华文学校的蓬勃发展。华人经济实力的增长也为更多华校的创立提供了资金保障。同时,中西两国在经贸领域的深入合作不断提升

并拓展旅西华人的就业机会和就业领域,掌握汉语则可以更好地提高自身竞争力。因此,华裔子女学习汉语的热情与动力得到进一步的提升,也促进了华文教育向更多地区的覆盖与推广。绝大部分华校没有独立产权,只能采取周末租赁或借用当地公立学校校舍、借用政府部门办公用房等方式开展教学。大部分教师是定居当地的华人以及部分留学生,生源数量多,需求庞大。所用教材多为暨南大学的《中文》课本或《汉语》课本,以及国内的小学语文课本。华人学生入学时,“听”与“说”基本没有大问题,学生只要读完小学六年,“读”与“写”也都可以达到相当水平。华文学校不仅仅只是教授读书识字,还要传授中华民族的优良传统。如今华校的发展更加多元化,增设了各类旨在帮助学生融入当地主流社会的课程与活动,如西班牙语培训、西班牙学校科目文化课补习、各种课外兴趣班、邀请当地警察部门开展安全讲座、与当地足球队进行交流等。

西班牙的不同教学机构各具特点,各有利弊,但都在各自的轨道上推动着西班牙汉语教学的前进和发展。首先覆盖学生人数最多的要数各大私立和公立中小学里的汉语教学,由于大部分为必修和选修课,学生人数多,学习年龄低,非常利于汉语的低龄普及。其次,孔子学院无疑在所有教学机构中是最具有影响力的,其来自中国国内各大高校和机构的人力、资金和科研等的大力支持,让其可以开展全方面的汉语教学以及承办各种大型文化活动,极大地扩展了汉语和中国文化的影响力,在西班牙社会各界都产生了巨大的积极影响。其中各大学的本科、硕士和博士阶段学位专业的汉语教学无疑是最权威和专业的,各高校培养了一大批懂汉语、了解中国文化的专业人才,将会进一步推动西班牙汉语教学发展和中西文化交流,对西班牙的汉语教学发展有着最深远的影响和意义。再次,私立的语言培训学校和西班牙的官方语言学校在数量和地理分布上有巨大的优势,不像孔子学院只开设在少数大城市,私立语言培训学校和官方语言学校可以让汉语教学深入到更多中小城市,并且发展潜力大,覆盖范围广,地理优势非常明显。最后,华文学校是让旅居在西班牙的中国人华侨子女学习汉语不可或缺的机构,西班牙中国人越多的地方华文学校的发展就越加蓬勃。

总体来说,希望本文可以帮助更多人了解到西班牙汉语教学情况,尤其是西班牙以外的读者可以对西班牙的汉语教学有一个总体的认知。西班牙的汉语教学作为国际汉语教学的一个缩影,有其自己的特点也有很大的普遍性,希望本文可以为更多的想要研究不同国家汉语教学的人提供一定的参考和借鉴,为国际汉语教学和研究做出一定的贡献。

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