

Innovation and Consolidation in Learning and Teaching Chinese

Applied Chinese Language Studies V

Edited by
Linda Mingfang LI
Minjie XING

Selected Papers from the British Chinese Language Teaching Society
2013 International Conference

Innovation and Consolidation in Learning and Teaching Chinese

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Preface

The British Chinese Language Teaching Society had another successful annual international conference in 2013, the 11th since the inception of the event over a decade ago. The conference was held in University of Nottingham, with a generous sponsorship from Nottingham University's Confucius Institute. It drew participants from all over the world, with over 80 papers delivered. Here we are pleased to present a collection of 26 selected papers from the conference.

This collection consists of four sections corresponding to the proposed strands of discussions and exploration under the general theme of this conference - Innovation and Consolidation in Learning and Teaching Chinese, reflecting the overall focus on practice of the conference this time. Section I focuses on teaching approaches and strategies in Chinese as a foreign language (CFL); Section II on teaching phonetics, character and grammar; Section III on teaching material development; and Section IV on intercultural communication, including translation studies.

Section I consists of nine articles, which address various issues in the teaching and learning of Chinese from the perspective of teaching methodologies and strategies. The first article "Teaching Chinese Through AHP (Analytic hierarchy Process), a case of integrated approach of deductive and inductive presentations" by LU Yang talks about her innovative ways of teaching CFL through an analytical grammar method to address the problem of a general lack of grammatical knowledge amongst her students learning Chinese and the positive results of her students as shown in their written assessment performance in the last two years. HUANG Ying introduces in her article "The Application of Pragmatic Points in Elementary CFL Classes" the teaching of spoken Chinese in Hong Kong Chinese University, a programme that the University has been developing in the last few years. The concept of pragmatic point is rooted in the principle of task-based language teaching with an aim to develop the practical linguistic and cultural communicative competence in the language learners. ZHOU Hong's contribution is about the teaching of business Chinese, as suggested in the title of the article "Use of Case Studies in Teaching Business Chinese in Integrated Skill Training Course". heralding the use of case studies as a breakthrough in the innovative teaching of business Chinese and based upon the teaching at her home university, Zhou introduces their practice of a five stage teaching

method starting from warm-up to case study, language skill training, analysis and discussion of cases and finally consolidation and extension exercises.

The next two articles are about application of technologies and better use of resources in CFL. In “Mobile device vs. hardcopy notebook for vocabulary learning”, WANG Dongshuo & XING Minjie introduced their innovative experiment on how simple lexical spreadsheet on mobile device can be used for consolidation and reference of new vocabulary, which also promotes students autonomous learning. The resource can be used from any mobile smart phone, tablet or I-pad. XU Geng discusses “Blended Learning: Using Web Resources for Chinese Learning” based upon an experiment that integrates regular face-to-face teaching with students independent online learning outside the classroom between 2012 and 2013, making use of the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) now widely available in the UK universities.

SUN Yonghong’s article “On Motivations of Elementary Chinese Learners” is a survey report based upon 75 learners of Chinese about their motivation to learn the language. With the top three motivations being interest in Chinese language, Chinese culture and travel in China, Sun proposes ways to retain learners’ motivation and to achieve effective CFL Chinese as a Foreign Language) teaching. On the other hand, the article by LIU Weiming and Ann DEVITT (“Activating Empathy: language teacher education through a Chinese course”) reports their experiment with the introduction of a Chinese language taster course in their trainee-teachers’ professional development programme in order to foster trainees’ empathy which includes motivational reasoning, affective empathy and cognitive empathy, a key attribute in teaching profession. The taster course proved to be very helpful as it integrated peer teaching, weekly reflective journals and group work. The article by YAN Ming and the title “Teaching Classical Chinese at a Liberal Arts College in the United States: Bates College” is suggestive of its content. In the article Yan describes the teaching of the classical Chinese course at Bates College, including the course design, course materials, and actual teaching practice used for the best interest of students, in comparison with the Chinese classical courses at other colleges and universities in the United States and China. The last article in this section is by WANG Lihui and is about “Effective Organisation and Use of Chinese Learning Resources in Native Language Environment”. This is because while there are many more people learning Chinese in native language environment, it is still a common problem that such “natural language and cultural resources” are not effectively utilised. The paper discusses learning strategies so as not only to take advantage, but also to identify and cope with some interfering factors while living and studying in native Chinese language environment.

Section II has seven articles which are concerned with specific issues in teaching aspects of Chinese language, from phonetics to characters and in discussing Chinese grammar. The first one

by KE Ling “On Teaching Pinyin and Chinese Phonetics in the UK University Chinese Courses - a classroom observation and comparison” is based upon her observation of the teaching of pinyin and phonetics in British universities from the point of view of a Chinese language teaching profession from China. Ke offers some analyses of the reasons behind such practice as well as her personal suggestions to address, in her view, the issue of lack of emphasis on pinyin and phonetic teaching.

The next three articles are all about the teaching of Chinese characters, often considered as a bottleneck in the learning and teaching of Chinese language. The first article “On Teaching Chinese Characters to Learners Whose Mother Tongue is an Alphabetic Language”, XU Xiangdong proposes a five step strategy based upon his own teaching experience in Sophia and the “three priority” principle to teach Chinese characters to alphabetic language speakers who find characters most difficult in terms of recognising, memorising and writing. In her article “Chinese Characters Teaching in Non-Chinese Major Courses in UK Universities”, Li Linda Mingfang explores how to learn and teach Chinese characters effectively in university Chinese language courses as few studies have touched upon the specific conditions of UK Chinese language courses and their impact on the teaching of Chinese characters. Based upon her research and practice, she shares her own experiences in teaching characters on university Chinese language courses in a number of HEIs. MIN Shen’s contribution “An Experiment in Using Etymology in Teaching Chinese Characters to Malay Students” reports their experiment in making use of etymological knowledge in teaching Chinese characters to Malay students as an alternative to many other existing methods to teach Chinese characters.

The next three articles are all about aspects of Chinese grammar and how they should be taught in the teaching of CFL. HUANG Xiaohong discusses about “Types of Semantic Implication of — X 就 Y Construction” to which Huang assigned six types of semantic implication and argues that while all the six types share in common that the first clause/part denotes a brief and temporary transition to the second one, only that in Type one purely describes “time” since the rest five can have other semantic connotations depending on the context in which the construction is used. In “On the Appropriate Use of Negation Words 不 and 没”, WU Lingfei first gives a detailed review of the studies of these two most common Chinese negation words, and then compares them to the characteristic of a pair of concepts borrowed from mathematics - differential calculus and integral calculus respectively. He then analyses the use of the two negation words in the light of a new framework he proposes involving a number of new terms such as event and images. The last article “A Study of the Acquisition of Resultative Complement by Intermediate-level Learners of Chinese” by ZHANG Ming Ying reports a survey of the writing by intermediate level learners of Chinese which indicates that there were still gaps in their understanding and use of resultative complement, a rather complicated grammatical item

to learn in CFL. Zhang attributes this partly to the fact that grammar is usually taught at the elementary level and stresses the need for grammar teaching at intermediate level with suggestions on how to take this forward.

The five articles in **Section III** devote themselves to the analyses and discussions of teaching materials. The first two articles examine teaching materials for the teaching of Chinese culture. In “On Cross-cultural Education in Chinese as a Second Language Courses in Japanese Universities - An analysis of Chinese Textbooks in Japan”, QIN Heng reports a survey with analysis of ten different teaching materials on Chinese culture for intermediate level learners of Chinese published in Japan. QIN found that most of them are mere introduction on Chinese culture, usually in time sequence, and few are compiled from the perspective of cross-cultural education. DING Junling’s article “Selection of Intercultural Communication Cases for Business Chinese Textbooks” looks at some principles that should guide the selection of cases with intercultural communication implications for business Chinese course materials, including being systematic, hierarchical and practical. DING also calls for attention to the language used in such selected cases.

The next three articles offer an analysis of CFL teaching materials in terms of how they serve the teaching of grammar, vocabulary and translation studies. In “A Preliminary Comparative Analysis of Three CFL Textbooks in Terms of Their Treatment of Tense and Aspect in Chinese and Italian” CHEN Hsueh Li acknowledges that many Italians seem to have problem in making adequate use of “aspect” in learning Chinese, but points out that this was probably because there is a lack of due attention to the study of aspect amongst Italians whose language also has aspect. Based on a comparative analysis of the treatment of aspect and tense in three well known CFL textbooks published in China, Italy and USA, CHEN explores how aspect and tense are explained and in what time sequence as well as their adequacy for Italian learners of Chinese. Vocabulary is a key part in language learning, and good teaching materials should consider vocabulary carefully in terms of choice, quantity and spread. “A Survey of Quantity and Spread of Vocabularies in CFL Textbooks Published in Taiwan and Mainland China - the cases of Practical Audio-Visual Chinese and New Practical Chinese” by MENG Fanjie gives a comparative study of two sets of well established CFL teaching materials published in Taiwan and Mainland China. The study found that although the overall number of words are similar in the two sets of textbooks, the common core vocabulary only forms about 40% of these vocabularies. The disparity, in MENG’s view is a result of both content selection and lexical differences. The last article by ZHANG Lejin, “An Exploration on Translation Textbook System for Undergraduate Translation Major in Mainland China” is about teaching material development for translation studies in China. With a brief review of the general characteristics of the textbooks with an online survey for the increasingly

popular undergraduate translation major programmes, Zhang commented on a number of drawbacks in current translation course books, such as the lack of cohesion and consistency between chapters in one book and between books of different levels. Zhang also offered some ideas to deal with such issues, including collaboration with employers in translation industry and colleagues teaching on the course.

The final part **Section VI** has four articles and they are all concerned intercultural education, which also includes translation studies. LI Haiwen reiterates in “Teaching Strategies for Chinese Culture Course” that as it is impossible to separate language from its relevant culture, language can only be appropriately used if there is an adequate cultural understanding, and offers four teaching strategies in teaching Chinese culture as part of the effort in teaching Chinese language internationally, partly based upon LI’s own teaching experience. The second article by YUEN Chun-wah and ZENG Jie “Research on Combination of Topics and Collaborative Teaching in Chinese Culture Courses - a brief elaboration of Chinese Culture summer Courses for Overseas Students” is an introduction about the case of a summer Chinese culture course for overseas students at Hong Kong Polytechnic University executed by the Departments of Chinese and Bilingual Education. Three teams of teachers work collaboratively on the programme, each preparing a few topics of lecture based upon their expertise. The paper also discusses about the potential feasibility and wide application of this model.

The last two articles are about translation studies. In his article, “Towards students’ learning activities in an MA translation module: An interview-based study”, ZHENG Bingham reported his research which aimed to “discover the complex relationships between different factors in the nested model of student learning” by analysing and discussing interviews protocols with his MA students. His study revealed that there was a close relationship between the students’ learning processes and their intention, motivation, and conception of learning. His study also confirmed that students’ prior knowledge or background often serves as an important role in their learning process. ZHAO Shuai’s article “Teaching translation between English and Chinese to UG students learning Chinese as a foreign language”, on the other hand, discusses challenges in teaching and learning English and Chinese translation in British university in general with increasing number of students learning Chinese and translation studies. He identified some critical issues related to challenges in teaching and learning translation between English and Chinese and suggested possible solutions to these challenges.

We are grateful to the continuous support from Sinolingua London Ltd. to make the publication of the conference series possible. We also hope you find these papers useful and share with us by means

of this platform your experience and thoughts in the future so as to continue our journey together to mainstream the teaching of CFL nationally, regionally and internationally.

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|第一部分|

Part 1

演绎与归纳法相结合：层次分析语法教学

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摘 要：由于英国中小学英语和外语教育忽略语法教学，对学生运用语言的正确性与精确度要求低，在英国高校学习外语的学生缺乏语法概念，严重影响汉语课程教学大纲的实施，导致许多教与学、学与用、学与考之间的问题。为解决这个问题，本文作者根据第二语言语法习得与语法教学的理论，采用演绎法与归纳法（deductive and inductive presentation）相结合向学生传授教学语法（pedagogic grammar），利用语法术语（metalanguage）的积极作用，对初学者进行了层次分析语法教学。此教学法结合成年人语言习得的特点，设计了具有真实，清晰、简易与相关性的教学语法，在每年二十四周的教学注重其概念共有性与局限性。经过两年的课堂实践，并比较了三届学生的考试成绩，结果表明层次分析法在英国大学的汉语课堂中可行、对提高学生的书面语能力有较好的效果。

关键词：演绎与归纳语法教学 教学语法 语法术语 层次分析法

1. 层次分析语法教学的背景

英国的中小学国家英语教学大纲（1999）是针对七岁至十四岁的学生而制定的。大纲中对学生在听说读写四方面的教学达标内容进行了详细的规定和说明。例如，对英语水平处于第一阶段七岁的小学生，此大纲要求他们能够做到：

‘用叙述和非叙述的方式进行交流，用词恰当，内容丰富，有意思，并能意识到读者的兴趣。与此同时，思想的表达能够有机地安排在几个相关的句子中，大小写与句号的使用不必精确无误。简单的单音字在大部分情况下应该拼写正确，拼写错的只要与读音基本相符即可。字母的书写要精确，大小要一致’（英语教学大纲：55 页，1999）。

显而易见，英国的教育制度对小学低年级学生的写作技巧与用词的准确要求较高，但对书写的准确性却比较低。此大纲未提及学生的语法能力，只在附件中谈到学生写作时应遵守语法规则，并没有规定语法教学的内容与测试语法的标准。虽然这种现象在母语教学中常见，但对不太重视学外语的英国学生来说，其影响很大。

另外，轻视语法教学和学生书写准确性的现象在英国中学外语教学中也很常见。近年来，参加初中毕业汉语考试（GCSE Chinese）的学生越来越多。其试卷有四部分，听力理解，口语，阅读理解和写作。中文考试委员会，Edexcel，的测试大纲中（2012）附有一个语法表，虽然列入了二十七个基本句型为平时教学的内容，但在作文的评分标准中，内容与交际分数占 50%，知识与词汇占 33%，精确度却只占 17%。评分标准对获精确程度最高分的作文是这样描写的：“虽然能成功地应用较复杂的结构，但仍有错句”（Edexcel，27 页：2012）。由此可见，英国的小学母语教育与中学的外语教育都对学生的语法知识和运用语言的精确度不够重视。

由于大多数在英国大学中学汉语的学生都是初学者，他们有的从未学国外语，有的虽然学过，却缺乏基本的语法知识，甚至不知道何谓动词、名词，何谓主语、谓语，并从来没对一个句子进行过语法分析。因此，英国大学的汉语课程经常从最基本的语法概念讲起，教学进度缓慢，成效虽有，但不够理想。学生们不但认为汉语语法难学，而且觉得难于提高使用汉语的准确性。所以，探索英国大学汉语课程语法教学的方法很重要，势在必行。

2. 层次分析语法教学的理论根据

二语习得理论对语法教学的重要性与教学法已进行了多年广泛而深入的研究。首先，二语学习者的语法能力（grammatical competence）一致被认为是他们语言交际能力必不可少的一部分，其包括能使他们正确地运用所学语言的语法组织能力和在交际环境中恰当地使用语言的语用能力（Bachman, 1990; Bachman and Palmer, 1996）。但课堂教学怎样能高效率地向学生传授语法知识，使他们具有较高的语法能力，用所学语言进行成功的交际？对此，学者们纷纷提出了演绎法、归纳法，形式法、语意法，干预法，等等。另外，语法术语是否应该用？用多少？应该教授专业性、描述性的语法（descriptive grammar）还是教授教学语法？

3.1 汉字和汉字策略同时教学

2.1 演绎与归纳语法教学

据 Scrivener (2005) 论述, 演绎语法教学一般先向学生讲述所学语法的特点与结构, 提供例句, 对其形式和意思进行讲解, 然后组织学生进行练习。归纳语法教学采取的方法是, 教师先向学生提供含有所学语法的例句或资料, 让他们注意、发现这些语法现象, 并自己归纳出其特点与用法。如学生有困难, 教师只能“帮助他们探索和寻其规律”(Scrivener, 2005, 265 页)。这两种不同的语法教学各有其长, 也各有其不利之处。有人认为, 归纳法比演绎法效果好, 学生对所学语法理解得更深、更扎实、使用得更好 (Thornbury, 1999)。其原因是, 这种以探索思维方式为基础的教学法使认知过程较深入, 能促进记忆的效果, 促进学生的自学能力与课堂上的互动, (Ellis, 2002; Ellis & Shintani 2014)。但归纳法占用很多宝贵的课堂时间, 而演绎法却比较节省时间, 参照学习者的认知能力, 并符合大多数学生对课堂教学的要求 (Ellis & Shintani 2014)。

因此, Ur (1996) 主张, “学生是否有能较快、独立地、轻松地感知和理解所学语法的规则是选择演绎法还是归纳法的标准”(83 页), 否则会浪费很多课堂时间, 还会使学生在困惑中猜侧, 产生不必要的误解。所以, Gower 与 Walters (1983) 提出, 如果所学语法对学生是全新的内容, 演绎法较合适; 如果学生对所学内容已接触过, 使用归纳法会效率高一些。这就是说, 对缺乏语法知识的初学者, 使用演绎法教学, 以教师的介绍、讲解为主, 比较合适; 对水平高, 所学语法的结构较复杂的学生来说, 演绎法就不一定合适 (Gower, Philips & Walters, 1995)。

目前, 由于大多数人仍是在课堂上学习外语, 大量的研究调查了演绎语法教学的效果, 发现演绎语法教学能使学生较快地改进他们的口语准确度 (White et al., 1991; N.Ellis, 2002)。另外, 演绎法还能对学生书面语的准确度提高比较大 (Negueruela, 2003)。Norris 与 Ortega (2000) 还总结概述了十八个对演绎和归纳教学法研究, 其结论是, 虽然在课堂教学中演绎法似乎比归纳法效率高, 但只有归纳法才能使学生口语的准确度有真正的提高。但 Ellis 和 Shintani (2014) 认为, 要想证实演绎或归纳教学法对学习者的语言习得的优势较难, 其原因是教师在课堂上常常使用的、演绎方式的显示语言指令 (explicit language instruction) 与学生的内在知识 (implicit knowledge) 之间的关系还不清楚。Krashen (1981) 认为, 这两者之间没有关系, 一个是有意识、有意图、够获得知识的学习过程; 一个是无意识、充满意外、自然的语言习得过程。DeKeyser (1998) 却认为, 这两者之间有紧密的联系。学习者, 特别是成年学习者的语言习得是在接受了显示语言指令, 获得明确的知识内容后, 经过实践, 转化为运用语言的内在知识的。

近年来, 社会文化理论 (Sociocultural Theory) 的学者强调 “经过整理、概念化强的语法

知识”的重要性 (Negueruela, 2003)。他们提倡系统理论性 (Systemic-Theoretical Instruction) 的语法教学 (Galperin, 1989, 1992), 并认为学习者只有在能够清楚地述说所学语法的概念之后, 语言习得才会发生, 自然的运用才会发生。很显然, 社会文化理论也主张教师的显示语言指令, 以演绎的方式对语法教学内容进行连贯的理论性组织, 用图表和示意图介绍语法结构。

2.2 教学语法

张志公 (1998) 认为我们对汉语语法本质认识并不清楚, 应该对一些根本性的问题做进一步的探讨。Tang (2013) 提出, 由于现在的汉语语法很不成熟, 对外汉语教学不能太多地依赖语法教学, 但不能不讲语法。关键在于教师心中要有数, 恰当适量地进行语法教学。刘德金 (2006) 提倡对外汉语语法教学不教词汇, 不教属于共知范畴的语法常识, 要充分利用第二语言学习者的认知能力与有限的课堂时间, 教学生最需要的、最有用的语法规则, 避免他们在学习语法的过程中产生‘被幼稚化’的反感心理。

在西方, Swan (1994) 提出教学语法的理念, 将其定义为“那种为帮助外语学习者理解所学语言的某一个语言现象而设计的语法规则” (45 页)。这就是说, 语法教学是为学生量体裁衣而设计的语法内容。应既符合学生所处的学习阶段, 又符合学生的认知能力。Swan 于 2005 年进一步阐述说, 如果需要, 对教学语法的设计还可以针对某一个学生的学习背景, 语言习得阶段及喜欢的学习方式。由于教学语法常常是教师根据专业语法知识设计的语法教学内容, Ur (1996) 提倡教学语法要处理好其真实性与实用性的关系, 教者对语法规则的介绍要包括学生能够经常遇到的实例, 应避免面面俱到。

Thornbury (1999) 根据 Swan (1994) 的理念和 Ur (1996) 的提议, 为教学语法规定了六个标准: 真实性, 局限性, 明确性, 简易性, 概念共有性和相关性。他要求教学语法应是在现实中使用的语法规则, 但其局限性必须向学生交代清楚, 其歧义及解释它们时所用的术语应尽量避免。教学语法还应该简易、好懂。教师对它们的讲解要与学生已知的语法知识相结合。最后, 教学语法必须只包含学者需要知道的内容, 不相关的应排除。更重要的是, 教学语法不求全面性, 却求实用性和针对性。

2.3 语法术语的作用

前面提到, 在教授教学语法时, 教者应尽量避免使用语法术语 (Thornbury, 1999), 因为很多学者认为过多使用语法术语会增加学生学习语法的负担 (Mohammed, 1996)。然而, 很多西方的外语教师却有不同的看法, 他们认为使用语法术语能帮助学生更好地学习语法 (Borg, 1998, 1999)。Hu (2010) 的研究发现能较好掌握语法术语的学生有四个优势, 他们不但对复杂的语法现象理解得较清楚、精确, 还可以与他们已学的语法知识更好地结合起来, 能有

效地避免对语法原意不需要的概括化。

Ellis (2004) 研究了使用语法术语与学生对语法知识的掌握之间的相关性, 发现成年学习者中, 对语法术语掌握好的, 对所学语法知识也会掌握得好。在 Roehr (2008) 的研究中, 60 位在某英国大学学德语的学生参加了两个语法考试, 一个测试他们对语法术语的掌握; 另一个测试他们德语语法的知识。结果是两者之间的相关指数为 0.81, 充分证明语法术语对语法知识的掌握很重要。最后, Elder 与 Manwaring (2004) 对在澳大利亚某大学学生的汉语水平进行测试的同时, 还测试了他们对语法术语的理解, 结果证明两个考试的相关性也很高。然而, 值得我们注意的是, 这些研究调查的不是学生们是否能够用语法术语讲解语法现象, 而是他们对法术语的理解。

综上所述, 演绎式语法教学可能比较适合课堂教学, 适合认知能力较强、语法知识欠缺、希望课堂教学使用显示语言指令的学生; 而归纳式语法教学可能更适合水平较高的学生和自然语言习得的环境。演绎法在课堂教学中, 效果好像比较明显, 能改善学习者的书面语和口语的准确度。教师所使用的显示语言指令具有演绎思维的特点, 有些学者, 特别是社会文化理论的学者, 认为它与学习者内在的语言知识有直接的联系。在对汉语语法研究还不够成熟的情况下, 设计适合学生特点与学生背景的教学语法, 进行符合他们认知能力的、简易、明了、实用性强的语法教学, 很有必要。虽然很多学者不同意语法术语教语法, 但研究表明, 如果认知能力较强的大学生对语法术语熟悉, 他们在语法或汉语水平考试中的成绩相应也会比较好。

3. 层次分析语法教学的设计与课堂实施

本研究参照了二语习得理论对演绎与归纳式语法教学的研究, 针对英国大学生汉语初学者缺乏语法知识的情况, 基于以下要求, 对教授汉语句法结构的层次分析法进行了设计。

层次分析法要考虑到学习者是成年人, 认知能力较强。虽然他们非常缺乏语法知识, 但不能让他们感到课堂上的语法教学太‘小儿科’, 要使学生在认知上受到挑战。

一, 层次分析法要符合英国大学的外语教育较重视规范的特点, 考虑到大多数学生倾向于教师知识输入 (input), 在课堂教学中应使用显示语言指令。

二, 层次分析法的设计要适合汉语课程的设置与内容, 考虑到非专业汉语课程的特点, 要基于课本进行重新设计既具普遍性, 又具实用性的教学语法知识。

三, 层次分析法还要注重讲解语法规则的清晰、简明性, 并于归纳法想结合, 运用启发式提问, 引导学生把所学内容与他们已知的语法知识或熟悉的语言进行比较, 悟出新的语法规则。

四, 层次分析法应使用适量的、基本的语法术语, 避免所教授的语法内容产生歧义, 但介绍语法术语的方法应简洁, 易懂、生动, 帮助学生理解与记忆这些术语。

五, 层次分析法应与测试相结合, 巩固学生学到的知识, 使他们能够系统地概念化语法知

识，并在运用中习得。

六，这就是说，层次分析法以演绎法为主，归纳法为副，适合学习者的背景和他们对课堂教学的要求，不但高效率地利用课堂时间，而且为学生提供探索思维的空间。其目的是使他们的学习认知过程较深入，增强学习效率。教学中，层次分析法的课堂实践有如下六个步骤：

第一步：在学生理解课文内容，学会生词后，用学生已熟悉的句子，教师用英语介绍基本的语法术语，如：主语、谓语、定语、宾语、名词、动词、形容词，等等。教师还为这些术语提供了‘别名’，如：the doer, the action or behaviour, the do words, the name words, the describing words。这些术语都有缩写，如：主语是 S，谓语是 P，名词是 N，动词是 V，情态动词是 M Verb，等等。

第二步：教授汉语句子的基本成分，如：主谓句，主谓宾句，主谓状句，等等。但教师不向学生提及专业语法对它们的分类，并尽量简化这些成分。例如，定中结构与壮中结构被称为名词短语和动词短语。

第三步：参照黄伯荣与廖序东（2007）所介绍的层次分析法，向学生介绍汉语句子的结构层次。先介绍在高层次中的大结构，如：主语、谓语，再逐步介绍下面层次中的小结构，如：宾语、定语、状语。最后介绍的是词类，主要的目的是使学生了解各种词类在句中所担任的角色，例如，主、谓、宾、定、状。

第四步：练习阶段，由教师辅助的层次分析开始，到学生的独立分析。分析的句子都是学生所熟悉的，以体现教学语法的概念共有性与相关性。教师对学生最初的分析不要求完全、彻底，可以分析第一层的主谓结构，也可以深入下去，但在学期结束时，学生必须做到能够分析到最低一层，辨认其所包括的词类及它们的句子成分。下面的例子可以被看作是一个比较完整的分析。

第一层： 我妈妈 想喝中国茶。

第二层：

宾语

第三层：

定语

定语

第四层：

代词

名词

情态动词 动词

名词

名词

例一：层次分析法例句

第五步：巩固阶段，使用教材中或教师自编的归纳式语法练习，如：多种选择、改错句、组句、翻译、根据画线部分提问，等等。由于这些练习完全脱离了层次分析法的形式，为学生提供了观察与研究句子结构与其规范程度的机会，使学生能够进行归纳性的思维。

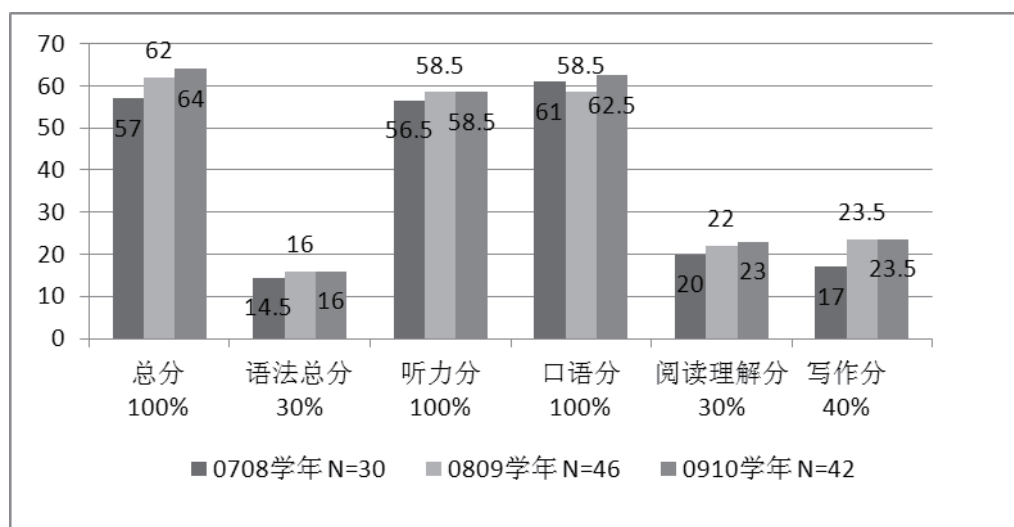
第六步：测试阶段，将层次语法分析纳入期末笔试考卷语法部分，为三种语法考题之一，占卷面的 10%。这种做法不但能增强学生对层次分析法的语法学习重视，而且使他们有机会通过其它方式检验自己的汉语语法能力。

需要说明的是，在讲解和启发学生练习层次分析法时，教师一般采取‘苏格拉底’式的提问法。例如，在教授或练习主谓宾结构时，教师会用英语或中文问学生：“谁喝咖啡？”、“她做什么？”、“她喝什么？”，使学生更好地理解主语、谓语、宾语的概念。Scrivener (2005) 在论述归纳式语法教学时，极力推荐这种提问方式，认为教师可以通过一系列事先设计好的提问，有效地引导学生学习语法。

4. 层次分析语法教学的效果与讨论

此研究包括三届 118 名大学一年纪的学生。他们在上大学前没有学过汉语，学习的专业是中国当代研究或西语与中国研究的双学位。这三组学生分别在 0708，0809 和 0910 学年学习汉语一级，每周学时为六，其中两小时是练习课。学生们在一学年中有两次考试，其中有笔试、口试和听力。笔试中有阅读理解、语法和作文部分。0708 届的学生没有学习层次语法分析。学了分析法的 0809 和 0910 届学生普遍反映，这种学习语法的方法比较适合他们对汉语句子的理解，层次结构比较也是他们比较熟悉的认知形式。但有的学生觉得语法术语难记，句子成分的概念难懂。

作者对这三届学生一年纪两次考试的成绩进行了统计，比较了他们的总分、语法、口语、听力、阅读理解和作文分的平均分（见图一）。另外，为了调查学生整体语法能力的状况，作者还比较了他们的层次分析考题的得分和其它语法考题的得分（见表一）。需要说明的是，三年中，作文和口语评分标准没有改变，口语的主考官和批卷老师都是同一人。按照英国大学严格的评分制度，学生的分数必须在另一考官进行抽查、检验后，才能最后决定。因此，分数的一致性与可靠性比较稳定。



图一：2007 到 2010 一年级学生考试总分、听说读写、语法总分平均分比较

图一中的数据表明，0809 届和 0910 届的学生学习了层次分析法，他们的课程总分、语法总分、阅读理解及作文分有较明显的提高。但他们的听力和口语分数的变化却不能说明他们没有学层次分析法 0708 届的学生学得好，在听力与口语上能力比较强。

学年与学生平均分	0708 学年	0809 学年	0910 学年
考题类型与分数			
语法总分 30%	14.5	16	16
层次分析 10%	无	6	5
按划线部分提问 10%	4	无	无
写问句 10%	无	4	6
改错句 10%	3.5	4.5	5
组句 10%	6	无	无
翻译 10%	无	3	无
语法判断 10%	6	6	无
填空 10%	5.3	无	无

表 1：2007 到 2010 一年级学生笔试中语法得分平均分比较

表 1 是三届学生语法考试的题型与学生所得的平均分。虽然 0809 届和 0910 届的学生的语法总分比 0708 届学生的高，但提高的幅度不很大。较明显的变化是学生在改错句题型上的得分。此题总分为 10 分，0708 届学生所得的平均分只有 3.5 分，而且交白卷的较多。其它两届学生的成绩提高到 4.5 和 5，交白卷的人数大大减少。改错句是一种现实性与综合性都较强的语法测试方法，对学生的句法和语意知识要求比较高，所以英国大学中学汉语的学生都觉得这种考题难，交白卷的很常见。但在学习了层次分析法后，0809 和 0910 届的学生有明显的提高，

这似乎说明他们在此学习初学阶段的语法能力比 0708 年的学生强, 对病句较敏感, 并能辨析其错误, 进行改正。

比较三届学生课程考试的成绩, 我们可以看到的另一个明显变化是, 学习了层次分析法学生的书面语言能力比没学过此方法的学生要强。这可能是因为他们对汉语句子的结构与句子成份有了更清楚的认识和了解, 对组成各成份的字与短语的辨认和理解也较准确。所以在阅读理解汉语段落时, 理解较快, 误解或不解比较少, 使得他们阅读理解的准确性很高, 0809 届的学生达到了 73.3%, 0910 届的学生达到了 76.7%。这在汉语初学者中是比较突出的。另外, 0809 和 0910 届学生的作文平均分也比 0708 届学生的高。0708 届学生的写作平均分只有 42.5, 而 0809 和 0910 届学生的平均分是 58.75, 提高了 16 分多, 幅度较大。这表明层次语法分析法教学能使学生提高写做能力, 在书面语的表达、选词、语法结构及写汉字方面受益, 增强了他们使用汉语书面语的准确性。

但是, 0809 与 0910 届学生在听力和口语考试中得分的变化却不能说明他们比没有学过层次分析法的 0708 届学生在听力与口语方面有任何优势。在 100 分的卷面中, 0809 和 0910 届学生的听力平均分只提高了 2 分。0809 届学生的口语成绩甚至降低了。这说明层次分析法的教学对学生的口头语言能力影响不明显。他们对汉语句子结构与成份的认识似乎没能帮助他们提高发音的准确度、口语的流利度、用词和语法的精确, 他们汉语对话的理解和辨别语音语调的能力也没有进步。

5. 结语

层次分析法针对学生缺乏基本语法知识的现况, 将演绎与归纳教学法相结合, 设计了教授英国大学生分析汉语句子结构的层次法。此法使用基本的语法术语引导学生分析汉语句成分, 并与循序渐进、归纳式的练习和课程测试结合, 使学生的语法能力及书面语的能力有所提高。然而, 层次分析法没有能提高他们的听力和口语能力。这可能是由于只有归纳法才能提高学生的口语 (Norris and Ortega, 2000); 这可能是由于层次分析法的输入方式以演绎法为主, 大部分使用的是显示语言指令 (Ellis and Shintani, 2014)。但在显示语言指令与语言习得之间的关系仍不清楚的前提下, 我们还不能说具有演绎思维特点的层次分析法与 0809 和 0910 届学生口语与听力提高不明显有直接的关系。进一步的研究可更详尽地分析学生作文与口语中的各项表现。另外, 此研究是一个横向 (cross-sectional) 研究, 纵向 (longitudinal) 研究可以调查层次分析法是否使学生在校三年的学习受益, 以便全面地评估此汉语语法教学法。

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“语用点”在对外汉语初级班教学中的应用

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摘 要: 本文介绍了“语用点”对话练习在我校对外汉语初级班教学中的应用。文章主要分三部分: 首先, 归纳总结出我校初级班教学大纲中的语用点, 举例说明配合这些语用点所设计出的课堂语用点对话练习。其次, 重点对上述练习在我校初级班的使用方法做出相应的说明, 包括题目的设置、具体操作等方法, 也印证了不同的输入方式会影响学生有效语言的输出。最后, 作者对初级班语用点测试方面的信息做了详细的介绍, 如: 测试的形式、评分的方式等。

关键词: 语用点 对话练习 初级班汉语教学 测试

摘 要: 本文介绍了“语用点”对话练习在我校对外汉语初级班教学中的应用。文章主要分两部分: 首先, 归纳总结出我校初级班教学大纲中的语用点, 举例说明配合这些语用点所设计出的课堂语用点对话练习。其次, 重点对上述练习在我校初级班的使用方法做出相应的说明, 包括题目的设置、具体操作等方法, 也印证了不同的输入方式会影响学生有效语言的输出。

关键词: 语用点 对话练习 初级班汉语教学

对外汉语教学发展至今, 已经有越来越多的学者和教师开始更加重视培养学生的“语言能力”, 并把它作为教学的主要目的。“在交际语言能力理论看来, 语言能力不仅仅指人们掌握语音、词汇、语法、文字等要素的程度或水平, 还包括社会语言能力、语用能力、策略能力、语篇处理能力等方面 (Hymes, 1972; Bachman, 1990; North, 2000)” (方绪军等, 2011)。就口语而言, 就是“说话得体” (吴伟平, 2012), 这是一个社会语言学的概念, 学生要做到“正确的使用语言”还必须要了解相关的语境因素。“20 世纪中期开始, 社会语言学家关于语言和社会、语言与文化方面的研究 (Lado 1957, Green 1989, Hu & Grove 1998), 特别是海姆斯关于语言交际能力方面的学说 (Hymes 1977), 还有近年来很多关于文化在语言教学中地位的讨论 (李晓琪 2006, 郭熙 2007), 这些理论和应用研究使我们更清楚地看到语境和相关文化因素在语言教学中的重要性” (吴伟平, 2009)。如何把社会语言学的研究落实到教学实践中, 使学生在学

习语言结构的同时可以得体运用语言，都是我们需要积极思考的问题。本文将主要探讨“语用点”的对话练习在香港中文大学对外汉语初级班教学中的应用。

1. 语用为纲的任务型教学理论

以“语用点”为纲的任务型教学大纲就是一个以语言的实际运用为出发点的教学大纲，它考虑了语言运用中的功能、内容和语境等多个主要因素。“具体操作为先根据学生的求学目的设计出一个以语用点为重点的水平测试（如 COPA）来带动教学，再以水平测试中不同等级的任务为参照点定出教学大纲，根据教学大纲编写相应的教材和辅助教材”（吴伟平，2006）。在这个“语用大纲”（吴伟平，2009）中，“语用点”是最基本的单位，在具体的教学操作中，是依据研究结果及常识确定“语用点”的难度，并按照先易后难的排列原则挑选出一部分有代表性的“语用点”，让学习者在有限的时间内学习。

1.1 语用点

何为“语用点”呢？“在测试开路的指引下，COPA 的题库中现有五百多个题目，按难度分成三个不同等级，每个等级各有难度相似的十个语言功能，每个功能又根据不同的语境和内容衍生出不同的题目。从微观的角度看，五百多个题目就是五百多个语用点，从宏观的角度看，同一功能的题目虽然语境和内容有所不同，可本质仍然可以归入同一个语用点。在任务为本的教学大纲中，题库中的每一道题目就是一个任务，每一个任务既是测试点，也是教学点”（吴伟平，2006）。概括来说，语用点就是“语言功能”加“语境”。

1.2 我校初级班教材中的“语用点”

鉴于我校对外汉语初级班（一年级）的现行教材《功夫》（一）并不是以语用为纲来编制的，受条件所限，我们只好在现行教材的基础上，根据研究成果及已经存在的测试（COPA）中的语言点，归纳总结出适合初级班的“语用点”，来完善初级班的语用大纲，也为今后的教材改革或编写提供一些素材。

Wu（2011）曾按照中、高、特级的不同等级，归纳出了语言使用系统中的代表性“语用点”。这些语用点虽未提及初级部分，但却为我们设定初级班的语言点提供极好的借鉴意义。以下是笔者同我校其他教师一起，根据前人的研究成果，以及我校初级班所使用的教材《功夫》（一），概括出的初级班教学中具有代表性的“语用点”，见表一。

表一:《功夫》(一)第一课到第十五课的“语用点”

任务类别	具体任务
介绍	个人、家人、班级、生日会、课程(时间)、作息时间、校园(方位)、运动场地、商场、饭馆儿
邀约(打电话)	看电影、听音乐、吃饭、过生日、做运动、买东西
请假(打电话)	自己跟老师请假、给同学请假
预定(打电话)	订票、订书、定场地、定饭馆儿
购物	询问价格、讨价还价
点菜吃饭	请客、AA制

2. “语用点”的对话练习在教学中的应用

“根据任务型教学的理论 (Littlewood, 2005), 所有语用点在交际任务的五分法中, 均属有组织的交际任务或真实交际任务”(吴伟平, 2006)。同时, 任务型语言教学主张“用中学”、“做中学”和“体验中学”(赵金明, 2008)。“虽然大部分人还是认同先学后用的概念并用以指导语言教学的实践, 为了让学生在注重结构的同时也关注得体二字, 应该有更多学用并重, 用中学的尝试, 更积极的探讨知识和运用同步进行的可能性”(吴伟平, 2012)。

我校对外汉语初级班(一年级)所使用的教材是《功夫》(一), 一个学期结束后, 应该学完第十五课, 共 15 课。我们采取三天学一课书的方式, 每天上三节课, 每节课 50 分钟。其中第一天会介绍词汇和语法, 第二天学完课文之后会专门用一节课来做当课的“语用点”的对话练习。比方说, 在第七课中, 学生会学到“打电话”和“请假”的功能, 我们就设置了这样一个“语用点”对话练习:“请你给老师打电话请假, 因为你的朋友明天从你的国家来香港, 你想去接他。”这些练习都是模拟语境练习, 希望学生可以通过该练习把所学的词汇语法知识, 放到具体语境中去应用, 尽可能的实现学用并重。而在最后的测试中, 我们也设计了相应的“语用点”对话练习题目来检测学生的语言能力, 这些都会在稍后进行详细说明。在下一节中, 即, 2.1, 笔者将会从题目设置等方面, 进行详细的说明。

2.1 练习题的设置

这一节将具体探讨一下, 在设计“语用点”对话练习时, 所遵循的任务式的三个主要“设计原则”(刘壮等, 2007):

2.1.1 真实性原则 (authenticity principle)

我校初级班所有“语用点”的任务练习都是真实或模拟真实的。在设置练习时，一定会与现实的目标任务建立起联系，激发学生积极参与其中的兴趣，同时启动学生所学的语言结构。例如在学到“程度补语”时，我们用“介绍”这个功能，设置了这样一个任务：“你们班来了一位新老师，他想知道大家学中学得怎么样，请你给新老师介绍一下。”为完成这个任务，学生不得不根据当时班里的情况，以自己的真实身份参与到任务中，用所学的语言结构表达自己对同学汉字和说话水平的看法。同样是教师与学生的对答，把它赋予任务的意义便具有了真实的交际意义。

2.1.2 形式——功能原则 (form-function principle)

“这一原则是在真实性原则的基础上，将语言形式和功能的关系明确化，让学习者在任务履行中充分感受语言形式和功能的关系，以及语言与语境的关系，增强学习者对语言得体性的理解”（陈静、李森，2009）。以上所提到的“介绍”的任务就可以使学生更加清楚在具体的语境中，如何得体的使用所学的词汇语法知识。

2.1.3 循序渐进原则 (task dependency and the task chain principle)

“在任务型教学中，一堂课的若干任务或一个任务的若干子任务应是相互关联、具有统一的教学目的或目标指向，同时在内容上相互衔接”（陈静、李森，2009）。比如《功夫》（一）第八课中的语用点是“介绍新同学和给新同学介绍学校方位”，对此我们设计了这样一组任务：

（1）你们班新来了一位新同学，他是你的朋友，请你给你的同班同学介绍一下儿。

这个练习是仿照当课的课文内容来设置的，把课文里的故事与现实相结合，让学生更加清楚在这样的功能语境下，应该使用什么样的语言，也为后边的两个练习做铺垫。

（2）认识了新同学以后，请你给新同学介绍一下你们学校。（教师可以给学生提供一个简易校园地图，也可以让学生自行设计一个地图）

这个任务的功能非常突出，就是要让学生学会介绍校园的方位。而有了上一个任务的铺垫，确定了说话的对象和场合，把对话放到具体的语境中，学生既可以学习在该语境中，如何用所学语言知识对未知的事物（校园的方位）进行发问，又可以更灵巧的掌握用已知的语言知识来解答问题的技巧，全方面的提高语言能力。

（3）你想约新同学一起去学校里的一个地方，请你给他打电话。（仍需使用简易的校园地图）

在前两个任务的基础上，希望学生可以在邀约的功能下，综合运用所学词汇语法知识。让学生在“给新同学打电话”的功能语境中，利用练习（2）中熟练掌握的方位用语来实现邀约。

这一原则中任务与任务之间的联系紧密，在课堂上需要循序渐进按一定的步骤和程序来实

施，以达到教学上和逻辑上的连贯与流畅。

还需注意的是，在设计“语用点”对话练习时，需要时刻秉承语用为纲的教学目的，也就是说练习的着眼点在于“语用”而不是“语言点”。初期设计题目时，笔者与其他老师大多具有这样的困惑，即第一时间往往关注最多的仍为语言结构本身，而对于语言形式“在什么情况下说”、“对谁说”、以及“为什么这样说”等都缺乏思考，因此设计出来的题目有时更像“语法强化练习”。到目前为止，对于初级班（一年级）的“语用点”对话练习，我校已经正式使用了两个学期了（之前试行过两个学期），目前呈现出的题目也是先经过实践的检验，再经过反复修改逐步稳定下来的，具有较强的语用功能，当然其中还有很多不足之处，有待进一步的完善。

在下一小节中，即 2.2，笔者会举例说明我校“语用点”对话练习的具体操作方法。与第一个学期相比，第二个学期的方法稍有不同，同时文章也将会讨论第二个学期使用的方法带来的不同的效果，详见 2.2.5 的讨论。

2.2 具体操作方法

“任务式的研究者 Willis (1996) 和 Skehan (1998) 主张的教学模式是：注意交际性，又在总体层次上考虑语言形式，不以牺牲任何一方为代价，在有意义的语言使用环境中聚焦形式，以保持二者的均衡。Willis (1996) 提出了三个实施阶段：任务前 (pre-task)，包括介绍话题和任务；任务轮 (task cycle)，包括执行任务、计划和报告；语言焦点 (language focus)，即任务后，包括分析和操练。Skehan (1998) 丰富、发展了 Willis 的三阶段模式”（刘壮等 2007）。

下面我们将以初级班教材《功夫》（一）第十四课的任务设计为例，介绍我们是如何按照这三个任务阶段在课堂中展开练习的。

先介绍一下《功夫》（一）第十四课的词语和语法知识，见表二。

表二：《功夫》（一）第十四课 你点菜吧！

生词	点菜、饭馆儿、服务员、小姐、菜单、念、遍、次、菜名、请、真的、担心、开玩笑、常、应该、要、一共、又、记、送、尝、哎呀、辣、中餐、西餐、鱼、鸡、牛肉、羊肉、猪肉、青菜、糖醋鱼、家常豆腐、辣子鸡丁、汤、瓶、杯、牛奶、饮料、啤酒、汽水儿、可乐、果汁、茶、咖啡
语言点	(1) (是) ……还是……? (2) (变化) 了 (3) 动量补语 (次、遍)

通过观察词汇和语法，我们不难得出，这一课“语用点”练习的内容是完成基本的“点菜吃饭”任务。另外，考虑到我校初级班一共学十五课，第十四课已经接近学期的尾声，为了考察学生一个学期下来综合的语言能力，我们设计了如下这组任务：

(1) 你知道一家很好吃的中国饭馆儿，所以你约同学一起去尝尝，不过，你的同学想约你

去别的饭馆儿，请你一定要约到你的同学跟你一起去。

(2) 到了饭馆儿以后，服务员不会说英文，你们得用中文点菜。

a. 你们一个人最多只能用 100 块钱吃饭，两个人先看看菜单，说说想吃什么菜。(给学生提供菜单)

b. 请服务员来点菜，告诉服务员你们想吃什么。

任务的语境因素表现在：“说话对象”是同学和饭馆儿的服务员；“说话场合”包括非正式和正式两种。

2.2.1 任务前阶段 (pre-task)

首先，教师要向学生讲解任务，引导学生明确任务要求与内容；

在讲解任务时，教师所使用的语言应该为学生容易理解的，例如该组题目，选择使用的目的语都是学生学过的，未使用生词。若需要出现少量生词时，可辅以学生的母语进行讲解。

其次，确定任务后，应根据任务来决定在执行任务阶段所要用到的语言项目。

“有很多教师认为，任务型口语教学强调输出，输出大于输入。这样会忽视语言形式，特别是语言的准确性。而任务型口语教学中，任务前没有严格意义的语言形式的讲解，因此学习者对语言形式的关注是建立在既定意义的基础之上，属于自发行为。因此教师需要精心设计任务，任务中暗含学习者最有可能注意到的语言形式，并且注意这些语言形式的复现率”（许希阳，2009）。也有学者认为“任务型教学并不排斥对语言形式的练习。‘语言训练的目的是为了使学生学习者用正确的语言形式去完成任务 (Wilis, 2004)’”（温晓虹 2011）。

教师可以通过多样化的形式，提供一些任务前的输入，引导学生寻找完成任务的途径或者引导学生探寻完成任务的策略。比如，“广告、录音、图片、视频、新闻、问卷调查、头脑风暴等等”（许希阳，2009）。

对于第一个任务的“头脑风暴”，教师可以设置一些问题，通过问题的答案为学生完成任务提供一些有关的词语、句型。比如可利用黑板或多媒体给出下表中的问题，见表三，通过提问引导学生自行填充各自想去的那家（A 或 B）的特点，帮助学生粗略完成底稿。

表三：你想去哪个饭馆儿？

	A 饭馆儿	B 饭馆儿
离学校（家）远不远？	e.g. 离学校很远	e.g. 离家很近
贵还是便宜？一个人要多少钱？	e.g. 一个人 100RMB	e.g. 一个人 50RMB
饭馆儿里的饭好吃吗？ 都有什么菜？	e.g. 好吃 辣子鸡丁、家常豆腐、糖醋鱼	e.g. 马马虎虎 啤酒很便宜
饭馆儿的服务怎么样？ （服务员呢？中文说得怎么样？）	e.g. 服务不错，服务员中文说得很好，可以去那儿练习中文	e.g. 服务员很漂亮

去过很多次了还是没去过?	e.g. 只去过一次	e.g. 去过很多次了
你请朋友吃还是让朋友请你吃?	e.g. 让朋友请我	e.g. 我可以请

问题的设置,就是一种在语境中的语言形式的训练,可以让学生更清楚在这个任务中可能用到的词汇、句型和表达方式等。教师还可以适当引入新的语言知识,引导学生对已有的知识进行重构。比方说,在这个任务中,若想达到说劝的目的,可以教会学生这样的句子:“这次先去 A,下次我们再去 B,怎么样?”、“如果你这次跟我去 A,我可以请你”等等。其实句子中的词汇和语法都是学生学过的,只是在这个语境下使用这样的“交际套语”,是不被学生所熟悉的,应当引起学生的重视。提问的另一个目的,也是在鼓励学生多把握机会练习说话,因此一定不要让学生花太多时间练习写,因为课上时间有限,应当把这种写的工作放到课下进行。当然,适当时可允许学生记一些要点。

“需要注意的是,据研究 (Foster & Skehan, 1996), 10 分钟的计划时间可对流利性和复杂性产生最佳效果,但计划时间的长短对准确性影响不大;由学生自己计划时间而不予指导,学生往往注意语言形式,若教师同时给出内容和语言两方面的建议,学生则更多地注重内容,在表达上也可使语言更具复杂性”(刘壮等 2007)。

2.2.2 任务轮 (task cycle)

首先,教师要考虑给学生多长时间的准备时间;其次是执行任务阶段,也可以说是完成任务的核心阶段;最后是进行任务汇报的阶段,即学生向同学和教师报告任务完成的情况。对于以上提到的这一课书的两大任务,通常我们会让学生在第一个任务报告完、教师回馈结束后才会开展第二个任务。

“Willis (1996:52) 和 Skehan (1998:145-147) 认为执行任务阶段必须考虑注意力的分配,其特定方式会影响到完成任务的有效性与达到三性的均衡。影响注意力分配的因素有:时间压力、表达语体、辅助信息、额外信息、掌控情况、利害关系等。当时间压力越大时,学生对语言形式即准确性、复杂性的注意也就越少。在执行口语任务时,时间压力迫使学生要满足流利性的需求,只有极少时间分配给在线计划和对形式的注意。提供一些辅助信息如图片等视觉信息时,可使学生在某些方面减缓压力,使执行任务的行为更准确。学生也可以通过意义协商,控制任务的完成方式,使任务向着感兴趣的方向发展”(刘壮等 2007)。

对于第一个任务来说,表三的这些辅助信息,使学生在完成任务时更容易抓住重点,在短时间内更准确地用得体的语言表达出来。对于第二任务,我们是通过自行设计的菜单加以辅助的,并且在学生执行任务中,也会为他们提供一些印有各类食物和酒水的图片,使交际更加趋于真实,这个任务适当给了学生一些发挥的空间。但是对于课堂练习来说,时间压力相对都比较大,一直都会对学生语言形式表达的准确性有不同程度的影响,因此在这方面,教师不应对学生的要求太苛刻,只要学生能基本得体完成任务就应当予以认可。对于学生在执行任务中出

现的错误,教师不用也不可能当场一一纠正,可以进行适当记录,并在学生完成任务后再做回馈。

2.2.3 任务后阶段(语言焦点 language focus)

“Willis (1996: 52) 和 Skehan (1998: 147- 148) 认为,在任务后进行适当的讨论有益于达到某种特定目标,因为在执行任务时,如果教师不干预,则学生往往偏重意义,而忽略对语言系统长期发展有重大意义的语言形式。所以,在任务后的活动中可组织学生对任务反思并关注形式;在相关分析之后也可重新执行任务,学生会对形式予以更多的关注,语言的准确性、复杂性都会有很大的提高”(刘壮等 2007)。

笔者认为,在学生汇报任务的过程中,不仅老师要记录学生的情况,所有学生都应当共同参与,这对所有学生来说都是一个取长补短的好机会。教师应当对学生在完成任务中出现的错误进行分析反思。对于出现频率较高的错误,应该再集体进行反复的操练或另行设计有针对性的练习,以引起学生的高度注意;对于精彩的部分,应该组织学生一起学习。有些教师还会在课后,给学生一些书面的回馈,这些都应当是值得提倡的方法。有教师提出,在回馈之后再给学生布置一个延伸任务,再次检验和深化学生对语言知识的掌握。

许希阳(2009)指出,应该在任务后的阶段提供“文本”的输入:“文本的作者可以是母语者、教师、水平较高的留学生。具体的办法有三种:一、请母语者、水平较高的留学生完成类似的口语任务,录音保存,并转写为文本形式;二、从报刊杂志上选取相关的目的语文章或是从以前学生作业中选取合适的文章;三、教师根据学习者的中介语状况,列出最接近的句型,在母语者、水平高一些学生的文章基础上进行改写、编写。

2.2.4 讨论

首先,这项教学任务是在真实语境中进行的语言活动,因此,学生在积极地参与执行任务,一直处于教学活动的中心,而教师的角色更多的是组织和指导,说明学生顺利完成任务。其次,这样的交际任务不仅可以使学生得体使用原有的语言知识,有时也可以让学生更积极地用新的语言形式表达更复杂的内容。此外,这样的练习可以真实的反映出学生的语言能力,使教师可以在课堂上更容易找到学生学习的困难所在,更有针对性的给予指导。但是,从学生的完成任务的效果来看,有很多时候,学生的“有效语言输出”经常与教师的预期相差甚远,明明教师在任务前反复对语言形式进行了强化训练,学生在输出目的语时,还是会不停的犯相同的错误,而且这样的情况并不在少数。相信这些与以上提到的注意力分配的因素有很大关系。

从语言习得的角度来看,温晓虹(2013)指出,“语言习得过程是一个由语言输入到输出的过程,输入是手段,输出是目的”。可以说学生输出的目的语,是与“输入”相辅相成的。她还引用 Krashen (1982, 1985) 的观点,认为“语言的获得建立在理解的基础上,通过吸收‘可理解的输入’信息来获得语言知识。之后,学习者还要把‘可理解输入’转化成为‘吸收’,

并使之逐渐发展成为内隐的语言系统，最后达到有效的‘输出’”。

为改善我校初级班学生在完成“语用点”对话练习时的输出情况，教师是否也可从“输入 - 吸收 - 输出”的角度反思整个教学过程，来提高学生的语言能力呢？前人的这些理论研究，都为我们的教学提供了极好的借鉴意义。

2.2.5 完善“任务前”的输入，增加“任务后”的输入

语用为纲的学习过程充分贯彻语言运用是整个学习过程的有机组成部分，过程如下（吴伟平 2009）：

- (1)（过程开始）找出语言运用的重要因素，包括语言形式和相关语境
- (2) 来自真实（或模拟）语境的语料
- (3) 语境中的语料解释
- (4) 语境中的语料练习和回馈
- (5) 侧重语言运用的测试（过程结束）

反思第一个学期的教学，我们是否为学生提供了足够的“真实（或模拟）语境语料”呢？许希阳（2009）任务前后的双重“输入”，给了我们很大的启示。因此，我们对第二个学期开展的“语用点”对话练习做了一些改良，即，完善了“任务前”的输入，增加了“任务后”的输入。具体做法如下：

- (1) 为“语用点”对话练习配备仿真录音及文字文本。

对于初级班的所有“语用点”对话练习，在正式使用了一个学期后，我们决定为每一个任务都配备仿真录音及相应的文字文本。为了使录音更加真实，我们并没有为参与录音的人员提供文本，而是让参与录音的人员像学生一样完成口语任务。在给每一个任务录音前，参与录音的人员都可以花一点儿时间思考与讨论。参与录音的人员都为教过我校初级班（一年级）的教师，对初级班的词汇、语法句型都颇为了解，这样不仅可以保证录音质量语音清晰，所录的内容也会符合学生的学习水平。我们要求录音老师尽量使用学生当课所学的词汇和语法，不能太难，也不能太容易，同时要兼顾中国人的说话习惯。每一个任务的录音时间都控制在 3-5 分钟左右，并保持正常说话语速，如果录完后感觉效果不好，也可以重新再录。毕竟对于初学者来说，还处于建构新的语言系统的初级阶段，不宜给学生增加太多的负担，打击学生的积极性，因此给学生的输入还是有所控制。录音工作完成以后，再把录音转写成文字文本。从另一个角度来看，这些补充材料也填补了现行教材中语用功能的缺失。

- (2) 在“任务前”阶段，增加用模拟录音来输入的方法。

我们把模拟录音，用听力理解的形式呈现出来。教师可以在交代任务后，播放录音，同时设置一些口头或书面的问答题，增强学生对录音内容的理解。给学生完成任务提供一个完整的范例。相信它是符合“可理解输入”的要求的：“它的内容是适合学习者现有语言水平的，而且有足够的量度，使学习者能够有很多机会把注意力集中于对意义和信息理解上，对意义进

行加工,在无意识中习得语言。在这一过程中,理解是至关重要的,包括听力理解和阅读理解”(温晓虹 2013)。

在以往的“任务前”阶段,我们没有对教师的输入方法做过多的规定,有经验的教师可以根据自己的经验,使用多样化的输入形式;而对于新老师来说,总显得束手无策。增加模拟录音这一输入方式,不仅可以配合语用为纲的学习过程,增加“来自真实(或模拟)语境语料”的输入,也可以使整个课程更加规范化,同时也利于教师培训。

(3) 在“任务后”阶段,给学生提供录音和文字文本。

每一次“语用点”对话练习结束后的当天,都会有负责老师把当日的录音和文字文本发给学生,供学生巩固复习。“这些基于文本的输入符合 Krashen 提出的‘可理解性输入’(comprehensible input),而且输入安排在完成任务后,学习者通过阅读这些相关的文章会自发地关注语言形式,意识到自己的语言与目标语或者更高阶段中介语的差别,这些差别包含了语言的准确性、得体性与复杂度,涉及语音、词汇、句式、语篇等方面。然后教师及时对语言形式进行讲解、操练,有利于学生内化已学的语言形式”。(许希阳, 2009)

2.2.6 使用效果

那么,对于我校初级班的学生来说,这一做法是否真正做到了促使语言输入转变为语言吸收,并有效输出呢?实践证明,还是有一定成效的。

甲班是 2012 年 9 月入学的一个初级班,乙班是 2013 年 1 月入学的一个初级班。在甲班学习中文的期间,“语用点”对话练习并未使用录音和文字文本;而乙班是使用了的。笔者比较了这两个班期末“语用点”对话部分的测试成绩,详见表四(成绩为百分制)。乙班的成绩,无论从学生成绩的平均值、中值还是众数来看,都比甲班成绩的数值大。也就是说,使用了的学期(乙班),学生的成绩比未使用学期(甲班)的成绩要好。也许有人会问,两个不同的班级,学生成员国籍、受教育程度、学习动机、学习能力等差异很大,可以拿来作比较吗?

表四: 甲乙两个初级班的学生成绩比较

未使用录音和文字文本学期(甲班)				使用录音和文字文本学期(乙班)			
学生代码	国籍	母语	成绩	学生代码	国籍	母语	成绩
14160	韩国	韩语	66	14232	英国	英语	95
14107	哥伦比亚	西班牙语	39	14258	巴西	葡萄牙语	56
14172	英国	英语	50	14200*	韩国	韩语	91
14106	马来西亚华裔	英语 & 广东话	91	13947	美国	英语	76
14134	韩国	韩语	80	14222*	巴西	葡萄牙语	39

14151	美国华裔	英语 & 广东话	92	14210	日本	日语	81
14117	英国	英语	85	14249	芬兰	芬兰语	67
14104	澳大利亚华裔	英语 & 广东话	93	14212	日本	日语	85
14175	美国	英语	68	14260	俄罗斯	俄语	85
14099	日本	日语	71	13068*	泰国华裔	泰语	86
14174	日本	日语	61				
14186	英国	英语	51				
14181	日本	日语	82				
14158	日本	日语	82				
14127	挪威	挪威语 & 英语	40				
14136	日本	英语	62				
平均成绩 (average/mean)			70	平均成绩 (average/mean)			76
中值 / 中位数 (Median)			68&71	中值 / 中位数 (Median)			81&85
众数 (Mode)			82	众数 (Mode)			85

其实,在这两个班级所在的学期里,与他们同时进行初级班学习的也有其他班级,之所以只比较甲班和乙班,就是因为这两个班是具有可比性的。首先,笔者在这两个学期里都是他们的授课老师,对学生的学习情况比较了解,认为这两个班学生的整体水平相差不大。其次,虽然是两个不同的学期,但是这两个班的授课教师也是基本相同的,一个学期中可能只存在个别几天的授课教师不同,因此,应该可以说教师对这两个班的教学方法整体差异不大。最后,这两个班学生期末所使用的测试试卷相同,而给这两个班的学生做测试的老师也基本相同。因此教师测试的方法、对学生的要求以及评估的准则等变量都非常的小。通过这样的比较,还是可以在一定程度上说明输入方式的不同对输出的影响。当然有很多因素会影响学生的学习效果,在这个方面今后还有很多探讨的空间。

3.3 小结

对学生“语言得体”的要求,不仅自始至终贯穿于整个教学中,在测试中也得以充分的体现。我校“语用点”对话的测试,还处于探索发展阶段,其可操作性和现实意义有待得到进一步的实践证明。

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案例式商务汉语教学法的理论与实践

——以综合课为例

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摘要：案例教学法运用于商务汉语教学，是商务汉语教学改革的一个新的突破点。本文以案例式商务汉语综合课为例，探讨案例式商务汉语教学法的若干问题。综合课可分课前热身、案例学习、语言技能练习、案例分析与讨论、巩固与扩充等五个教学环节，将集中围绕案例所反映的问题或危机进行分析与讨论，有助于提高学生的汉语表达能力与中外商务跨文化交际能力。商务汉语案例设计是课程开设的关键。商务汉语教学案例包含标题、背景材料、案例情节、问题或危机处理、案例辅助材料、思考与讨论题、评析与总结、教学说明等要素，要具有真实性、典型性、事例性、可读性、针对性、可讨论性、时效性等特征，可分为描述性案例和分析型案例、成功案例和失败案例等类别。

关键词：案例教学法；商务汉语教学；案例设计；综合课；教学实践

1. 研究问题

案例教学法作为一种新兴的教学模式，受到教学界越来越多的关注，在法学、医学、MBA、经管、商务英语等专业教学中有着较为成功的实践。商务汉语教学也开展了案例教学，开始商务汉语案例的收集与整理，开设案例式商务汉语课程，并尝试编写案例式商务汉语教材。商务汉语是专门用途汉语，具有双重目标：不仅要求学生掌握商务知识，同时还要求学生提高语言能力，与普通汉语教学既有相同之处，又有不同之处。相同之处都在于提高学习者的听说读写技能，不同之处是通过商务情境学习汉语。正如王轩（2006）提出目前专门用途汉语教学法既体现不出专门用途汉语本身的特点也不能满足学习者的特殊要求，只是将课文换成相关内

容,教学仍然以生词、语法、句型操练为主。案例教学法引入商务汉语教学,将是商务汉语教学改革的一个突破点。本文主要围绕商务汉语案例综合课的设计探讨以下问题:第一,商务汉语语言技能教学如何融入案例式商务汉语教学中?第二,作为案例式商务汉语教学的核心——商务汉语案例如何设计与编写?第三,如何开设与案例式商务汉语教学配套的课程?第四,如何编写适用于案例式商务汉语教学的教学资源?

2. 研究现状

案例教学法真正作为一种教学方法形成于 20 世纪初美国哈佛大学的法学院和医学院。针对许多理论问题单凭教师讲授难以真正理解的情况,提出“理论讲授+实例讨论”的方式,取得了良好的教学效果。1918 年,这种教学被正式命名为“案例教学”。同时,案例教学法被引进哈佛商学院,运用于商业和企业管理学。20 世纪 80、90 年代,中国引入案例教学法,主要应用于管理、MBA、法学、医学、商务英语、统计、会计等教育领域。并且随着网络的快速发展,远程教育的不断成熟,案例教学法也走进了远程教育领域。进入 21 世纪,对外汉语教学界也开展了案例教学法,主要是在商务汉语、法律汉语、医药汉语等方面。

目前国内出版了一些案例式商务汉语教材,如《经理人汉语》(张晓慧,2005)、《商务汉语案例阅读》(邢欣,2008)、《中国之窗·商务汉语案例集》(王惠玲、卢惠惠,2010)、《卓越汉语·商务致胜》系列(王惠玲、周红,2011-2012)、《纵横商务汉语案例教程》(周红,2013)、《纵横商务汉语跨文化交际案例教程》(柳岳梅,2013)等,海外还出版了《成功之道——中级商务汉语案例教程》(袁芳远,2005),取得了一些突破性的进展。

不少学者对案例式商务汉语教学进行了一些探索,如王轩(2006)认为对案例进行分析和讨论便构成了案例教学,以案例为基础的汉语教学法将教学重点从“教”转向了“学”,同时从传统的句子和词汇的学习转变为从篇章整体意义和篇章分析的教学。李铭娜(2008)探讨了案例教学法在中高级商务汉语教学中的实施过程,包括布置阅读案例、引导讨论案例、巩固延伸案例。黄锦章(2011)认为如何在商务知识和语言能力这两方面找到平衡点是案例式商务汉语教学的一大难题,提出采取双轨制,即主课文采用案例,导入商务知识,练习部分抓语言训练,提升学生的语言能力。但对案例式商务汉语教学尤其是课程设置、课堂教学及教材编写等仍缺乏理论层面的探究。

3. 案例式商务汉语教学法的适用性

3.1 案例式教学法与商务汉语教学的适配性

案例教学法之所以取得较大成功,主要在于:第一,案例教学法强调理论与实践相结合,这在一定程度上弥补了应用性教学的缺失;第二,案例教学法强调真实案例的讨论与分析,密切联系社会实践,这与应用型人才的培养目标十分契合;第三,案例教学法强调问题的分析与解决,这与提高学生学习能力的教育目标契合;第四,案例教学法强调学生的积极主动性,这与改变学生被动学习弊端、加强主动学习的教育目标契合。

传统商务汉语教学进行分技能训练,素材多为一些商务新闻、商务评论和商务访谈,以及一些模拟的商务语段等,课堂教学多以教师讲授为主,且多关注词汇与句型教学,讨论较少,学生多为被动学习。案例教学法在一定程度上弥补了以上不足,与商务汉语教学要求有着较高的适配性。主要表现在:第一,商务汉语旨在培养学生运用汉语进行中外商务合作的能力,这与案例教学法重应用性一致;第二,商务汉语注重真实情景的模拟与训练,以案例为素材的案例教学法可以更有效地做到这一点;第三,商务汉语注重培养学生的商务跨文化交际能力与汉语表达能力,这与以案例讨论与问题解决为途径的案例教学法目标一致。

3.2 案例式教学法引入商务汉语教学

3.2.1 教学对象

与应用于专业课程的案例教学法不同,商务汉语教学对象存在较大差异。前者多为有相当专业背景知识的高年级大学生或研究生,且教学语言为母语;后者则为有一定商务知识或对商务比较感兴趣的第二语言学习者。若将案例教学法应用于商务汉语教学,其教学对象必须具有一定的汉语基础,否则案例教学难开展。根据层级,商务汉语教学对象可分为三类:第一类是有一定汉语基础且对中国经济感兴趣的海内外在校汉语进修生;第二类是从事对华商务活动的海内外商务人士;第三类是有志于继续学习财经专业或取得从商职业资格的来华留学生。

3.2.2 教学要求

商务汉语教学的目标不是专业知识的理解与掌握，而是通过商务学习汉语表达能力和商务跨文化交际能力。商务汉语考试等级标准从语言功能、语言知识与交际任务三方面来划分等级（《商务汉语考试大纲》，2006），也充分体现了商务汉语教学要求，即具备在商务活动中运用汉语进行交流的能力。案例教学法在专业课程教学中只处于辅助地位，其前提是系统、深入的理论背景学习。案例式商务汉语教学则不必拘泥于此，目标是通过案例学习进一步提高学习者的汉语思维能力、表达能力以及商务跨文化交际能力。

3.2.3 教学内容

专业课程案例教学的教学内容较为系统、全面，案例素材较专业。而案例式商务汉语教学内容不必苛求系统、全面，而是更多地进行学习者的需求分析，甚至为学习者量身定做。教学内容不以突出商务知识为重点，而是突现一定的商务话题，增强商务情境下跨文化交际的表达训练。教学内容应以商务话题为主线，以商务交际为辅线，以跨文化商务交际表达为血肉，从而做到语言、内容与文化相结合。

3.2.4 教学原则

一般认为，案例教学法的教学原则为：鼓励参与性原则、启发性原则和适应性原则（王轩，2006）。除此之外，案例式商务汉语教学应增加支架性原则、趣味性原则、技能性原则。支架性原则是指在学习过程中向他们提供援助和搭建脚手架，包括商务知识、语言表达和跨文化交际等。趣味性原则是指将理论化、枯燥的案例素材尽可能情节化，增加可读性。案例讨论、总结与操练尽可能情景化，增强趣味性。技能性原则是指有意识地增强教学环节的技能性训练，不可为案例而案例。

4. 案例式商务汉语综合课的设计

4.1 案例式商务汉语综合课设计

4.1.1 设计理念

将案例教学法运用于商务汉语教学中,设置合适的商务汉语课程,有助于推进商务汉语教学改革。以案例为素材的商务汉语教学法可以分别通过阅读案例、讨论案例、撰写案例报告等形式综合训练学习者的听说读写四项基本技能,因此,开设案例式商务汉语综合课,可进一步巩固所学汉语知识与商务知识,达到提高跨文化商务交际能力之目标。

可大量收集与案例相关的视听材料,配以对话文本,以此为素材通过视听影像、情景模拟、问题讨论、听力理解等训练学生的听说能力,有助于提高学生的听力理解能力与话语表达能力。

文化因素愈来愈成为商务汉语教学的重点,让学生进一步了解中华商务文化,实现跨文化商务交际,成为商务汉语教学的目标之一。收集与编写基于真实情景的“文化冲突”案例,通过异文化间的对比讨论,让学生在“冲突”中加深对中华商务文化的了解。以《耐克广告:别拿中国形象开玩笑》为例,我们设计了这样一道讨论题:

文化冲突:有人提出,这则广告引起中国人反感是因为它在渲染弱肉强食,这与中国人谦逊有礼的文化传统截然不同。你的观点是什么?请举例说明。

在听说读的基础上,案例教学的最后一个环节是撰写案例报告。传统商务汉语写作课多为“文体讲授+范文剖析+写作训练”的三段式教学,即教师先作系统的理论讲解,讲观点或现成的、权威性的结论,然后再用有关材料(举例子)进行阐释和说明。虽然有不少范文,但学生遇到实际写作问题时,还是不知如何下手。问题的症结在于缺乏社会实践性。我们认为,在案例学习之后,可通过设置虚拟商务情景,让学生运用课文所学词语与句型进行情景写话,并在讨论案例问题的基础上完成一篇报告。如:

情景写话:你是耐克公司公关部的经理。请用“严峻”、“危机”、“激怒”、“禁播”、“弄巧成拙”、“……,让……”等词语与句型说明案例中耐克广告播出后的结果。

撰写案例报告:面对中国的禁播,耐克公司发表声明称:耐克希望借助这一广告鼓励年轻人直面恐惧,勇往直前。但始终未得到中国消费者的认可。从这一事例来看,你认为在广告设计中应该充分考虑哪些因素?如果你是耐克公司的广告策划者,你会设计怎样的广告来体现广告初衷?

4.1.2 课堂教学环节

针对第二语言教学特征，案例式商务汉语教学不能照搬专业课程案例教学，要围绕汉语学习进行改造。主要有五个环节：第一，课前热身。教师根据学生情况进行分组；学生预习案例全文，回答阅读理解题；预习指定的关键词语和句型；利用网络资源了解案例涉及的企业背景或相关资料。第二，案例学习。教师引导学生了解案例内容，学习词语的意义及用法。首先是课堂导入案例，教师通过多媒体展示介绍案例背景，激发学生兴趣。再是课堂分析案例，教师朗读案例，介绍案例，引导学生了解案例篇章结构，扫除案例理解中相关知识与语言障碍。第三，语言技能练习。针对案例内容，进行有针对性的语言训练，如词语、句型、语段等练习。第四，案例讨论。先是小组讨论案例，根据案例问题进行小组讨论，教师监督与指导，提供相应帮助，学生整合观点，组织有效语言表达，以训练思维能力与表达能力。再是班级讨论案例。教师引导，可采取小组汇报、互问型、辩论型、角色扮演型等方式表达意见，以训练听说能力。第五，巩固与扩充。进行案例总结，归纳与评价教学内容，教师引导学生写案例报告，总结典型语法结构或篇章结构；针对案例主题，布置相关案例写作、课外实践等活动。

4.1.3 配套教学资源设计

案例式商务汉语综合课教学资源编写将充分体现案例教学法的理念，围绕案例所反映的问题或危机展开，通过案例分析与讨论，提高汉语表达能力和商务跨文化交际能力。具体体现在五个功能块上：第一，课前热身。以图片和小介绍的形式将案例所涉及的企业展示出来，并设置导语，以问题方式导出本课学习内容，并提供相关背景资料。第二，案例学习。提供案例背景和案例正文；列出词语表，包括简繁体汉字、拼音、外语释义；提供根据案例内容的阅读理解题，如判断正误、回答问题和选择正确答案等；第三，案例分析与讨论。针对案例提供问题-解决型的讨论题。第四，语言技能练习，针对案例，进行有针对性的语言训练，如选词填空、句型练习、情景写话等，巩固所学内容。第五，巩固与扩充。如可采取与案例相关的短文、访谈等素材进行听说读写综合训练，并根据案例讨论内容，撰写一份案例报告。

4.2 商务汉语案例的设计

4.2.1 商务汉语案例的构成要素

案例是案例教学法的核心，是对真实情境的描述，通常涉及到一个组织或决策者面临的困难、挑战、机会和问题等。案例具有内在要素与外在要素两部分，内在要素是构成案例本身的要素，包括标题、背景材料、案例情节、问题或危机处理；外在要素是辅助理解案例的教学资料，包括案例辅助材料、思考与讨论题、评析与总结、教学说明。如表 1 所示：

表 1 案例的构成要素

类别	基本要素	具体说明
内在要素	标题	突出案例中的典型情境或反映出案例中事件的主题。主题是案例的核心。
	背景材料	案例事件的“前因”，即事件所发生的时间、地点、人物、事情的起因等。
	案例情节	对案例事件的发生与发展有较为完整的客观描述。
	问题或危机处理	对案例所反映的问题或危机的处理方案。
外在要素	案例辅助材料	提供与案例相关的一些辅助性材料。
	思考与讨论题	设计案例讨论题。
	评析与总结	评述案例，揭示事件的意义和价值。
	教学说明	说明教学思路，描述教学过程，交待教学目标。

4.2.2 商务汉语案例的特征

商务汉语案例的特征主要包括以下七个方面：第一是真实性：案例要具有客观性和写实性，是对确实发生过的商业实践事例进行记录，多用白描手法，不宜加入编写者的评论性话语，或者杜撰一些内容。第二是典型性：对教学来说，案例越典型，越具有教学价值。运用于教学应多选取典型的商业实践事例，所谓“典型”就是引起较大社会反响的事例。如“肯德基的中国化”。第三是事例性：案例必须有商业实践的具体事例，没有商业实践的具体事例不能称为案例。应描写事例的时间、地点、经过、结果，使事例完整。这要与新闻体区别开。第四是可读性：不是简单地记录某事例，而是围绕所要解决的关键性问题对原始材料进行加工，以适应教学对象，满足教学需求。第五是针对性：案例应突出一个主题，如果是多个主题的话，叙述就会显得杂乱无章，难以把握住事件发生的主线。第六是可讨论性：案例能够提供真实的问题、

矛盾或危机，存在着从各个侧面进行解释、研究、分析的可能性，能够引起较为广泛的讨论。否则，失去了案例教学的意义。第七是时效性：案例要与时代相应，太陈旧的案例无法引起学生的兴趣，也失去了案例教学的意义。一般认为，案例描述的应该是近五年发生的事情，案例要不断地进行更新、充实。

4.2.3 商务汉语案例的类型

根据案例与讲授知识的联系，可分为描述性案例和分析型案例。描述性案例是将事物整体或部分面貌，或事物发展的全过程像讲故事一样原原本本、具体生动地描述出来，用以印证基本理论与方法，通过这类案例的分析能够获得某种经验性的思维方式（栾永斌，2008）。分析性案例除具有描述性案例的特点外，还包含着可分析讨论的问题。目前用的较多是描述性案例。

根据案例的教学意义，可以将案例划分为成功案例和失败案例。成功案例是取得成功或符合基本规律的案例，从积极正面角度提供学生思考分析。失败案例是失败或不符合基本规律的案例，从反面角度提供学生思考分析。

下面是一篇失败的描述性案例，它围绕耐克广告在中国的公关危机展开描述了整个事件的过程。

耐克广告：别拿中国形象开玩笑

2004年，耐克公司耗资1亿美元制作篮球鞋广告片，但该广告播出后激怒了中国消费者。该年12月3日，中国广电总局正式下令禁播。在这则广告中，篮球明星詹姆斯与5个对手进行了篮球大战，其中3个对手是中国形象。

第一个画面：詹姆斯走到一楼大厅，从空中落下一位中国老者，施展中国功夫，两个人争斗。突然，詹姆斯做出一个高难动作，从背后将篮球扔出，经柱子反弹将老者击倒。第二个画面：詹姆斯来到二层，这里到处飘着钞票和身穿中国服饰的女子。这些女子与敦煌壁画中的飞天造型极其相似，她们展开双臂，试图挡住詹姆斯的去路，詹姆斯扣碎篮板，“飞天形象”随之粉碎。第三个画面：篮板旁出现了两条中国龙的形象，二龙吐出烟雾成为阻碍詹姆斯的妖怪。詹姆斯几个动作就躲开所有障碍，投篮得分。

从广告创作角度看，该广告表现了一定的水平，尤其是画面很有冲击力。但广告不恰当地采用中国元素作为反面形象，伤害了中国公众。首先广告丑化了中国人的形象。广告中类似“敦煌飞天”的美女和飞舞的钞票成为诱惑的内容，而被中国人尊为图腾的龙成了妖怪。其次贬低了中国人的能力。中国老者施展中国功夫，却被篮球击倒，让人感觉到中国人和中国功夫不堪一击。而飞天美女和中国龙也无一例外地被轻松征服。

作为一个中国人，看到这个广告自然产生反感。本来耐克想借这个广告宣传自己的品牌，却弄巧成拙，激怒了消费者。

（改编自：“观察：耐克，别拿中国形象开玩笑”，2004-12-14，<http://www.ycwb.com/gb/>

content/2004-12/14/content_812683.htm)

4.3 案例式商务汉语综合课的教学实践

4.3.1 调查基础

2010 年，上海财经大学在商务汉语高级班开设了案例式商务汉语综合课，由王惠玲老师主讲，使用教材为《中国之窗·商务汉语案例集》。案例式商务汉语综合课以课堂讨论为主，教师串讲为辅的教学方法，特别采用了分组讨论、全体轮流发言或者预先布置专题、逐个报告为主的教学形式。一学期每周 3 个小时，共 15 教学周，该课程选取了教材中的 15 个子案例作为教学内容。

学期结束时，该班级针对课程教学内容与形式召开了一次座谈会（以下数据由卢惠惠老师提供）。商务高级班的基本情况为：选修人数 22 名，来自俄罗斯、白俄罗斯、哈萨克斯坦、意大利、阿尔及利亚、日本、韩国、泰国、葡萄牙等 9 个国家。座谈会由 4 位老师和 13 位学生参加，参加座谈的学生具有一定的汉语水平，通过 HSK8 级的 2 人、HSK6 级的 7 人，HSK5 级的 2 人，HSK4 级、3 级的各 1 人，应该说这批学习者都已经具有了一定的汉语言基础知识，只有 2 位同学具有商务方面的工作经验。不过，所有学生都一致认为商务方面的工作经验对于学好案例式商务汉语课程来说是十分重要的。

4.3.2 调查结果

4.3.2.1 案例选材调查结果

通过座谈会以及调查问卷的形式对案例教学内容进行了调查，共收到 13 份有效问卷。学生对 15 个案例的兴趣比例分别如下：

表 2 学生对案例文的兴趣度调查结果

1	一枚硬币决定的应聘结果	69.23%
2	如何应对人民币升值	61.54%
3	外贸公司的报关流程	61.54%
4	回复询盘要认真	46.15%
5	思科出口服装的全过程	38.46%

6	合同疏忽酿损失	38.46%
7	在华工作外籍人员怎样缴纳个人所得税	30.77%
8	有三类人更适合选择租房生活	30.77%
9	期铜加黄金类股票投资	23.08%
10	LG 洗衣机网上市场调查问卷	15.38%
11	饮水机引发火灾，谁来承担责任	15.38%
12	巧做加减法，提高物流系统的反应速度	15.38%
13	乔伊丝饰品连锁店选址策略	7.69%
14	外资企业为什么被吊销营业执照	7.69%
15	企业管理的有力武器	7.69%

对于案例的选择，学生们明显地偏爱具有实务操作指南性质的案例，如人民币升值、外贸实务、工作流程等方面，而对于故事性较强，偏向于商务文化、道德方面的案例反而不那么受欢迎。我们对希望进一步学习的案例内容进行了调查，得出以下一些领域是学生感兴趣的：投资、广告、物流、特许经营、服务业、经营战略、中国法律条例、股票、租房合同、税制、外国人在中国开公司流程、商务礼仪、人才招聘、汇率、商务谈判、中国对外资政策等。

4.3.2.2 教材难易度调查结果

从调查问卷以及座谈的结果来看，学生对现有教材的体例总体上是肯定的，不过大多同学认为商务词汇应该控制在 18 个以内，参考阅读的难度应该降低。学生对案例正文后面的“参考阅读”、“相关链接”等很重视，认为对于课程的学习很有帮助。这说明除案例文外，其它背景材料对理解案例文有重要作用。

8 位学生觉得课程难度一般，5 位同学觉得有点难，其中有 3 人通过了 HSK6 级，另 2 人分别为 HSK5 级、HSK3 级。课程难点大多集中在“商务词汇较多”、“意思较难”、“专业知识不理解”和“背景知识缺乏”等 4 个方面。如果用 1—5 表示案例文中生词的难度（由易到难），有 9 人认为难度是 3，另 4 人选择的难度是 4，可见商务词汇学习对学生来说还是偏难的。

4.3.2.3 课程学习调查结果

学生都明确表示有很大的帮助，特别是在以下几个方面的帮助尤为显著：第一，学习到了很多的商务专业知识；第二，了解了中国的商务文化；第三，提高了用汉语进行商务交际的能力；第四，对今后在中国学习专业课程有很大帮助。学生们表示若有后续课程，都很愿意参加进一步的学习。

5 未来研究趋向

通过理论与实践分析,案例教学法可以运用于商务汉语教学当中,有助于推动商务汉语教学改革。发展案例式商务汉语教学,亟待在以下几个方面开展研究:第一,搜集大量的商务汉语经典案例;第二,研究案例教学法在商务汉语教学的实际运用,尤其是解决商务知识与语言知识之间的平衡问题,即如何实现通过商务汉语案例学习汉语、通过汉语学习商务知识的问题;第三,撰写适用的案例式商务汉语教学资源;第四,开展商务汉语师资培训;第五,开设适宜的案例式商务汉语课程。

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Mobile Learning Vocabulary with Phone, iPad and Tablets

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Abstract: Language learners at all levels need a way of recording and organising newly learned vocabulary for consolidation and for future reference. Listing words alphabetically in a vocabulary notebook has been a traditional way of organising this information. However, paper-based notes are limited in terms of space (learners often run out of space for certain categories; for others the space might be unused) and time (handwritten pages deteriorate over time and cannot easily be updated). Organizing vocabulary in more meaningful categories might make it easier to learn. Textbooks, for example, often introduce new vocabulary thematically. Words can also be organised according to their grammatical class or characteristics, their real world category (e.g. modes of transport, means of communication), their phonological pattern, their etymological elements, or according to when/where they were learnt. This research experiments how a simple mobile learning of lexical spreadsheet can be used for consolidation and reference of new vocabulary. Offering the learner multiple ways of organising vocabulary at the same time – combining all of the approaches mentioned above, the resource can easily be modified and updated. Importantly, in keeping with autonomous learning theory, the spreadsheet is designed to encourage learners to take more responsibility for their own vocabulary learning and to approach this process more systematically. The resource can be used from any mobile smart phone, tablet or I-pad.

1. Introduction

New technologies such as smartphone, tablet and I-pad and other mobile internet-accessible

devices are increasingly available. These technologies have the potential for university students to most effectively utilize available resources. Technological innovations can increase learner interest and motivation; provide students with increased access to target language input, interaction opportunities and feedback; and provide language tutors with an efficient means for organizing course content and interacting with other students (Golonka, Bowlesa, Frank, Richardson and Freynik, 2014). Particularly, these technology devices can be used for vocabulary learning. With the availability of new technologies as mobile learning means, more and more researchers and language practitioners turn their attention to enhancing language learning via mobile technologies.

2. Literature

Vocabulary is an essential component of language, and the most important aspect of foreign language knowledge for academic achievement (Willis and Ohashi, 2012). Although listening, speaking, reading and writing are the skills that language learners need to master, it is indeed vocabulary that is central to all these four skills, because it is hard to develop any of the four skills without sufficient vocabulary.

There is a growing recognition in vocabulary teaching, as summarized by Milton (2012) in the guest editorial in *The Language Learning Journal*, 40(1). In this issue of the journal, some problems are unfolded around vocabulary teaching and learning: Tschichold's (2012) study revealed that only a quarter of all the words presented to learners in their teaching texts are, on average, recognised after five years of study. The limited vocabulary presented in the textbooks, and particularly the focus on only the most frequent vocabulary explains the low levels of students' vocabulary knowledge. Along the same line, Alsaif and Milton (2012) discovered in their study that lexical input in the textbooks is not merely small and focused heavily on the most frequent words and they further claimed that when the vocabulary levels of learners are already so low they cannot communicate, and therefore it seems self-defeating to omit this crucial element of language development. Konstantakis and Alexiou (2012) analysed the lexical loading, and found the lexical loading in the courses falls far short of the quantities necessary to attain communication. In addition, they stated that the time made available for learning in the syllabus is severely limited. If learners are to progress to the vocabulary levels needed to achieve the communicative goals of the course, ample time is to be made available outside the classroom for lexical learning. Milton (2010) warned that the syllabuses we now use are lexically deficient and the point is further stressed by Schmitt, Jiang and Grabe (2011) that learners are not given the chance in learning materials to learn large volumes of vocabulary, and they cannot achieve their communicative

goals without this vocabulary. To ignore the existence of the thresholds in vocabulary knowledge damages language teaching (Milton, 2010). Milton (2010) calls for a system for integrating the required vocabulary into current language teaching approaches. To integrate sufficient vocabulary into language teaching approaches, Pauwels (2012) studied different materials and strategies used by students in guided self-study of academic vocabulary. The result of his study shows that ‘sufficiently informative’ materials proved the most effective, though his students tended to be limited in their strategy use.

Even though informative vocabulary learning focusing on form is claimed to be more efficient than incidental, meaning-focused word learning (de la Fuente, 2006; Laufer, 2005), and the explicit teaching of contextualized lexical word items seems to be superior to word learning that occurs as a by-product of language use (Barcroft, 2009; Sonbul and Schmitt, 2010), some other researchers argue that classroom time is typically far too restricted to provide sufficient opportunities for intentional word learning (Hunt and Beglar, 2005; Schmitt, 2008). Thus, extensive exposure to aural and textual input may be essential for incidental vocabulary learning in order to achieve the breadth (Nation, 2006) and depth (Nation, 2001) of word knowledge necessary for unassisted comprehension of authentic spoken and written language.

To increase the opportunities for extensive exposure to the target language, language learning communities are set up where native speakers and language learners can meet and practice in virtual environments. However, vocabulary development outside the classroom typifies it as lexically unsophisticated, and the environment by itself offers little opportunity for the lexical growth learners need for language mastery. The opportunity for real-time spoken interaction may improve the speed of learners’ response and hence fluency, and where vocabulary-focused activities are included in the environment then uptake appears good, but evidence in vocabulary learning repeatedly shows that incidental uptake from out-of-class activities can be a very poor way of exposing learners to the volumes of vocabulary they need for many of their communicative goals, writing formal essays for example (Milton, Jonsen, Hirst and Lindenburn, 2012).

Vocabulary notebooks (VN) are advocated as a way for students to take control of their vocabulary learning (Walter, J & Bozkurt, 2009). A VN can be regarded as a personal dictionary: learners record the words they encounter, along with their meanings and any other aspects of the word deemed important, such as part of speech, other word forms, collocates, synonyms, antonyms, and perhaps a context sentence. VNs are proved to be effective tools for students to use to take charge of, organize and manage their vocabulary learning (Fowle, 2002; Lewis, 2000; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990; Schmitt and Schmitt, 1995).

Keeping a VN is classified as a sub-category within the larger division of consolidation strategies according to Schmitt’s (1997) taxonomy. Schmitt and Schmitt (1995) presented 11 guiding theoreti-

cal principles that inform the design of vocabulary program, and looked at setting up vocabulary notebooks using a loose-leaf binder so that entries can be re-ordered according to how well that learner judges they know particular lexical items at any point with an illustrative template. This template includes L1 translation, key word translation, L2 meaning, example sentences, part of speech, pronunciation, semantic map, derivative information, and collocations. McCrostie (2007) quantitatively analysed 120 students' VNs, focusing on how many words each student recorded, what part of speech the recorded lexical items were and what sources these words came from. He found that students tended to opt for new and low-frequency lexical items, seldom record multiword units such as collocations. Fowle's (2002) focus was on learner autonomy by taking a pragmatic look at 300 learners' VNs and concluded that "the students have definitely become more actively involved in the learning of vocabulary as a result of the notebook (p383). Fowle (2002) claimed that learner autonomy is enhanced through the development of cognitive and self-management strategies such as planning, setting goals, organising VNs, choosing lexical items to record and evaluating the quality of the VN entries.

Vocabulary consolidation strategies include adding to the repertoire of the VN with related information when studying new words, and review the existing vocabulary in the notebook from time to time. Thus, VNs have the potential to enhance vocabulary learning strategies. These vocabulary learning strategies can keep learners informed about learners' progress and enhancing learner autonomy (Fowle, 2002; Nation, 1990). The positive effects of VNs have also been explored through students' and teachers' attitudes (Fowle, 2002; Tezgiden, 2006).

Research thus far has explored ways of organising newly learned vocabulary for consolidation and for future reference. However, there is little knowledge about learning vocabulary via mobile learning device. This research attempts to fill the gap by investigating the effect of the use of Lexical Spreadsheet for Chinese as a foreign language in a university setting and by exploring students' attitudes towards vocabulary learning with this device.

Three research questions drive this study: 1). How does the use of VN affect students' vocabulary learning? 2) Comparatively, which is more effective: lexical spreadsheet or hardcopy? 3) What are students' attitudes towards the use of Lexical spreadsheet?

3. The study

Participants:

Forty-five second-year university students participated in this study, who were all Chinese-

majored at a UK university setting. After this year, they will be in China for year abroad study. It was students' choice to use either lexical spreadsheet or hardcopy VN for vocabulary learning. Those (N=37) who chose to use lexical spreadsheet were arranged in the experiment group and those (N=8) who chose to use hardcopy VN were in the control group. In the experiment group there were 25 females and 12 males, while in the control group, there were 5 females and 3 males. The students' ages ranged from 18 to 22 years.

Intervention

The study was implemented in the autumn semester of 2012-2013. In the first week, the language tutor explained to the students that they were encouraged to develop their own vocabulary learning strategies to enlarge and consolidate their vocabulary, which will lay a solid foundation for their further study. The designer of the lexical spreadsheet came to the class illustrating how to use the device. For each new word or phrase, students need to put in the relevant knowledge, including pronunciation, English meaning, part of speech, in which lesson this appears and make up a sentence using this word or phrase, e.g.

Chinese	Pronunciation	English	Part of speech Lesson Sentences
傍晚	bàngwǎn	nightfall	n. 23 傍晚，天边的彩云美极了。

After the input, students can then manage the words according to their needs, e.g. if they want to use nouns, click on the icon 'n', all the nouns will appear; if they want to practise the words in a certain lesson, click on the number of the lesson, all the new words in this lesson will appear; if they want to use certain words related to one topic such as sports, just put the word 'sport' in the domain, then all the words connected with sports will appear. Students can also generate quiz for themselves, e.g. they can set up a group of ten words with English meanings and write the characters accordingly, after they type in the characters, the lexical spreadsheet will automatically give the score and show which ones are wrong and give the correct answers.

The lexical spreadsheets created by students themselves were to be submitted to the language tutor three times during the semester: 30 words/phrases in week 4; 30 words/phrases in week 8; and 40 words/phrases in week 12 via blackboard. Those who use hardcopy VN will do the same and their hardcopy VN will be submitted to the tutor in class. After each submission, the language tutor illustrated to the class the good samples according to the word level and the appropriate use of the words/phrases in the right context, and gave instructions on how to improve their vocabulary learning. This piece of coursework accounted for 10% of their total grade.

Four measures were used for vocabulary learning results, including a *Vocabulary list with sen-*

tences; *b* *Controlled productive vocabulary test*; *c* *Free vocabulary use in compositions*; and *d* *Nvivo for qualitative interviews*.

a *Vocabulary list*: each student is required to write at least 100 new words in the list, including pinyin, English meaning and a sentence using this word. With the vocabulary list, students not only learn the new words in characters, but also know the pronunciation, the English meaning and to be able to use the words in sentences in the appropriate context. Students in the experiment group can organize and re-organize the vocabulary list by adding newly-learned ones and deleting the ones that they have memorized. Students in the control group can use the list as flash cards and practice the words whenever and wherever convenient.

b *Controlled Productive Vocabulary Test*: To investigate the effectiveness of vocabulary learning, and to explore which is more effective (lexical spreadsheet or hardcopy notebooks), two vocabulary tests – a receptive test (modelled on Nation's 1990 Vocabulary Levels Test) and a productive test (modelled on Laufer and Nation's 1999 Productive Vocabulary Levels Test) were used, each with 50 words. There were slight changes on these models to fit in Chinese peculiarities. For the receptive test, Chinese characters without pronunciation will be difficult for students, and therefore five definitions are given for five words in one group to lessen the degree of difficulty. Frequency of words was also taken into consideration, and all the words were among the HSK -- Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (Chinese Proficiency Test). Words were chosen from HSK level IV because this is the level students were required to reach at the end of year 2. Below is an example of one group of words from the receptive vocabulary test. The tests took place in week 12 at the end of the semester.

e.g. 安静——quiet

a) 办法——to hold (a meeting, ceremony)

b) 包括——neighbour

c) 比较——to compare

d) 邻居——to include

e) 举行——means, ways of doing things

The focus of Controlled Productive Vocabulary Test was on students' writing characters, and therefore the structures of the words were taken into account, e.g. the left-right order, the up-down order, and compound words. Considering the characters in Chinese are more complicated than the (prefix, suffix) in English, the English meaning is given in brackets as hints. Below is an example of one group of words from the controlled productive vocabulary test.

- e.g. 我们一边聊天，一边 _____ (drink) 茶，多有意思呀。(喝)
- a) 在中国不少的饭馆或者商店里，人们说 _____ (talk) 的声音都很大。
- b) 不了解外国文化的人会怎么 _____ (think) 呢?
- c) 我有一些小礼 _____ (gift) 要送给你们。
- d) 收到礼物要表示感 _____ (thanks) 。
- e) 这些花真漂亮，都是您 _____ (plant) 的吗?

The vocabulary tests included both target words (those that would be included in the main texts in the textbook) and non-target words (those that were not included in the main texts but from supplementary reading materials).

c Free vocabulary use compositions: In order to investigate the effect of the VN implementation on free use of the target words, students were to write a learning diary at the end of each week. They were encouraged to use the words newly learnt with the assistance of the VNs. The learning diaries were assessed for the overall quality as well as appropriate use of the vocabulary, and this is also part of 10% coursework grades.

d Nvivo: Nvivo is used to discover the factors that threads students' attitudes towards the use of VNs from focus group interviews, which were conducted in the last week of the semester. The students in the treatment group were interviewed in a group of five, and the control group was in a group of three. The students' interviews were conducted in English, to allow them to express themselves clearly. The students were asked whether they found keeping VNs useful, what they liked or disliked about using VNs, and whether they would continue keeping VNs even if their tutor did not check it and give marks.

4. Results and discussion

Altogether, 3965 entries of vocabulary and sentences using the lexical spreadsheet device were submitted from the experiment group via blackboard and 867 entries from the control group in the hardcopy form. In the vocabulary lists and sentences, any problem in spelling or the inappropriate use in the sentences is counted as one error. The corrected rate for the experiment group is 84%, and the control group is 76%.

In the controlled productive vocabulary tests: the average score for the experiment group in the receptive test is 84 and in productive test 76; while the average score for the control group is 76 in the receptive test and 72 in the productive test. This result indicates that students in the experiment

group have not only remembered the words, but are able to produce the words in the right context. The positive effects seen on vocabulary test in the experiment group can be seen as a result of enhanced attention to and an increased focus on the words through vocabulary learning activities with this device. This is in line with Load Hypothesis (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001), which posits that vocabulary is more likely to be retained when the involvement load is higher. This operationalizes the notions of ‘depth of processing’ and ‘elaboration’, which have been accepted as explanations for the observation that vocabulary words seem to be better retained when students are asked to work with and manipulate vocabulary words.

Free vocabulary use compositions: students in both groups wrote a free vocabulary use compositions with minimum of 400 characters. The compositions from the experiment group showed the pattern of clusters of words covering a wide range of vocabulary and the pattern from the control group was more accuracy in spelling, part of speech and the appropriate use in the context. This result, to some extent, indicates that the use of lexical spreadsheet appear to have, as is suggested in the literature, promoted a sense of learner autonomy, as the following comments indicate, “At the beginning of the semester, I was told that it was compulsory to keep VN in lexical spreadsheet or in hardcopy. Now the lexical spreadsheet has affected my learning positively and therefore I would keep it” . “It is useful and it is for my own learning, so I would continue using it as a fully independent learning tool” . Students in the experiment group chose the words they wanted to learn, put the words in the lexical spreadsheet, reviewed the words at their own convenience, assessed their own learning outcomes, reflected on their own learning, adjusted their learning strategies accordingly and made improvements. They also expressed that they would continue their use of lexical spreadsheet next year even if it were not required. In addition to enhancing the learners’ sense of responsibility

Three themes emerged from Nvivo results from interviews: useful/flexible/enjoyable, elaborative and autonomous for the lexical spreadsheet; and systematic, accurate and habitual from the control group.

Some negative points about the VN were also raised during the interviews. These comments seem to be directed at the actual process of keeping a VN, “The thing that I did not like is looking in dictionaries and writing the information in the notebook. For example, some of the words seem to be the synonyms of the words that I was looking for, but they have different meanings in sentences. Therefore, it was difficult to find synonyms” . “I hate looking up words in a dictionary, and writing word knowledge every day” . Even though there are some doubts about whether the VN has fulfilled the task of vocabulary learning, students’ comments are generally positive.

In answer to research question 1) how does the use of VNs affect students’ vocabulary learning? The total entries of 4832 from both experiment group and control group indicate that students are

actively involved in vocabulary learning. Furthermore, the accurate rate in vocabulary tests and the width and depth coverage of vocabulary used in free composition indicates that students can not only learnt the words but also be able to use them in the required context. This is further approved by students' comments that they will continue to use VN even when it is not compulsory and they will use it in their autonomous learning.

As for RQ 2) Comparatively, which is more effective: lexical spreadsheet or hardcopy VNs? The research results in this study show that not only did the experiment group out-perform the control group on the vocabulary tests, but also this group demonstrated more knowledge of cluster of words of similar meanings to avoid repetition, which made the compositions more vivid in description and more convincing in argumentation. Thus, it appears that one implicit advantage of lexical spreadsheet, which is to practise a group of related words to enhance vocabulary learning, has been empirically confirmed by this study.

Regarding RQ 3) What are students' attitudes towards the use of Lexical spreadsheet? The Nvivo results revealed very positive attitudes about the usefulness of the lexical spreadsheet. They also appeared to enjoy using the lexical spreadsheet in vocabulary learning activities, and fully grasped the utility of returning it for various activities.

Students seemed to appreciate the connection between the VN, the in-class comments and activities, as several of them commented on the opportunities provided to work with words in a variety of ways. Some of their comments are "I always consulted my lexical spreadsheet, so it was good for my remembering words. Activities reinforced our learning these words. For example, in the reading activity I looked in my lexical spreadsheet when I couldn't remember the meaning of the word in the sentence. The lexical spreadsheet was good for me to practise the words in our own ways" . "As I regularly dealt with one word with many activities, I quickly learned and remembered the word" . "I can choose nouns, verbs, phrases according to their domains and then put the words into sentences with the right order and put the sentences into paragraphs. The more I use the lexical spreadsheet, the more I play with it, the better I learn" . It was interesting and a good fun to play with and students can use the words after they play with them again and again. Some other students commented that the tool forced them to carry it out and use the words in a variety of contexts. After their first submission, when the language tutor illustrated how good some samples of the lexical spreadsheet are, students could see the usefulness and wanted to do a good job on it as well.

"As we made these VN on our own, we know what is there and where it is, and we can find it easily. We know that the information we are looking for is under this word or that word, but the dictionary is not like this. We must search whether it is under this word or another word. It is a waste of time, and we get bored while looking up in a dictionary" . "As I always did something with the words,

I acquired them subconsciously. When I see the words in a different context, I can easily recognize them” . One more positive point about lexical spreadsheet raised by the students was that in recording the words of the week in their lexical spreadsheet, they learned many other new related words, in addition to the target words. Their comments below illustrate this point, “While we were studying one word, we learned many words at the same time, such as synonyms, antonyms, derivations” . “Words are stuck in our minds. It is a good tool. We learned many words from one” .

When the students were asked to compare the use of lexical spreadsheet with the ways that they previously studied vocabulary, they generally agreed that the lexical spreadsheet was better than their previous techniques. Some of their comments are “I used to write the new words on my paper notebook. But as the paper notebook was heavy to carry around, I only reviewed my words at home. When I come across some words that I have remembered, the pages looked messy. With the lexical spreadsheet, I can add and delete easily and I have put it in my mobile phone so whenever I have a bit of time, I can take my phone out and play with it – on the bus, in the queue etc” . “I used to take notes on the margin of my class note, but when I wanted to use a particular word, sometimes, I have to go through all the notes. With this lexical spreadsheet, I can find the word alphabetically, according to its part of speech, according to its domain and I can review the words easily” . Another student put it “I used to write down the definition next to the new words, now I can write a sentence as well so that I know how to use the word” .

In addition to their appreciation for the usefulness and effectiveness of the lexical spreadsheet, the majority of the students admitted that they have formed the habit of using the lexical spreadsheet and will continue to use it for the rest of their studies. “I know that it was very useful for me, so I will continue to use it with my studies” . “When I compare my lexical spreadsheet with my former notes, this is more beneficial for me, as it requires more studying and it consolidates my knowledge of the words” . A few students mentioned that the lexical spreadsheet made them more responsible language learners, as illustrated in the following comment: “I liked using the lexical spreadsheet because it made us study the words every day. I had to add some new information to the words of the week and make sentences with them. It made me more responsible for my own learning” .

Limitations

One limitation of the study is its limited scope; a larger-scale study would have produced more generalizable results, and the inclusion of more proficiency levels would have contributed more to our knowledge about which students are most suited to a vocabulary notebook program. Another limitation is durability of the learning. Time limitations for the study did not allow a delayed post-test to be conducted; thus, it is not known whether the students’ newly acquired knowledge of the words was

retained over time.

Pedagogical implications

If we want our students to be able to recognize and use the vocabulary words we teach them, lexical spreadsheet can be a useful addition to the language classroom. The comments of one particular student make it clear how lexical spreadsheet ought to be implemented: at the beginning, “We were not used to studying regularly, and found it difficult to write word knowledge regularly in our vocabulary list. As we are getting more and more familiar with the functions, we have formed the habit of using it, and could keep on using our lexical spreadsheet” . Incorporating the lexical spreadsheet into the curriculum right from the start of a term would give students the chance to develop a useful vocabulary learning habit, and perhaps increase the chances of its being used throughout the language learning process.

5. Conclusions

This study has demonstrated that the use of lexical spreadsheet VNs can be one of the effective ways in enhancing vocabulary development, and that students had positive attitudes to their use. The empirical data from the study support the claims for the benefits of VNs in terms of vocabulary acquisition. Further, students have exhibited positive attitudes to not only VN themselves, but also toward the inclusion of VN activities in the language classroom. This study has shown that using VNs may lead to autonomous learning. If learners do not learn vocabulary of the appropriate types and amounts, they cannot be skilled language users. Language teaching as a whole can be enhanced if the attention to vocabulary learning is taken up by language professionals and students more widely.

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Blended Learning: Using Web Resources for Chinese Learning

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Abstract

This study is aimed to investigate the use of online learning resources by CFL university students in the UK, and how effective online learning resources are to strengthen their Chinese language skills. From 2012 to 2013, the researcher integrated regular face-to-face teaching lessons with students' independent online learning outside the classroom. Data were collected through classroom observations, informal conversations with the students, and a survey conducted at the end of the academic year. The study presents new data on UK university students' frequency of using online Chinese learning resources outside the classroom, and provides insight into their attitudes towards the efficiency of online learning and any problems they are facing. Some pedagogical suggestions are provided as to how teachers can effectively support students on using online learning resources, such as providing students explicit tasks and directions for using online learning resources.

Keywords: Teaching and Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language, Online learning resources, E-learning

1. Introduction

Language is seen primarily as a communication tool. One of the main purposes of teaching

Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) courses is to develop students' ability to communicate with Chinese native speakers. However, the UK language environment, which is mainly dominated by English language, does not provide learners with a real and natural Chinese using environment. Given time constraints, learners have limited opportunities to actively engage in using Chinese even in class. In spite of this challenge, complementing regular face-to-face Chinese lessons with independent online learning outside the classroom—or in another words *blended learning*, could offer CFL learners great learning flexibility irrespective of time and place. UK university students make frequent use of the Internet in their daily lives, from socializing, watching films, to academic uses. Nowadays, the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) has been firmly established in the UK universities, which provides the opportunity to further develop and enhance the role that online learning plays in Chinese teaching methodology.

Despite the wide availability of Internet access and potential benefits of using web resources for language learning, little guidance has been given to CFL learners on how to effectively use web resources. Teachers often have limited knowledge about how to integrate web resources within their traditional teaching. It is still unclear how frequently CFL university students use web resources, what their attitudes towards the efficiency of e-learning are, which problems they face, and how teachers can support their e-learning in and beyond the classroom to develop their Chinese language skills.

During the 2012-2013 academic year, a small-scaled study was carried out by the researcher in the UK universities with the intent to combine traditional classroom teaching with learners' independent e-learning outside the classroom. The web resources were not limited to the materials delivered by the VLE, but also included any web learning resources such as online dictionaries, language learning games, free courses, videos, etc.

More specifically, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

- 1) How frequently do UK university students use web resources for Chinese learning outside the classroom?
- 2) What are the participants' perceptions of using web resources for their Chinese learning?
- 3) How can teachers support their online Chinese learning?

To answer these questions, a survey was conducted at the end of the academic year to explore CFL university students' perceptions of using web resources to support Chinese learning. In addition to the questionnaire, the researcher also carried out classroom observations, and had informal conversations with the students through the academic year.

2. Background

2.1 E-learning and blended learning

Since it emerged towards the end of the 20 century, various definitions of the term *e-learning* have been suggested by researchers. For example, Rosenberg (2001) describes it as ‘*the use of Internet technologies to deliver a broad array of solutions that enhance knowledge and performance*’ (28). The benefits of e-learning have been widely recognized by researchers and educators (Rogers, 2004; McPherson and Nunes, 2002; Sharma and Barrett, 2007). It enables students to attend learning at any time and at any place and thus makes learning much more flexible and more accessible. Students are encouraged to engage in self-study by e-learning outside the classroom and develop a sense of self-discipline and critical thinking. It also suits the learning abilities and learning styles of a wide range of students, and provides self-paced learning catering for both slow and quick learners. Students have seen e-learning as an important part of their learning. In the study by McPherson and Nunes (2002), ‘76.7% of students agreed that e-learning is an effective learning resource and appropriately supportive of the needs of flexible learners’ (446).

E-learning facilitates learning in multiple ways. However, it has some limitations such as the lack of face-to-face contact with the tutor and fellow students. While new technologies provide opportunities to supplement face-to-face teaching approach, they can never replace the role of instructors who select and upload learning materials, and provide students with invaluable feedback and guidance. Therefore, it has been suggested by educators (e.g., Condie and Livingston, 2007) that students would benefit most from combining traditional face-to-face teaching approach with e-learning, i.e., blended learning.

2.2 Learning Chinese through Internet

Blending learning has been increasingly popular among language learners. The case study of Conole (2008) shows that language students used the web extensively to extend their understanding of concepts and supplement course material. Learners are comfortable using the Internet as an information source. By using search engines, learners may find information more tailored to their specific language learning needs based on their own time and pace. The convenience of this benefits language

learners of different levels. It provides language learners with a more diversified and flexible learning environment where they can learn with interest and motivation. The multimedia and interactive features of the Internet, which often lack in traditional language textbook can stimulate learners' learning interest, expand their learning experiences, and develop their independent study skills. Recently, the increasing popularity of social networking sites has created a new opportunity for language learners to interact with peers and develop communicative language skills.

There is an increasing number of studies on the use of Internet on Chinese language learning (Zhang, 2009; Jin, 2009; Zhang, 2011; Cheng, 2011; Chin et al 2011; Lin & Huang, 2011; Lee, 2011; Hu, 2012; Kazuko, 2012). As China continues to grow and develop, there is an increasing interest around the world in learning Chinese language and culture. The growth of learning Chinese as a foreign language is explosive, unprecedented, and amazing. In response to the increasing demand for Chinese language learning, varied Chinese language learning sites have emerged online. Many Chinese learning websites offer lessons plans, learning games and other learning tools that are freely available to students and teachers such as online dictionaries, chat rooms, blogs, video sharing, etc. Some of these websites have been created by big organizations such as the BBC and the Confucius Headquarter, and some are social networking websites such as YouTube and Facebook. These resources provide a valuable online service catering for the CFL learners of different ages, interests and learning needs and they can access these resources in their own time and at their own pace. It is also beneficial to their Chinese language acquisition. Indeed, it is suggested that a blended model which combines online inputs and authentic tasks with classroom activities facilitates CFL learners' reading comprehension skills (Lee, 2011).

However, there are a number of concerns about using web resources for Chinese learning. For example, one potential problem is that learners may find it difficult to find appropriate resources reinforcing the textbook they are using. Another problem with using an online dictionary is that learners may find it covers all the definitions of a Chinese word's full explanations, some of which are beyond their current linguistic skills. Because of the vastness of online resources, teachers and learners need to consider the language and content of these websites as well as lesson plans, learners' Chinese proficiency levels, ages, cultural backgrounds, personal interests, etc.

3. Research design

Informed by a review of the relevant literature, the present study focuses on CFL students' online Chinese language learning outside the classroom. The objective of this study was to investigate the

frequency with which UK university use web resources to learn Chinese as a foreign language and their views on that use. Insights gained from the students' learning experience could help teachers design and develop learning activities towards blended Chinese language learning.

The participants were 57 UK university students enrolled on modules taught by the researcher worked as their Chinese language tutor. Throughout the academic year 2012-2013, data were collected through classroom observations by the researcher, constant informal conversations with the students, and a survey conducted at the end of the academic year.

The use of networked technologies is increasingly pervading the whole UK high education sector, making a significant pedagogical impact on CFL learning. It changed the format of course materials and how they are distributed. In the universities where this study was conducted, the VLE (Blackboard) is well established. In addition to regular face-to-face Chinese lessons every week, students were encouraged to extend their learning by using online learning resources outside the classroom. There are links to web resources in the VLE. Web resources were also used during the lesson, depending on lesson plans and the class time available. For example, students had the opportunity to play online Chinese character games or watch online video clips during the class according to lesson plan. Sometimes, they were assigned the tasks that had to be completed by using web resources. These assignments included activities such as vocabulary exercises, reading comprehension, listening practice, etc.

In April, 2013, a survey was conducted, which was designed with three sections: 1) General information about students' Chinese language learning experience, e.g., how long they have been learning Chinese for; whether they take a Chinese language module for credits; 2) Students' perspective on using web resources to support Chinese learning, e.g., how frequently they use web resources; how effectively they think web resources can support their Chinese learning; their favourite Chinese learning websites; in which of the Chinese language skills they think web resources can help them with. A list of statements were created for students to evaluate using a five point Likert scale i.e. strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree; 3) What support do student expect from the teacher. Students also had the opportunity to share their learning experience such as the good websites they had used.

4. Results and discussion

The participants were divided into two groups: Group A had 29 students who take a Chinese language module for credits (abbreviated as credit students); Group B has 28 students who take a Chinese language module out of personal interest (abbreviated as non-credit students). About half of

the participants in Group A had studied Chinese for less than a year, and the other half had studied Chinese for one to two years. All the participants in Group B had studied for Chinese for less than a year.

4.1 How frequently do they use web resources?

Table 1 shows that about 35% of credit students access Chinese web resources every 2-3 days, and about 41% of them use the resources weekly. There are 10% of credit students using Chinese web resources every day. In contrast, about 39% of non-credit students access Chinese web resources weekly and another 39% of them access every few weeks. It is clear that credit students use Chinese web resources more frequently than non-credit students.

4.2 How effectively do they think web resources can support their Chinese learning?

Participants were asked to score the effectiveness of using web resources for Chinese language learning from 1 to 10 with '10' meaning the most effective. Table 1 reveals that almost a third of credit students (31%) gave 7 and over a third of credit students (38%) gave the score of 8. On top of that, about one fifth of credit students (21%) gave the score of 10. Similarly, among non-credit students, 21% gave the score of 7 and 25% of them gave 8, and another 11% gave the score of 10. Overall, most of the participants had positive attitudes towards using web resources as a Chinese learning tool. This is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Jin 2009). The finding is also reflected in their opinions on a few statements. Participants were asked to indicate their opinions on the statement of whether it is helpful to use Chinese learning websites outside the classroom. It is shown that among the 29 credit students, 15 strongly agreed with this statement and 12 agreed with it. Similarly, among the 28 non-credit students, 10 strongly agreed with this statement and 17 agreed with it. None of the students in both groups disagreed with the statement.

Comparing the two groups, it shows that credit students are generally more satisfied with the effectiveness of using web resources as a Chinese learning tool, compared with non-credit students. This is consistent with the students' frequency of using Chinese web resources. This is not surprising, given the stronger motivation of credit students who decided to take a Chinese language module for credits. The more frequently they used the resources, the more likely they were to believe that web resources play a positive role in their learning. However, the survey shows that a very small number of respondents are not convinced of the benefits of using web resources on Chinese language learning. There is one credit student gave the score of 2. So it is important that teachers provide students with

support and help them make the full advantage of web learning resources.

4.3 Favourite Chinese learning websites

Participants were asked to choose their favourite Chinese websites from a list of options (Multiple choices). The survey reveals that popular web resources include online dictionaries (e.g., nciku.com), online courses (e.g., BBC Learning Chinese), Mobile apps (e.g., Skritter), movies, songs, TV shows, learning games, etc.

As mentioned by previous studies (Xie, 2010), online dictionaries have become increasingly popular among CFL learners. 40 out of the 57 participants (About 70%) in this survey chose online dictionary as one of their favourite online Chinese learning resources. They are not simply electronic versions of paper dictionaries. Some online dictionaries can speak the word or sentence to the users, provide video explanations, etc. One of the participants' favourite online dictionaries is called *www.nciku.com*, which offers the convenience of searching Chinese characters easily by using an on-screen drawing board. As one participant mentioned, *'even if I cannot write a whole character, I can still be able to find it by writing some parts of the character. It helps me to search Chinese characters quickly'*. It is clear that online dictionaries with their distinctive features have become a very popular tool for Chinese learning.

The survey also shows that 25 out of the 57 participants (about 44%) are in favour of mobile apps for Chinese learning. Mobile apps offer a wide range of learning tools which can be downloaded to students' mobile devices and used on-the-go. As students carry a mobile device such as a mobile phone with them anytime and anywhere, this increases their access to mobile learning apps. In addition to portability and convenience, students also appreciated the benefit of mobile apps in specific learning areas such as vocabulary acquisition. The apps that offer mobile versions of Chinese-English dictionaries, Chinese character flash cards and practice are popular among students. One student wrote: *'it enabled me to quickly and easily check the meaning of a word whenever I need to. I can also practice writing characters and get immediate feedback'*.

Some organizations such as the BBC and the Confucius Institute offer free online Chinese courses, catering for learners of different ages, interests and learning needs. Take the BBC for example, it offers varied free online Chinese courses for adults as well as children, including video clips, educational games, cultural tips etc. These web resources are beneficial to develop Chinese language skills.

In recent years, social networking web sites, such as YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook, have become popular among young learners, as they enable them to share their messages, videos, and

other activities online. For example, one of the popular social networking web sites is YouTube, where learners can not only view a wide range of Chinese learning videos posted by other users but also upload their own videos. It is easy to search suitable Chinese learning videos on different topics, e.g., how to give directions in Chinese, how to bargain in Chinese. Students can also watch Chinese movies, TV programmes, etc on YouTube. One participant wrote: ‘I would prefer if we were linked to more YouTube videos. Also, I would like to be in contact with more Chinese people via Facebook or other social networks’ . It is clear that the popularity of social networking websites has created new opportunities for CFL learners to access authentic Chinese learning materials and even interact with other learners, which facilitates their Chinese language motivation and acquisition.

4.4 Which Chinese language skills web resources help learners with?

The questionnaire also reveals learners’ views on which language skills web resources can help them with. Though their views varied, it is clear that vocabulary, listening and pronunciation benefit the most, which is consistent with the study by Chin, et al (2011). Unlike European words, Chinese characters cannot be spelled out alphabetically. Thus learning Chinese requires a unique memorizing effort: remembering both tones and Chinese characters. In order to learn Chinese vocabulary, CFL learners engage in various learning strategies including playing flashcards, using bilingual dictionaries, having a conversation with Chinese native speakers, watching Chinese movies, etc. The multimedia and interactive features of the Internet, which often lack in traditional language textbooks can cater for different learning strategies, stimulate learners’ learning interest, and develop their independent study skills. For example, some students prefer to look up new words or practice writing Chinese characters on their mobile devices by using downloaded mobile Apps; some students enjoy watching animation movies online which tell the origins of Chinese characters. These Online resources seem to make vocabulary learning more accessible (on-the-go), interactive and interesting, and therefore attractive to the CFL learners. Moreover, participants consider e-learning as a useful tool to facilitate pronunciation and listening skills. A typical comment was: *‘I think the most useful ones are the ones that help with vocabulary and pronunciation. Perhaps because that’s what I struggle most with, however they are extremely useful outside class when I haven’t got immediate access to the tutor’* .

4.5 Using web resources in class

When being asked whether they agree or disagree with the statement that teachers should increase class time for the use of web resources, learners have varied views. 12 out of the 29 credit students

(41%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and another 4 credit students (13%) disagreed with this opinion. Group B shows similar results with 13 out of the 28 non-credit students (46%) neither agreed nor disagreed and 2 of them (7%) disagreed. Overall, over half of the participants don't think the teacher should spend more class time on the use of web resources. They prefer to access web resources outside the classroom for self-study. Within limited class time, face-to-face teaching and classroom interactions among students and teachers are highlighted by the learners. It is clear that participants see e-learning as an important part of their learning. However, they do not see e-learning as a replacement for traditional tutorials. Instead, e-learning can be more of a supplement to it. This reveals that even in the age of internet, teacher still plays a vital role on CFL learners' Chinese learning and online learning cannot replace the teacher's duty in a classroom. This result is consistent with the study by Cheng (2011) which also suggests that learners may still prefer face-to-face class if both face-to-face and online instructions are available, especially for those at the lower Chinese proficient level.

4.6 What Support do students expect from the teacher?

Then, what support do learners expect from the teacher in terms of using online learning resources? Here are some comments:

'I expect the teacher to point out useful online resources, which are especially relevant to the material we are covering that time period'

'Should provide links on Blackboard which is already done, also the students should share for themselves'

'Guidance on how to use them and where to look for reliable source'

It is suggested that the teacher could offer the following invaluable support to learners:

- Introducing web resources at the beginning of the term
- Encouraging students to work together and share with each other useful resources
- Integrating classroom activities with online learning either before or after a lesson

One disadvantage of using web resources is that sometimes it is time consuming to find suitable websites. Therefore, it would be helpful if teachers group resources into different categories and add the links to these resources on VLE. Students are also encouraged to share resources with each other. To maximize the efficiency of using online resources, classroom activities can be integrated with students' independent e-learning either before or after a lesson. For example, students are asked to find the stroke order and the possible story of a new character (e.g., 旱) through online dictionaries, YouTube, and other resources before a lesson and then present and discuss the results in class. In the UK language environment, which is dominated by English, learners have limited opportunities to

actively communicate in Chinese. This study suggests that it may be helpful that learners engage in more oral practice and group work in class, while the grammar tutorials, vocabulary, reading, listening, and writing practice can be done through VLE outside the classroom.

5. Conclusion

In the last decade or so, we have witnessed a greater emphasis in language teaching approaches to adopt web-based learning to enhance the language classroom experience. These websites offer compelling, interactive learning environments that act as effective supplements to a traditional teaching approach. Both regular face-to-face lesson and online learning have their individual strengths and limitations as suggested in the literature. The traditional lessons allow learners to engage in real-time student-to-teacher and student-to-student interaction. However, it also presents its own limitations, such as the restriction of time and location. The online learning environment, on the other hand, provides access to a wide range of authentic contents (text-based, visual graphic, video, and audio) in the target language. In addition to the rich and varied comprehensible input, learners can even communicate directly with native speakers through internet blogs, discussion room, online-chat, etc. Web resources create great opportunities not only to broaden learners' knowledge about language and culture, but also develop their independent study skills. Thus, it is beneficial to combine the advantages of both face-to-face instruction and e-learning to develop learners' Chinese language skills.

It is clear that with varied learning resources online, the teacher continues to play an indispensable role, including introducing the resources suitable for the learners' proficiency level and lesson plan; guiding learners on how to use resources effectively; encouraging and motivating learners, monitoring their progress and providing feedback.

However, given the limited number of participants and the low proficiency of most of the participants, it is uncertain whether the findings of this study would reflect broader uses of web resources by CFL learners in the world.

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Table 1 Questionnaire results

How often do you use web resources to support Chinese learning outside class?		
	Credit students	Non-credit students
Daily	3 (10%)	0
Every 2-3 days	10 (35%)	1 (4%)
Weekly	12 (41%)	11 (39%)
Every few weeks	1 (3%)	11 (39%)
Monthly	2 (7%)	4 (14%)
Never	1 (3%)	1 (4%)
Favourite Chinese learning web sources (Multiple choice)		
Free online courses and resources	11	16
Online chat with a language partner	9	1
Social networks, e.g., Facebook, Twitter	4	1
Chinese learning blogs	2	2
Discussion forum	2	0
Online learning games	6	12
Movies, songs, TV shows, etc	13	4
Mobile apps	13	12
Online dictionary / translator	25	15
How effectively do you think web resources can support your Chinese learning?		
1 less effectively	0	0
2	1(3%)	0
3	0	0
4	1(3%)	1(4%)
5	1(3%)	3(11%)
6	0	5(18%)
7	9(31%)	6(21%)
8	11 (38%)	7(25%)
9	0	3(11%)
10 most effectively	6(21%)	3(11%)
7. In which of the following do you think web resources can help you with? (Multiple choice)		
Pronunciation	21	15
Vocabulary	23	20
Grammar	11	10

Writing	14					17				
Reading	11					12				
Speaking	13					13				
Listening	22					23				
Chinese culture	15					12				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
It is helpful to use Chinese learning websites after class	15	12	2			10	17	1		
I can easily find the Chinese web resources I need	3	19	2	5		4	16	3	5	
I am satisfied with the content of these resources	5	17	3	4		2	17	7	2	
The resources made learning more enjoyable	11	13	4	1		5	18	5		
The teacher should use more web resources in class	2	10	12	4	1	3	10	13	2	
I have received sufficient support from the teacher	15	12	1		1	17	10	1		

Notes:

1 The table shows the number of students for each answer.

2 A: strongly agree; B: agree; C: neither agree or disagree; D: disagree; E: strongly disagree

汉语初学者学习动机研究

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摘 要：汉语学习动机是激发学生学习汉语的内在动力，对学生的汉语学习效果起到重要作用。本研究设计并开展了汉语学习动机问卷调查，研究了 75 名外国学生汉语初学者的汉语学习动机，并比较了不同专业初学者的汉语学习动机。他们的汉语学习动机排在前三位的是对汉语感兴趣、对中国文化感兴趣和为了在中国旅行。根据汉语学习动机计算结果，提出了激发学生汉语学习动机、以汉语和中国文化为教学核心、提升汉语教师培训等有针对性的教学建议。

关键词：外国学生 汉语 汉语初学者 汉语学习动机

1. 引言

1.1 关于汉语学习动机

动机是人们行动的原因、出发点和目的。许多学者都对外语学习动机进行了研究，“早在上个世纪 50 年代末，Lambert 和 Gardner 就开始了第二语言学习动机研究”（注释 1），中国著名学者文秋芳（2001）、秦晓晴（2002，2003）也研析了外语学习动机。对于外国学生来说，学习汉语就是学习他们母语以外的一门外语。汉语学习动机是他们汉语学习需求的反映，是汉语学习过程中的重要的主观因素，它直接影响着学习者的汉语学习行为、学习策略、学习结果等。

1.2 关于汉语教学

汉语教学是在汉语教师的教授和引导下，帮助和引领学习汉语的人学好汉语。其最终目的

是提高学习者的汉语水平。汉语教师和汉语学习者是汉语教学过程中不可或缺、互为作用的组成要素。在当今倡导的“以学生为本”的教育理念下,了解汉语学习者的动机对搞好汉语教学能够提供更为有益的借鉴和帮助。

2. 研究内容及过程

2.1 研究目的与问卷设计

本研究旨在了解汉语初学者的汉语学习动机,了解其学习汉语的原因,以期为搞好汉语教学提供有实证性和借鉴性的参考依据。本调查先就学生学习汉语的动机进行了口头调查,了解了初步情况,然后参阅了相关外语学习动机调查研究文献(注释2),设计了汉语学习者汉语学习动机调查问卷。

2.2 调查内容

本次调查内容包括被试个人信息和汉语学习动机等内容。被试个人信息部分含有被试的性别、年龄、母语、学习汉语的时间等;汉语学习动机部分含有9个条目,条目依次为:1、“对汉语感兴趣”;2、“对中国文化感兴趣”;3、“为了方便和说汉语的朋友交流”;4、“为了学业的需要”;5、“为了在中国旅行”;6、“父母要求”;7、“为了参加HSK考试”;8、现在或将来的工作需要汉语;9、其他原因。被试就其中各条目内容是否与自己学汉语动机相符做出标注,条目可多选。

2.3 调查对象及过程

本项研究调查对象为保加利亚三所开设汉语课的非华裔大学生。考虑到被试的实际汉语水平和汉语理解能力,调查问卷使用语言为保加利亚语和汉语,并经保籍汉学家最后审核。调查在教室中进行。本次调查共发放问卷百余份,其中被试为初学汉语者的有效问卷为75份(注释3),年龄从18岁到24岁不等,具体情况见表1。调查结束后,又对选第9题“其他原因”的被试进行了单独访谈,以便了解其具体原因。

表 1 被试基本情况 (N=75)

分 类	性 别		专 业	
	男	女	汉语专业	汉语选修专业
人 数	23	52	15	60
所占百分比	30.7%	69.3%	20.0%	80.0%

3. 研究问题

一是汉语初学者汉语学习动机情况如何？二是不同专业的汉语初学者汉语学习动机有无差异？

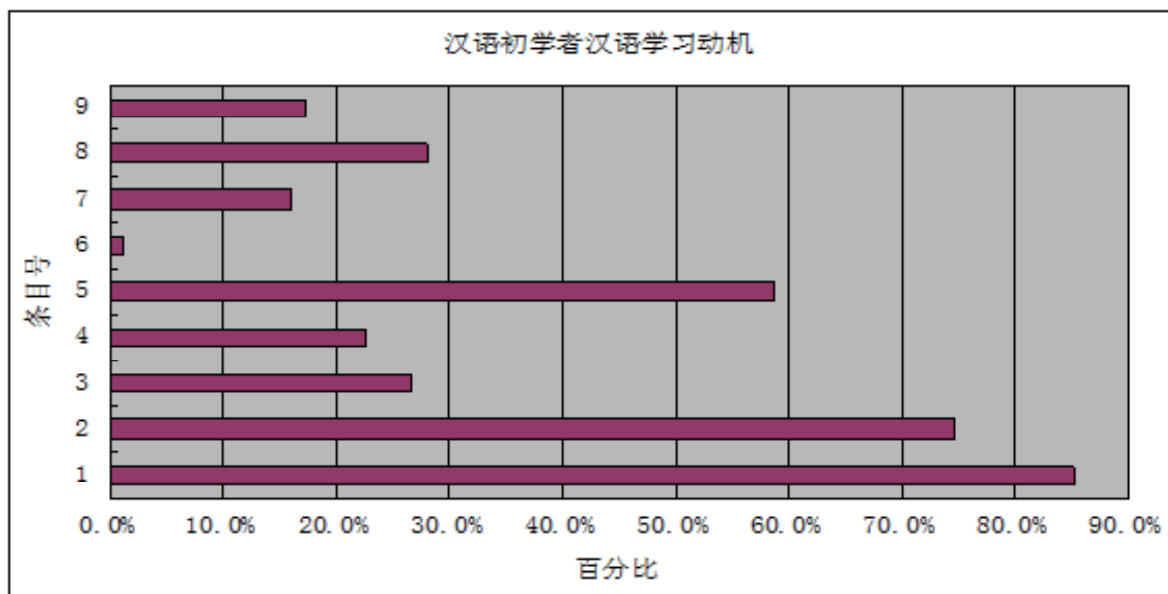
4. 研究结果

4.1 汉语初学者汉语学习动机情况

经过数据统计和分析，被试学习汉语的动机如图 1 所示：

在被试的汉语学习动机中，从高到低排在前三位且比例均超过百分之五十的依次是“对汉语感兴趣”（85.3%）、“对中国文化感兴趣”（74.7%）、“为了在中国旅行”（58.7%），此后排位第四的是“现在或将来的工作需要汉语”（28.0%），第五是“为了方便和说汉语的朋友交流”（26.7%），第六是“为了学业的需要”（22.7%）。排在后三位的是“其他原因”（17.3%）、“为了参加 HSK 考试”（16.0%）和“父母要求”（1.3%）。通过访谈，发现其他原因中被试的回答多为是喜欢汉字、喜欢中国书法和武术、喜欢中国音乐、喜欢中国古代文化等更为具体的原因，其内容多与“对汉语感兴趣”、“对中国文化感兴趣”有关。所以，可以考虑把“其他原因”归类于动机条目 1 “对汉语感兴趣”和条目 2 “对中国文化感兴趣”里。也就是说，事实上，条目 1 和条目 2 的百分比比实际统计数据还要高。

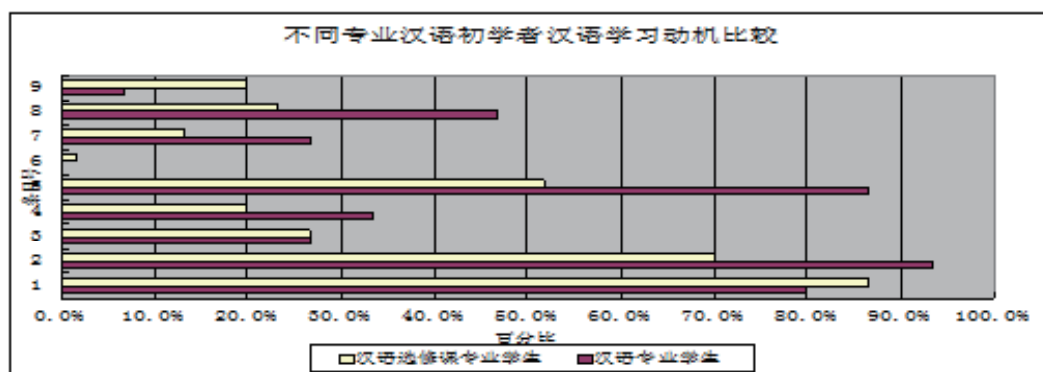
图 1 汉语初学者汉语学习动机情况



4.2 不同专业的汉语初学者学习动机比较

此次调查中，被试由两种不同的专业组成，分别为汉语专业（N=15）、汉语作为选修课专业（N=60）。经过对两种不同专业被试的汉语学习动机情况比较，得出他们各自的汉语学习动机情况（如图 2）：

图 2 不同专业汉语初学者汉语学习动机比较



从图中可见，两组专业排在前三位的条目均是条目 1 “对汉语感兴趣”、条目 2 “对中国文化感兴趣”和条目 5 “为了在中国旅行”，且百分比均超过 50%。经过对两种不同专业学生汉语学习动机结果进行卡方检验， $p < 0.05$ 的条目只有条目 5——“为了在中国旅行”（ $\chi^2 = 6.06$ ），这说明两种不同专业学生在选择汉语学习动机的条目“为了在中国旅行”中存在显著差异，其

他条目选择没有显著差异。

5. 调查结果

5.1 关于汉语初学者汉语学习动机情况

汉语初学者的汉语学习动机主要是对汉语和中国文化感兴趣，此外，还有很多学生是为了在中国旅行而学习汉语。

5.2 关于不同专业汉语初学者汉语学习动机

汉语专业初学者的汉语学习动机和汉语选修课专业初学者的汉语学习动机既有相同之处也有不同之处。相同之处是：他们的汉语学习主要动机均为“对汉语感兴趣”、“对中国文化感兴趣”、“为了在中国旅行”。不同的是：选择“为了在中国旅行”这一汉语学习动机的汉语专业学生要远远高于汉语选修课学生，差异显著。

6. 讨论与启示

6.1 以保持汉语初学者现有学习动机为前提，激发汉语学习动机

汉语初学者有着不同的汉语学习动机。这些动机是促使他们开始学习汉语的重要动力。从不同角度划分，学习动机可分为直接动机和间接动机、内部动机和外部动机等。调查结果显示，对汉语和中国文化的喜爱等动机是多数外国学生的汉语学习动机是直接动机和内部动机。对于母语为拼音字母的外国学生来说，汉语是他们心目中最难学习的语言之一。有些学生因为喜爱汉语或中国文化开始学习汉语，但在汉语学习中因有畏难情绪而打退堂鼓。为了防止类似事件发生，教师应当努力保持汉语初学者现有汉语学习动机，在此基础上，注意激发他们更为持久的和深入的长远汉语学习动机。并且，对于不同专业的初学者，应该注重培养不同的汉语学习动机。对于汉语专业的学生，应该注重培养他们对汉语和中国文化的深入了解和热爱，以及旅游文化的渗透和强化；对于非汉语专业学生，更多地是在引导他们对汉语和中国文化有所了解，同时，特别注重保有他们对汉语的偏爱。这样，才能实现满足他们喜好、保持他们现有的学习

动机并能进一步激发其他汉语学习动机的目的。

6.2 以汉语和中国文化为双核心，多角度开展汉语教学

调查结果显示，汉语初学者汉语学习动机排名榜首、百分比也超过 50% 的是“对汉语感兴趣”、“对中国文化感兴趣”。汉语作为语言学习的本体部分，具有与其他语言不同的独特魅力，这成为它吸引外国学生学习汉语的重要因素。所以，在汉语教学中，应该加强汉语本体教学这一核心内容，诸如，加强汉字教学、音韵教学等。同时，有着悠久历史的中国文化也如一朵奇葩吸引着外国学生。因此，在对外国学生开展的汉语教学中，应当注重兼顾中国文化这一核心内容，将中国文化以微观和具体的形式展现给外国学生，从而满足外国学生的学习需求，提高汉语教学实效。

6.3 以旅游文化等为主要教学内容和活动手段，完善教材编写和教学方法

“为了在中国旅行”这一条目以超过 50% 的比例名列前茅，这说明旅行是汉语初学者的重要汉语学习的动机之一。这一结果提示我们，在编写汉语教材、开展汉语教学时应该注意增加和扩充相关旅行知识，比如中国旅游景点介绍、旅游用语等旅游行程中要经历和接触的种种情况，尤其是在对汉语专业学生的教学中。为了收到良好教学效果，在教学方法上也应注重改革，可以采取模拟旅行场景、安排旅行任务等形式开展汉语教学。具体的形象和实际的操作都能在最大程度上吸引外国学生们的兴趣，提高他们的汉语水平。

6.4 以汉语本体和中国文化等知识为培训内容，加强汉语教师队伍培训

外国学生学习汉语的动机主要体现在对汉语和中国文化感兴趣以及旅行上，这就给汉语教学的引领者——汉语教师，予以了具体明确的提示：应该注重学习和掌握以上几方面的知识。师资力量是保证汉语教学健康持续发展的决定性因素。因此，应该站在全球化背景下，提高汉语教师的水平，其中包括以上几方面的知识。这就要做到：在教师队伍中加强对汉语的魅力、汉语学习规律、中国文化、旅行常识等知识的培训，使教师能够在教学中展示汉语的魅力、中国文化的特色、中国旅游景区特点、旅行前后要经历的种种过程等，以保持外国学生的汉语学习热情，激发他们的汉语学习兴趣。总之，在汉语教师培训中，既要注重加强汉语知识培训，又要强化中国文化的知识，还要关注到旅行文化知识等，做到在汉语教学中有效渗透中国文化，包括中国旅游知识，做到汉语、中国文化以及中国旅行等知识并举。

6.5 以教会学生学习汉语为目的, 研究汉语学习规律

有着不同学习动机的外国学生开始学习汉语时, 一般都觉得汉语与众不同, 新鲜独特, 但是随着学习的深入, 学生们会经历学习的高原反应期阶段, 会对与他们的母语相距甚远的汉语学习产生疑惑, 进而退缩。所以, 汉语教师在教学过程中, 一方面要注重保护好学生的汉语学习动机, 同时也应该注意教授和引导他们了解学习汉语的策略和学习规律。掌握了这些学习策略和规律, 能够提高他们的汉语学习成绩(注释4), 这既会促使他们继续保有汉语学习动机, 保持汉语学习热情, 同时也能提高汉语成绩, 并形成良性循环。

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注释:

注释1: 引自秦晓晴(2003): 16。

注释2: 参见江新(2000)、吴勇毅(2007)、孙德金(2009)。

注释3: 本研究所提及的汉语初学者是指刚开始学习汉语, 学习时间没有超过3个月的大学生。

注释4: 孙永红 徐向东(2013) 研究结果显示: 汉语学习策略和汉语学习成绩成正相关。

Activating empathy: Language teacher education through a Chinese course

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Abstract

The qualitative research project reported here provided a description of part of a language teacher education programme. The role of empathy was emphasised as an attribute in 16 trainee-teachers' professional development through a Chinese language taster course. Chinese was chosen as an exotic language. Peer teaching was implemented in order to maximise trainee-teachers' engagement in the course. The project was designed to increase trainee-teachers' awareness of their school pupils' learning activities and strengthen their attachment to their pupils. Trainee-teachers' empathetic development involved their motivational reasoning, affective empathy and cognitive empathy. Data sources in the current paper included student weekly reflective journals and final group reports. The authors attempted to attest the activation of empathy as an approach to language teacher education and examine the rationale for choosing Chinese in such a setting. The results from this project also suggested the possibility of creating contexts in which other language teachers may exercise their empathetic dispositions.

Keywords: Empathy, Peer Teaching, Chinese Language, Language Teacher Education

1. Introduction

A wealth of literature has attempted to focus on language teacher education in terms of the impact of reflective activities on trainee-teachers' professional development (Roberts, 1998; Moon, 1999; Webb, 2001; Freeman, 2002; Kelly et al., 2004; Martin, 2005; Richards, 2008; Devitt et al, 2012). However, research into empathy has not exclusively been conducted in association with a peer teaching classroom in the field of language teacher education. This paper aims to address this gap. In this context, trainee-teachers play a dual role. As language learners, they need to learn Chinese and achieve the required level of subject knowledge toward the end of the Chinese course. As secondary school teachers, they reflect on their learning process and associate it with their own teaching in schools. This reflective process creates a situation in which they gain better understandings of their school pupils and become more empathic with them. In order to help the trainee-teachers to achieve the course objectives and maximise their participation in this Chinese course, peer teaching is adopted. Trainee-teachers are required to act as both peer learners and peer teachers for part of each Chinese lesson. This paper attempts to explore the impact of the Chinese course on trainee-teachers' professional development, with special emphasis on activating their empathy with their school pupils.

2. Literature review

The concepts which are reviewed in this section include peer teaching and empathy. Peer teaching is the teaching approach in this study. Empathy is the impact area of peer teaching. Among different types of peer teaching, reciprocal peer teaching is highlighted. The review on empathy explores affective empathy, cognitive empathy and the perceived similarity between the empathiser and others.

2.1. Peer teaching

Over the last few decades, research has explored a number of types of peer teaching. Brown (2000) suggests three types of peer learning, which are peer learning in the same class groups, cross-year peer learning, pairing or reciprocal learning with a partner from the same class. In line with Brown, Falchikov (2001) suggests four types of peer tutoring: same-level equal status peer tutoring, same-level unequal status peer tutoring, cross-level peer tutoring involves one institution and cross-

level peer tutoring involving two institutions. Boud (2001) highlights that reciprocal peer teaching creates benefits for both peer learners and peer teachers within a given class or cohort and “emphasizes students simultaneously learning and contributing to other students’ learning” (2001: 4). For him, the ultimate goal of peer learning is to increase the knowledge of both peer learners and peer teachers. As he puts it, peer learning is “a two-way, reciprocal learning activity (and) should be mutually beneficial and involve the sharing of knowledge, ideas and experience between the participants” (2001: 3). For him, this mutually beneficial relationship among all learners allow them to learn as well as to “develop skills in organizing and planning learning activities, working cooperatively with others, giving and receiving feedback and evaluating their own learning” (2001: 3). He adds that reciprocal peer learning focuses on “the learning process, including the emotional support that learners offer each other, as much as the learning task itself” (2001: 4).

These researchers’ categorisation of peer teaching is based on the degree to which peer teachers are more capable than their peer learners and can be divided into three basic categories. The first one is when peer teachers are genuinely more capable than peer learners. This possibility falls into Brown’s peer learning in cross-year peer learning, and Falchikov’s same-level unequal status peer tutoring and cross-level peer tutoring. The second category suggests that peer teachers might be more capable than peer learners. But their capability might arise temporally or in a particular area. This possibility falls into Brown’s peer learning in the same class groups and Falchikov’s same-level equal status peer tutoring. The third category is similar to the second one in terms of peer teachers’ level of subject knowledge. However, it further emphasises the reciprocal relationship between peer teachers and peer learners. They contribute to each other’s learning and, consequently, benefit from each other’s contribution. This category falls into Brown’s pairing or reciprocal learning with a partner from the same class and Boud’s reciprocal peer learning. All the three categories of peer teaching enrich the scope of peer teaching and the ways in which peer learners and peer teachers may participate. They provide the structural basis for the implementation of peer teaching in different contexts.

In the literature, researchers (Brown, 2000; Ritterman, 2000; Hunter & Russ, 2000; Boud, 2001; Sampson & Cohen, 2001; Sampson & Cohen, 2001a) have suggested five core benefits of different types of peer teaching for learners. Peer teaching is likely to increase learners’ subject knowledge; encourage them to participate in learning actively; encourage them to reflect on learning processes; foster an interactive learning environment; develop both learning and social skills. The combination of the five benefits which individual peer teaching projects partially create explore a path through which learners’ growth is maximised. The current paper explores this path in the context of activating trainee-teachers’ empathy.

2.2. Empathy

The concept of empathy has been embraced by many researchers over the last few decades. As a result, it has been defined in a variety of ways. The following three aspects emerge from a careful examination of the definitions of empathy: affective empathy, cognitive empathy and, the perceived similarity between the empathiser and others. These three aspects are integral components of empathy. While empathy concerns the affective aspect and cognitive aspect, the empathiser's awareness of others' feelings is enhanced and his/her desire to help them is strengthened. The similarity of the empathiser's learning experiences to those of others acts as a basis for ensuring the occurrence and development of both affective and cognitive empathy.

Affective empathy is generally referred to as the awareness of others' state of mind or feelings. Hogan defines empathy with an emphasis on its affective side. For him, empathy is "the intellectual or imaginative apprehension of another's condition or state of mind without actually experiencing that person's feelings" (1969: 308). In line with Hogan, Stompe et al argue that empathy "is an affective response that stems from the apprehension or comprehension of another's emotional state or condition, and which is similar to what the other person is feeling or would be expected to feel in the given situation" (2010: 44). Certain researchers highlight the empathiser's focus on others' feelings. Cheon et al state that "the neural correlates of affective components of empathy may allow a perceiver to 'feel' what the target is experiencing" (2010: 33). For Howe, being empathic is entering into other people's feelings. As he describes, "we have empathy, meaning 'into feeling' or 'feeling into' (2013: 9). Cognitive empathy is often referred to as the empathiser's ability to respond to others' state of mind or enter into their feelings and the actions he/she takes accordingly. Stompe et al argue that cognitive empathy "refers to the mental process of understanding and sharing others' emotion and provides a proximate mechanism of altruistic behaviours and is strongly modulated by cognitive and social factors" (2010: 44)". Baron-Cohen points out that empathy is the "ability to identify what someone else is thinking or feeling and to respond to their thoughts and feelings with an appropriate emotion" (2011: 11).

Perceived similarity between the empathiser and others is referred to as the similar cultural background or similar experiences between them. Batson argues that "people feel for a stranger in need to the degree that they perceive the stranger to be similar to themselves. The suggestion is that perceived similarity on attributes unrelated to the need leads to increased empathy" (2005: 11). In line with Batson, Hall and Woods describes perceived similarity as a basis for liking and empathising with someone. According to them, this similarity is "also seen in reactions to fictional characters, where the

perception of a character as similar to oneself and identifying with them will typically result in liking that character, and empathising with their situation and actions” (2006: 304). Hoffman points out the impact of perceived similarity across cultures on empathic levels. As he put it, “seeing that people in other cultures have similar worries and respond emotionally as we do to important life events, while sitting in the audience and feeling the same emotions, should contribute to a sense of oneness and empathy across cultures” (2000: 294). Unlike Hoffman, Cheon et al concern the impact of perceived similarity between the empathiser and others within a culture. For them, “individuals who share a similar cultural background should be attuned to the quality and intensity of verbal and non-verbal expressions of culturally-similar others, which may provide a basis for facilitated understanding and empathy towards the plight of culturally-similar others” (2010: 34).

Research suggests that empathy is beneficial for the empathiser to help others. As Davis points out, “by virtue of their greater understanding of others’ motives for example, such persons might be more tolerant of others, and more accommodating to their views” (1994: 183). Howe (2013) argues that empathic people see and feel the world from the other’s point of view, attempt to understand it, and seek to convey that understanding as they relate with those around them. As he states, “when individuals in one group are invited to think about and empathize with the experience of people in another ‘out’ -group, inter-group prejudice, adverse judgment, bias and hostility decrease” (2013: 156). This study shares part of the setting in which the Chinese course as a whole takes place. The authors of this paper focus on the impact of the implementation of peer teaching on activating trainee-teachers’ empathy. This study does not attempt to defy the outcomes of trainee-teachers’ language learning throughout the Chinese course. Rather, the authors tend to exclusively explore the concept of empathy and share with readers the findings which this specific research context generates.

3. Methodology

Qualitative research was chosen as the research method for this study. As Berg argues, it answers various questions about “how humans arrange themselves and their settings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings” by examining “various social settings and the individuals who inhabit these settings” (2009: 3). Qualitative research focuses on: 1) Natural settings in which participants think and act, and attach meanings to their behaviour of lives (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998); 2) Deep understandings of people’s experiences (O’Leary, 2004; Flick, 2009; Hogan et al., 2009; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Hennink et al., 2011); 3) Inductive analysis of the significance of data (Bryman & Burgess, 1999; Hogan et al., 2009; Hennink et al.,

2011; Charmaz & Bryant, 2011); 4) Designing methods to tailor specific from different perspectives (Flick, 2009; Hogan et al., 2009). These four foci show a broad coverage of qualitative research, but they are not mutually exclusive.

The beginners' Chinese course in this study took place at an Education department in an Irish university for five weeks in 2011. There were sixteen students. The course had dual objectives. First, it was designed for trainee-teachers to learn a language and achieve a certain level of the target language towards the end of the course. Second, the target language was chosen from exotic languages. It was represented by Chinese language in this context. The rationale was that Chinese language was unknown to these trainee-teachers and enabled them to experience learning a language at the beginning stage. Peer teaching in the form of peer revision was implemented and accounted for about 20% of classroom activities and it was conducted in groups under the supervision of the classroom teacher. All students were required to write weekly journals and final group reports which recorded their learning experiences. Both the journals and reports provided the data for this study. As stated in the introduction section of this paper, the authors aim to explore the role of empathy in this language teacher education programme and attest the current approach to doing it. In doing so, the authors tend to raise the following questions to guide this study:

- Why do trainee-teachers need to become empathic with their school pupils?
- Can this course model activate trainee-teachers' empathy with their school pupils?
- Why does it have to be an exotic language in this course?

4. Findings and discussion

A great amount of feedback was relevant to answering the research questions which were raised in section 3. Three major themes were derived from the data which trainee-teachers provided in their weekly reflective journals and final group reports. The themes were explored to underpin the impact of peer teaching on trainee-teachers' empathic development.

4.1. Language learning

During the process of learning Chinese, not only did trainee-teachers achieve certain level of Chinese, but also increased their understanding of the factors which may have impact on their school pupils' learning process. Many trainee-teachers reported that peer teaching allowed them to learn Chinese from their peers. As they stated, the sessions taught by trainee-teachers were helpful

because various teaching strategies were employed during peer teaching sessions. “It was interesting because different groups used different strategies to teach us and it was a great experience to learn from our peers (Group 3: 2011) (Note 1). Trainee-teachers as peer teachers were motivated to conduct independent learning during the process of their preparation for peer teaching sessions. “Peer teaching today helped me because it pushed me to do a lot more revision (EA, 2011: 4) (Note 2). The outcomes of trainee-teachers’ independent learning convinced them to encourage their school pupils to study at home. “Peer teaching/assessment proved extremely beneficial and highlighted for us the need for a clear impetus for students to study outside of the classroom (Group 2: 2011). Trainee-teachers’ learning experience was correlated to the process of their pupils’ learning in schools. “Five days after the last Chinese class I am still feeling positive about it. I feel like the Chinese course has given me a huge insight into how my own students perceive learning Spanish and the experience has been invaluable (YE2011: W4).

4.2. Group solidarity

The findings of this study suggested that group solidarity played an important role during peer teaching sessions and was directly strengthened by trainee-teachers’ participation in peer teaching. Group solidarity applied to two types of groups: individual peer teaching groups and the Chinese class including all trainee-teachers. In terms of the first type of groups, some trainee-teachers pointed out that peer teaching “fostered a sense of camaraderie within the peer teaching group as we had to work together to prepare, practice and deliver the class (Group 7: 2011). The second type of group which was referred to the whole class was associated with trainee-teachers’ reciprocal peer teaching. When every trainee-teacher had to participate in peer teaching as both peer teacher and peer learner in turn, they took the responsibility for each other’s learning. Peer teaching “fostered an atmosphere of mutual support within a classroom (Group 2: 2011) and “also fostered a collective spirit within the class itself, as each group felt that they were contributing to everyone’s learning (Group 7: 2011). Thus, group solidarity glued all participants together. As some trainee-teachers pointed out, the strong relationship among trainee-teachers “formed the basis for developing exercises and activities in our own classes since those of us who were involved in teaching found the experience to be beneficial for our own learning and assimilation of content (Group 2: 2011).

4.3. Adopting peer teaching

As stated in 4.1 and 4.2, many trainee-teachers felt the benefits of peer teaching in terms of

language learning and group solidarity. They expressed that they would bring peer teaching into their own classrooms in order to help their school pupils to learn. “I really liked the peer teaching. I would like to try this out in my own classes as I think it would lead to my students being more autonomous and taking more control of their learning (TA, 2011: 2). As trainee-teachers pointed out, they did not tend to simply copy the existing model of peer teaching, used in this Chinese course. Rather, many of them reflected on the implementation of peer teaching and made adaptation of the model for their own teaching. “I like the idea of the peer review and it’s something I’ll look at for my own classes, probably as a topic review activity (NL, 2011: 2). During the Chinese course, some trainee-teachers already adapted peer teaching into their own classroom in schools. As they explained, their practice gained a huge success when they allowed their pupils to have full control over their peer teaching topics.

After doing the Chinese peer teaching I brought peer teaching into my classroom. I gave them full control over how they would teach the topic and told them to pretend they were explaining it to a friend. The outcome was incredible and I felt really proud of my students, they came up with creative ways to teach the points and one group had even written out a sort of lesson plan! (MA, 2011: 2)

4.4. Discussion

The three themes which were generated above included language learning, group solidarity and adopting peer teaching. They were three impact aspects of the implementation of peer teaching and illustrated trainee-teachers’ professional development. Language learning referred to trainee-teachers’ learning process and showed how this process influenced their perspectives on teaching their school pupils. As set out in 2.1, the implementation of the reciprocal peer teaching model emphasises the mutually beneficial relationship between peer teachers and peer learners who work together in cooperation with each other and give each other support. Group solidarity in this study illustrated that trainee-teachers’ development took place in a context where they were related to each other. They all contributed to the learning of others and benefited from the contribution of others. When they were all aware that they were part of a group and obliged to help each other to learn, their group solidarity was strengthened. Trainee-teachers’ participation in peer teaching allowed them to see the benefits of peer teaching for their own teaching in schools. The three aspects of empathy were underpinned by these three themes.

As set out in 2.2, affective empathy is referred to as the understanding of others’ state of mind (Hogan, 1969; Stompe, 2010) or feelings (Cheon et al, 2010; Howe, 2013). Both themes on language learning and group solidarity showed how trainee-teachers increased their understandings of their school pupils’ learning. Trainee-teachers as peer learners learnt from their peers during peer teaching

sessions. Peer teachers conducted independent learning in order to make good preparation for their teaching sessions. These two dimensions of peer teaching motivated trainee-teachers to learn in this context and also convinced them to believe the necessity to motivate their pupils to learn. The group solidarity which was fostered by the implementation of peer teaching enabled trainee-teachers as peer teachers to cooperate with each other in order to deliver their teaching sessions well. In the Chinese class classroom, trainee-teachers as both peer learners and peer teachers gave each other support. When they found the classroom environment to be beneficial in terms of peer teaching, trainee-teachers considered their team spirit as the basis for developing their own classroom activities in schools. Both themes on language learning and group solidarity demonstrated that trainee-teachers' affective empathy was developed throughout peer teaching sessions.

Cognitive empathy illustrates the empathiser's ability or skills to respond to others' feelings and the actions he/she takes accordingly (Stompe, 2010; Baron-Cohen, 2011). The theme on adopting peer teaching explored trainee-teachers' development of cognitive empathy. Trainee-teachers' learning process in this study was closely linked with their participation in peer teaching. During different peer teaching sessions, they felt the benefits of peer teaching and decided to adapt it into their own classrooms in schools. As they stated, peer teaching would lead their pupils to becoming more autonomous. This statement was also an extension of trainee-teachers' empathic development in terms of their language learning. When trainee-teachers tested out peer teaching with their pupils, the positive results verified their presumption that peer teaching would give their pupils more control of learning and encourage them to learn in creative ways. Trainee-teachers' capability of adapting peer teaching into their own classrooms verified how they managed to take actions to help their pupils to learn.

Perceived similarity highlights the similar cultural backgrounds or experiences which connect the empathiser and others together, enables the former one to become more empathic with the latter ones (Batson, 2005; Hall & Woods, 2006; Hoffman, 2000; Cheon, 2010). As presented in 4.1, trainee-teachers reported that the current Chinese course helped them to understand better how their pupils would learn a new language. In essence, the role of Chinese language as an exotic language in this context was to help trainee-teachers to rethink about their teaching in schools from their pupils' perspectives. As some trainee-teachers stated, the Chinese course in question served the purpose of enabling them to "realise just how alien it is to learn a foreign language. It has been many years since any of us have had to learn a language totally from scratch so it is hard to relate to our students without thinking hard on our experience as language learners (Group 4: 2011).

5. Conclusion

This research study was conducted in the setting of peer teaching and has examined the activation of empathy of a group of trainee-teachers through a Chinese course. The results verified that the choice of Chinese language as the exotic language in this context was appropriate. The perceived similarity in this context was referred to as learning a new language. It brought trainee-teachers to the situation in which they had to become beginner-students and experience a similar learning path as their pupils would. “The Chinese class really helped to pinpoint these very important aspects of learning a language from a student’s perspective” (Group 4: 2011). During the process of learning Chinese, trainee-teachers’ affective and cognitive empathy was promoted. They felt that their learning process enabled them to enter into their school pupils’ feelings. As some trainee-teachers pointed out, “it was interesting to sit in our student’s shoes and feel how they feel (Group 6: 2011). These trainee-teachers’ feedback correlated to Howe’s argument. According to him, “in general, a clear knowledge and understanding of your own and the other person’s disposition and situation, nature and circumstance are likely to lead to better and more accurate empathy” (2013: 17).

The authors of this paper attempted to explore the role of activating trainee-teachers’ empathy in a peer teaching setting. By reading and analysing the data, they strengthened their belief that the current research design may go beyond this Chinese course as part of a language teacher education programme. Teachers with different experiences and from any disciplines may resume their endeavour to gain better awareness and understandings of their students’ learning and help them to learn. As Howe suggests, “empathic minds foster cooperation, collaboration and civility. Good quality relationship brings about the capacity to be empathic. Being empathic is a defining quality of what it is to be human” (2013: 18).

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Note 1. It refers to Group 3's final report in 2011.

Note 2. It refers to student EA's fourth weekly reflective journal in 2011.

Teaching Classical Chinese at a Liberal Arts College in the United States: Bates College

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Abstract

This paper discusses how the classical Chinese course at Bates College is designed and taught, what textbook is adopted and adapted to the course, and what language(s) of teaching should be used for the best interest of students, in comparison with the Chinese classical courses at other colleges and universities in the United States and China.

Key Words: *Classical Chinese, language of teaching, prerequisite, literal translation, literary translation.*

In China, classical Chinese is offered at many colleges and universities for international students, either as an up-level required course for those who study for a degree in Chinese studies, or an elective course for those who come for a non-degree diploma. In the United States, classical Chinese has been integrated into the language curriculum at about 50% of the colleges and universities with a Chinese program, such as Harvard University, Princeton University, Columbia University and UC Berkeley (Liu and Gao, 2010, p73). However, the way it is taught varies from school to school, depending on who the target audience is, how competent the instructor is when it comes to bilingual instruction, and how sufficient the funding for the program is. In general, small liberal arts colleges are fewer in number offering courses on classical Chinese than big comprehensive universities in the United States, but they have their own strength in designing and conducting these courses. Bates College, located in the

north-eastern part of the United States, is just such a small liberal arts college with a quite successful undergraduate Chinese program, where I served, in the academic year of 2012-13, as a full-time visiting instructor teaching a course on classical Chinese, among other Chinese courses.^① This paper intends to discuss, based on my own experience, the way Bates' classical Chinese course is designed and taught, in comparison with those at other colleges and universities in the United States and China.

I. The Course

A classical Chinese course is defined as a language course for some schools, or as a culture course for others. It may also be regarded as a combination of both. At Bates College, Chinese 415 "Readings in Classical Chinese" may count either as a language course, or a culture/literature course depending on students' needs to fulfill their major or minor requirements. Its course description in the catalog makes this dual purpose quite clear: "Chinese 415. Readings in Classical Chinese. An intensive study of classical Chinese through reading sections of ancient literary, historical, and philosophical texts in the original, including excerpts from the *Analects*, the *Mencius*, *Laozi*, *Zhuangzi*, *Shiji*, Tang and Song prose, and poetry."^②

The course description of "Readings in Classical Chinese" at Bates College also indicates that Chinese 302 or 401 is a prerequisite for the course, which means that students have to take at least three years of Chinese before taking classical Chinese. Other colleges and universities in the United States have similar prerequisites, such as Princeton University and Middlebury College. Students taking classical Chinese in the Middlebury College intensive summer "immersion" sessions are "normally students already at the fourth-year level" (Von Kowallis, 2002, p139). But students at Columbia University taking Professor Lening Liu's "Introduction to classical Chinese" may have no knowledge of modern Chinese at all, for the prerequisites for the course are either one year of Chinese, or two years of Japanese or Korean, or the equivalent.

This shows that Chinese programs/departments in the United States have different approaches to teaching classical Chinese. In China however, most schools seem to share the same view about their objectives for teaching international students: On the one hand, it is important for students to have the

① Bates College's Chinese program was first established in 1989 and is one of the Chinese programs with the longest history in the North-east. It offers a Chinese major and a Chinese minor, which are built around a structured sequence of instruction in language skills leading to competency in spoken and written Mandarin, with classical Chinese taught at the advanced level. It also offers a few courses in English on Chinese literature/culture each year, e.g., Chinese 207 "Traditional Chinese Literature in Translation."

② Of course there is no such thing as a clear-cut distinction between language and culture. Here these two terms are used to show how important they are for major or minor requirements. A Chinese major at Bates needs to take 7 language courses and 4 literature/culture courses, plus a senior thesis, and a minor 6 language courses and one literature/culture course.

ability to read classical texts and to gain knowledge about classical Chinese and pre-modern Chinese culture; on the other hand, it is more important for students in a classical Chinese class to “attain greater proficiency in modern Chinese” (Zhu, 2001, p53), or to “reinforce their command over the modern language by taking a classical Chinese class” (Yao, 2009, p53). It is widely believed among Chinese language instructors in China that it would be too high a bar set for international students if they are expected to have such a good command of classical Chinese that they can do research on pre-modern texts or documents entirely on their own. In the English speaking world however, the emphasis is placed on reading comprehension at some schools, but on improving modern Chinese at others. Professor Jon Eugene von Kowallis, director of the Chinese Studies Program at the University of New South Wales in Australia (who has taught at quite a few colleges and universities in the United States, including Williams College), points out that Australian and American students “who have gone as far as second- or third-year Chinese have also by that time gotten at least an impression of the importance of classical Chinese as an influence on both the written and the spoken forms of the modern language” (Von Kowallis, 2002, p134). Similarly, at Princeton University “most students taking classical Chinese in order to have a deeper understanding of pre-modern Chinese culture and to maintain or raise their proficiency level in modern Chinese” (Liu and Gao, 2010, p76). But instructors who have different views maintain that what is most important in classical language instruction is to develop in students the ability to understand pre-modern texts or documents regardless of its influence on the modern language. Professor Lening Liu of Columbia University goes much further in that direction, maintaining that students not only should be able to read classical texts, but also to speak and even write essays in classical Chinese.^① This claim however, is based on the fact that Columbia University offers two years or four semesters of classical Chinese, i.e., “Introduction to Classical Chinese I,” “Introduction to Classical Chinese II,” “Readings in Classical Chinese I,” and “Readings in Classical Chinese II,” with the last two intended for graduate students or Ph. D candidates. Bates College on the other hand, offers only one semester of classical Chinese exclusively for undergraduate students, and Professor Shuhui Yang who has taught this course at Bates for more than ten years, makes a much more modest claim that students after completing the course should be able to read other classical texts on their own, with the aid of a good dictionary. The emphasis is clearly on reading comprehension in classical Chinese. When I was teaching this classical Chinese course at Bates, I adopted a middle way policy, with a slight leaning towards modern Chinese, i.e., trying to make a connection between classical Chinese and modern Chinese by paying attention not only to the historical development of Chinese characters and vocabulary, but more importantly also to the use of idioms and language clunks

^① Information from my conversation with Professor Lening Liu at the 11th BCLTS International Conference on Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language in Higher Education at University of Nottingham on July 4th, 2013.

in modern Chinese as formal and elegant expressions so as to raise students' ability to read formal writings in modern Chinese. Of course, since American professors in general have much autonomy to decide how to teach a course, the above mentioned different approaches to teaching classical Chinese may be directly related to the instructor's personal educational background and research interest.

II. Textbooks

In his article "Classical Chinese: Thriving at the Turn of the Millennium," Professor Jon Eugene von Kowallis makes a detailed review of four classical Chinese textbooks published in the United States or Australia, in comparison with the other two published in China, and he gives his highest recommendation to *Gateway to the Chinese Classics: A Practical Guide to Literary Chinese* compiled by Jeanette L. Faurot and published by China Books & Periodicals in San Francisco, California in 1995. It has been used as a textbook at Bates College for more than ten year, much to the satisfaction of both students and faculty.

Faurot's book is an introduction to classical Chinese, and as such it focuses on the language of classical texts such as the Confucian *Analects*, *Lao Zi*, early histories and Tang and Song poetry. In other words, it gives first priority to students' ability to understand classical texts. The book consists of ten lessons with an Introduction starting with a list of about 350 basic vocabulary items, each of which is given one or more lexical definitions in English. Lesson 1 presents some basic structural principles of classical Chinese, such as the traditional grammarians' categories of "empty" *xu* and "full" *shi* words and simple structures like Modifier-Modified, X and Y, Subject-Predicate and Verb-Object. Lessons 2-8 introduce basic grammatical particles and the patterns in which they occur, basic classical vocabulary, and selected classical texts. Lessons 9 and 10 contain a selection of well-known classical texts with vocabulary notes (Faurot, 1995, p.iv). Each of the lessons includes plenty of exercises to test students' reading knowledge, while grammar is "topical and kept to a minimum...", always directly related to the lesson at hand" (Von Kowallis, 2002, p135). The book clearly shows the use of a "graduated, inductive approach" gradually moving from easier selections to harder ones (Von, Kowallis, 2002, p134).

Kowallis(2002) also makes other favorable comments on Faurot's(1995) approach to her textbook. For one thing, as a "gateway" to the Chinese classics it introduces "an ample amount of simple, relatively straightforward poetry to balance out the prose excerpts from early philosophers and historians," and for another, schools of philosophy are introduced in English, in an "approachable, non-partisan, non-preachy way" (Von Kowallis, 2002, p135). While I totally agree with Kowallis on

the above-mentioned strengths of Faurot's textbook, what interests me most is that each of the lessons, from Lesson 2 to Lesson 9, concludes with a section of exercises on *chengyu* (idioms). Although the book is not intended for students to attain greater proficiency in modern Chinese, or to reinforce their command over the modern language, these exercises on *chengyu* can be expanded to include the use of formal and elegant expressions in modern Chinese. In addition, the instructor may also ask students to make a modern Chinese translation, as well as an English one, for the classical Chinese expressions in question.

III. Language of Teaching

The language used in teaching is closely related to the objective of the course, and in the case of teaching classical Chinese to non-native speakers of Chinese, it depends primarily on students' level of proficiency in both Chinese and English. According to the survey done by Liu Zhiwei and Gao Chen (Liu and Gao, 2010, p73), half of the colleges and universities in the United States prefer English and the other half modern Chinese. But to students with two or more years of Chinese, it seems impossible to conduct the class either entirely in English or entirely in modern Chinese. In fact I believe it is a matter of how much the instructor needs to use English or Chinese, and when to use it. Based on my experience teaching at Bates College, I would like to make the following comments.

First, the language used in teaching classical Chinese to non-native speakers of Chinese normally includes three kinds, i.e., directional teaching language (e.g. "Please read this paragraph"), evaluative teaching language (e.g., "Correct!" "Good!"), and explanatory teaching language. With directional language and evaluative language, instructors normally can make themselves quite clear to students, whether they prefer to teach the course in English or in Chinese. Explanatory teaching language however, is much more complicated, for it is used to perform multiple tasks: 1) to give lexical definitions to new vocabulary, 2) to explain grammatical structures, 3) to translate and analyze texts, and 4) to provide information on pre-modern Chinese literature and culture. If one's objective is for students to have the ability to read classical texts and to gain knowledge about classical Chinese and pre-modern Chinese culture, and if there are students in the class without adequate knowledge of modern Chinese (as in Professor Liu's class), then the instructor has to use English exclusively in class. But if students are required to complete two or three years of modern Chinese before taking classical Chinese, then the class can be very well conducted partly in Chinese. At Bates College, the classical Chinese class could be taught largely in Chinese because on one hand, my students had attained adequate proficiency in modern Chinese before they came to my class, and on the other hand I, as the instructor, deliberately

used more Chinese as explanatory teaching language in order to raise students' ability to read formal writings in modern Chinese. But English as explanatory teaching language remained to be important. English translations of the texts proved to be very helpful for reading comprehension. However, English translations should be, as Faurot puts it, "literal, not literary, translations" (16), with emphasis on cultural codes and grammatical structures of the original, rather than on smooth, idiomatic English translations themselves. In other words, they are meant to be "crutches" useful for students to understand the texts. For example, "父不父则子不子" can be translated into English as "If the father does not behave like a [good] father, then the son doesn't have to behave like a [filial] son." The cultural codes and grammatical structures of the original thus are largely retained in the translation. In addition, English translations such as this can also help students translate the text in question into modern Chinese. However, sometimes it could be quite a challenge for the instructor to provide the class with the "literal, but not literary translations" appropriate for reading comprehension of the original, for the translations available on the market are mostly not intended specifically for students learning classical Chinese, but rather for the general reader who may expect a smooth style of English prose.

The second point I would like to make is about the language used to teach classical Chinese and the instructor's language proficiency in both Chinese and English. Liu Zhiwei and Gao Chen (2010) maintain that although in the United States the instructors who insist on using Chinese as the only language of teaching in classical Chinese classes are mostly Chinese native speakers, they do so not because they feel comfortable only with their mother tongue. Rather, they are competent enough to teach classical Chinese in English, because many of them have stayed in the United States and have used English daily for so many years that English has already become their most fluent second language (Liu and Gao, 2010, p75). I am not sure if this is true. I believe that instructors who have stayed in the United States for many years will probably have no problem with directional language as well as evaluative language. But explanatory language in teaching classical Chinese is not something that one can acquire simply by "staying in the United States for many years." It requires a good command of both English and Classical Chinese as well as adequate knowledge of pre-modern Chinese literature and culture. In reviewing *Gudai Hanyu keben* (Classical Chinese textbook) compiled by Xu Zongcai and published by Beijing yuyan wenhua daxue in 1998, Jon Eugene von Kowallis points out that despite his "use of an American advisor, Shannon Sweeney, Xu's English glosses could be improved at a number of points" (139). Needless to say, Chinese and English native speakers each have their own strengths, but when it comes to explaining and translating classical Chinese texts into English, it may not be something that can be accomplished hands down either by the former or the latter. By contrast, Kowallis (2002) also mentions Faurot's textbook, in which "every excerpt gives the source and a number of sources are introduced in English. Schools of philosophy are introduced, again in

English, in an approachable, no-partisan, non-preachy way” (Von Kowallis, 2002, p.135). Among the six classical Chinese textbooks Kowallis reviews, Faurot’s seems to be the most user-friendly one to undergraduate students at colleges and universities in the English speaking world. However, more than half of the sources in Faurot’s textbook are not translated, and thus the instructor has to do the translation herself instead. The following is my attempt at translating Han Yu’s (768-824) famous essay “Qian li ma,” in Faurot’s way, i.e., as a “literal, not literary” translation, intended mainly to help students understand the text in the original.

Lesson 8 韓愈 千里馬 Winged Steeds [One-Thousand-li Horses—that run 1,000 li (333 miles) a day]

世有伯樂，然後有千里馬。The world must have Boles before winged steeds can be found. 千里馬常有，而伯樂不常有。Winged steeds are not scarce but Boles are. 故雖有名馬，只辱於奴隸人之手，駢死於槽枥之間，不以千里稱之。Thus although famed steeds do exist, they are disgracefully in the hands of slaves and servants, and end up dying between manger and hitching post [together with inferior horses], and nobody knows they are winged steeds. 馬之千里者，一食或盡粟一石。Steeds that can run one thousand li a day, may eat up as one single meal more than one hundred pounds [133 pounds] of fodder. 食馬者不知其能行千里而食之也。The horse keeper (feeder) has no idea that they eat [so much] because they can run one thousand li a day. 是馬也，雖有千里之能，食不飽，力不足，才美不外見。These horses, although capable of running one thousand li a day, don’t have enough to eat, and [therefore] don’t have enough physical strength to show their [real] capability and beauty. 且欲與常馬等不可得，安求其能千里也？It is hard even for them to get the same treatment [or: perform equally well] as ordinary horses, then how could they exert themselves to their full capacity of one thousand li? 策之不以其道，食之不能尽其才，鳴之而不能通其意。When they are whipped, they are whipped in the wrong way. When they eat, they don’t have enough [fodder] to run at their full capacity. When they neigh, no one can understand what they mean. 執策而臨之曰：“天下無馬。”[Thus] [so many] people, even when approaching/close to those horses, would say, “there are no [good] horses in this world.” 嗚呼！其真無馬邪？其真不知馬也！Alas! Are there really no [good] horses? It is that they don’t know how to identify [good] horses.

IV. Exercises and Tests/Exams

Bates College’s classical Chinese course is normally offered in the 12-week long fall semester, covering all ten lessons in Faurot’s *Gateway to the Chinese Classics*. Students are supposed to do “preview homework” before each week’s new lesson starts, and do “review homework” after the

lesson is completed. The preview homework consists of two parts, with Part I on explanation of key phrases, and Part II on translating sentences, either in English or in Chinese, or both.

A test is scheduled after the completion of every two lessons, covering four aspects of language acquisition, i.e., individual characters 字, words 詞, sentences 句, and paragraphs 篇章, to test not only students' understanding of the text but also their knowledge about character conversions (traditional to simplified or vice versa), and their ability to use famous phrases ("quotable quotes"), and *chengyu*. There is also an oral part for the final examination when students are supposed to recite from memory a poem or a paragraph of prose in class.

I felt very much encouraged from my students' feedback that by taking this classical Chinese course they not only had a good grasp of the linguistic aspects of the texts, but had also gained knowledge about pre-modern Chinese culture. The following is one of the two-lesson tests that I made for the class, with two students' answers to Question 5 of the test.

415 考试一（第一课、第二课）

一、写出下列繁体字相应的简体字。

時 騎馬 論語 無 鳥飛

二、用英语解释下面的词语。

三国 前后 下马 我知 是人 好古 先成者 霜如雪 望明月

几万里 敌强我弱 深入人心 天南地北 人之正道 明辨是非

三、用现代汉语解释下面的句子。

1 王曰：善

2 天不生无用之人

3 子曰：君子谋道而不谋食

4 壯而好学，如日中之光

5 信言不美，美言不信

四、根据上下文写成语。

1 春节期间，人们都想回家过年，火车站真是_____。

2 这次去中国旅游只有五天时间，很多地方都只能_____，不能仔细品味。

3 既然我们都是朋友，有什么话就直说，最好_____，不要不好意思。

4 他很喜欢中国文化，也会说汉语，去中国工作就是_____。

5 北京是中国的大城市，天安门广场前每天都_____。

五、写一段话，谈谈你对“老者安之，朋友信之，少者怀之”的理解。

1) 这句话是谁说的，什么意思？

2) 这样做和一个社会的发展有什么关系？你同意这样的做法吗？为什么？

学生甲：这是在《论语》里写的一句话。这句话是孔子说的。这句话的意思是孔子希望再这个社会需要孝敬和尊重老年人，使老年人能够享受晚年。对待同事和朋友，要忠诚、诚实和守信。不仅如此，还要照顾、培育、爱护和珍惜下一代。大家这样做社会才能和谐和进步。我很同意这样的做法，因为如果没有德、孝、义和仁就不能有和谐和进步的社会。

学生乙：1 这句话是孔子说的，意思是：老人很安，让他们休息。相信你的朋友，让他们相信你。爱护孩子。2 这样对一个社会的发展有很多好处。如果人人都互相爱护，互相尊敬，社会会成为平平安安的，高高兴兴的。所以，我当然同意。3 每个人得爱别人，尊敬别人。只有人人都这样做，才能做到这句话所说的意思。

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目的语环境下汉语学习资源的有效组织和利用

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摘 要: 对于海外的汉语学习者来说, 真实的语言环境弥足珍贵。然而, 在目的语环境下, 许多教学者和学习者却未能充分发挥和利用语言环境优势, 使“自然习得”成为一句空话, 技能发展失调现象比比皆是, 汉语学习资源被大量忽视和浪费。因此, 如何有效地组织和利用学习资源、充分利用目的语环境是汉语教学中值得重视和研究的课题。本文认为, 在目的语环境中, 发展自然习得的学习资源至少包括: 人、真实的情境、大众传媒、有意义的文字指示、人工语音环境等; 应根据每一类资源的特点择取有效的学习策略。同时, 甄别和应对目的语环境下的一系列干扰因素, 如方言混杂、语速过快、新老词汇的更替等, 也是提高语言资源利用率的必要技能。这些策略同样有助于非目的语环境下对有限资源的搜索、整合与利用。

关键词: 目的语环境, 学习资源, 利用

1. 引言

语言环境对第二语言学习的作用与意义不言而喻。每年有大量的汉语学习者千里迢迢来到中国, 不论是短期体验或强化, 还是长期的逗留, 都是为了能够将自己浸润到真实的语言环境中, 实现真正的汉语交际。早在十多年前, 刘珣先生便提出“我们在汉语的故乡进行汉语作为第二语言的教学, 如果我们能充分利用汉语的社会环境这一得天独厚的条件, 应该能取得更好的效果, 但我们对社会环境的运用并没有重视。对环境在语言学习中的作用更缺乏专门的研究, 致使这一优势未能得到充分的发挥。”(刘珣 1993:37) 可以说, 刘先生指出的问题至今仍未得到本质地改善, 在实际操作过程中, 目的语环境下的许多教学者和学习者并未能充分发挥和利用语言环境优势, 中国社会广泛存在的汉语学习资源被大量闲置和浪费, 来华留学生未能达到预期的目的语言国留学效果。社会环境在质和量两方面都是对课堂教学的一种有效补充, 而其

“质”的一面常为人所忽视,如:成人语言学习偏重规则的掌握,在归纳至演绎的过程中常常出现各种语用偏误,社会环境中的语言运用有助于纠正课堂教学的“副作用”。就学习者的表现来看,“哑巴汉语”(汉字圈学生居多)或会说不会看(欧美留学生居多)等技能发展失调的现象比比皆是,大词小用等语用错误更是层出不穷,且难以得到有效修正。内容相对固定、时间有限、缺乏真实语境的课堂教学难以根本解决这些问题,社会语言环境在此扮演着不可或缺的角色。因此,如何有效地组织和利用学习资源、充分利用目的语环境是汉语教学中值得重视和研究的课题,对于任何层次的语言学习,这一点都具有重大意义。

2. 原因分析

既然教与学双方都清楚地意识到目的语环境下利用学习资源的重要性,那为什么上述令人遗憾的现象始终没有得到明显改善?原因可以从课外学习资源的特性、学习者与教学者的主观能动性等方面加以分析。

首先,目的语环境下,学习资源无处、无时不在,对听、说、读、写(尤其是前三项技能)各方面均有所促进。但这只是一种理想状态,从客观上来说,与课堂教学相比,社会环境中的学习资源缺乏系统性、稳定性、连续性,准确性也难以保证。面对范围如此广泛的海量资源,对其进行搜索、甄别、提取、整合、利用不仅需要耗费大量时间与精力,在方法上也存在诸多难点。以汉字为例,在日常生活中留学生接触较多的汉字资源有路牌、门牌、站牌、招牌、价格表(如学校食堂的菜名、菜价)、票据(火车票、机票、出租车发票、水电煤账单等)、活动安排表(如演出海报等,包括地点、时间、活动内容等信息)、各种指示语(如“由此向前”、“换乘”、“禁止通行”、“谢绝摄影”、“禁止吸烟”、“请勿喧哗”等)、通知(如住宅区内停电断水的通知、短信形式的电信通知)等。对这些汉字的认读、理解和掌握直接影响到生活的便利性,即便是不重视汉字读写的留学生,对此也有着充分的学习动机。但这些文字分布零散,出现的顺序与频率不一(未必符合课本上以难度和使用频率排列的生词顺序),缺乏规范性(如招牌用字繁简体不一,有些店名有意使用谐音改变正常词汇组合),加上汉字本身的多义性、深厚的文化底蕴,使得汉字资源的利用存在较大难度,大部分留学生只能抱着“发现一例,解决一例”的态度,临时借助电子词典或口头咨询等方式进行应对。一般学生对此往往缺乏事后的归纳与巩固,教学者也难以找到一以贯之的线索,于是,输入的零散性直接制约了有效性。

另一方面,在对外汉语理论研究领域,重本体研究,轻教学法研究;教学法方面,又重课堂,轻课外,相关理论研究的匮乏进一步影响了课外学习资源的运用效果。

其次,为数众多的汉语学习者在留学动机、学习态度、学习基础、学习能力及性格等方面均存在巨大差异,这不仅影响到他们课堂学习的效果,对目的语环境中其他学习资源的运用更是受到上述情感因素与认知因素的制约。考虑到社会大环境中学习资源分布的特殊性,学生的

学习意识和学习能力直接影响到他们课外学习的效果。罗丹说过：“美到处都有的。对于我们的眼睛，不是缺少美，而是缺少发现。”（罗丹 1978: 62）借用这句话，目的语环境下当然不缺少学习素材，缺少的只是善于发现的眼睛和耳朵。沉浸于目的语环境下，目之所及、耳之所闻皆知识，然而有些学生对此缺乏基本的感知力。进入目的语环境，初期的生活必然存在各种不适，部分学生放大了陌生环境下的不安与焦虑情绪，从而形成防御心理，原本可以制造自然习得效果的外部社会环境被屏蔽，自然也就不能意识到课堂外学习资料的意义。另有一类学生，不乏学习热情，但在学能上有所欠缺，使得他们面对诸多信息茫然无措，不知该从何下手，如何记录、保存、学习、整理、归纳，每一个步骤都是一个难以独立解决的问题，往往事倍而功半。在广阔的社会环境中，即便是具备较强自主学习能力的学生也难免顾此失彼。在此情况下，教师的作用就显得异常重要。

我们不断在课堂上向学生强调：要融入中国社会，要和中国人交朋友，要多看中文的报刊杂志，要定期收看收听中文电视广播……，然而，多数情况下，相关指导至此戛然而止，没有下文了。有研究者提出要“强化教学者的‘环境意识’和使命感、责任心。”（贾放 2000:86）从总体上看，作为专业的汉语教授者，汉语教师对社会大环境之于语言学习的重要性通常有着明确的认识，其中的大部分也不乏责任心，他们兢兢业业地在这个岗位上传授着汉语知识，传播着中国文化。上文曾提到关于课外汉语教学及学习理论研究的缺失，由于缺乏必要的理论指导，缺少相关的教学资料，很多一线的汉语教师在这一方面常常心有余而力不足。从根本上说，在留学生的课外学习中，教师不再扮演指挥者的角色：学生的生活方式、交际方式存在个体差异，因此教师无法掌控纷繁芜杂的课外资源的流量、流速与流向。但作为目的语环境下语言学习的专业指导者，教师仍应提供必要的支持，帮助学生在最大程度上发挥各种学习资源的优势，促进汉语的整体学习。当然，这种指导的具体策略和方式均有别于课堂教学，并非唾手可得、信手拈来，它要求教师为此花费额外的时间、精力，探索针对性的解决方案。

3. 策略与方法试析

在目的语环境下，汉语学习资源渗透于生活的每一个角落，以文字、语言的各种形式出现。从渠道来看，较为常见而普遍的主要有人、大众传媒的各种途径、有意义的文字指示、人工语音环境等。

在讨论应用策略之前，首先要意识到各类资源的存在的形式、存在范围、存在特点，在此基础上培养及时提取、记录、分析、整理、归纳信息的习惯。其次应具体分析每一类资源的特点，采取针对性的学习策略，设计有效的学习方法。在实际利用的过程中，还应重视甄别和应对目的语环境下的一系列干扰因素，如方言混杂、新老词汇更替、文字的不规范使用等。下面本文择取两类最为重要的特定资源进行简单的分析。

3.1 资源一：“人”

当今社会，随着科学技术的进步，网络与通讯的发展对人际交往的方式产生了深刻的影响，人与人的关系发生各种异化。但到目前为止，在目的语环境中，“人”依然是最重要、最无法复制的学习资源，与中国人的交往也是大部分汉语学习者的终极目标。对于来华留学生来说，日常生活中接触的中国人各式各样，来自不同的行业和地区。作为一种学习资源，他们有着各自的特点。

比如老师，他们的优点是发音标准、语速正常或偏慢、语法规则，有能力并有习惯纠正留学生出现的各类口头、书面的语言错误，给予正确示范。缺点则在于话题范围较固定、只能提供仿真实语境、交际价值低。此处不考虑教师与个别学生在课堂外的交往延伸，对于绝大部分语言培训或本科学历阶段的学生来说，这种机会都是非常难得的。

第二类“人”的资源是来华留学生的中国同学、同事或朋友。其优点在于和留学生年龄相仿，心理接近，往往有着共同的话题或爱好，可以进行互助练习。缺点是其对语言输入、输出的要求都不高；如果不是特定专业或经过特别培训，通常不具备分析语言错误的能力；另外一部分人在结交外国朋友时具有一定的功利性。

第三类为各行业的服务人员，如学校职员、餐厅商店的服务员、出租车司机、房屋中介等。这一人群的优点是能够提供最真实的语境，话题与生活关系密切，接触频率高。缺点是话题范围固定，句式与词汇容量小。

第四类是不与留学生发生直接接触的中国人，他们是社会大环境的有机组成部分，如路人、邻居等。特点是提供真实语境、制造语言环境，话题范围广泛；但人员庞杂，语音面貌多样，缺乏规范性。

除了教师之外，其他人群在与留学生进行交往时，通常遵循交际原则中的求同原则，在保证成功交流的前提下，没有意识也没有能力对留学生表达中的各种错误进行反馈，更谈不上纠正。在借助肢体语言，甚至中介语的帮助之后，汉语本身在交际中的重要性会被稀释。最明显的例子即留学生“洋腔洋调”的语音面貌的顽固性。（夏晴、毛世禔 2006:36-42）因此，我们需要明确不同人群在语言学习中所能发挥的作用，并据此采取相应的策略。第四类人群对于留学生的意义更多在于拓展知识面、了解文化习惯方面，同时也有利于听力技能的发展，但这方面的作用是有限的。与第三类人群的交往不可避免，其语音面貌差强人意，通过相关词汇与句式的学习，在特定语境下可以实现交际目的，并在一定程度上提高听力、锻炼口语。第二类人群是需要特别重视的资源，在语言学习的高级阶段，成段表达能力是口语提高的关键，然而除了课堂之外，相关实践的机会并不多，与同学朋友的交往可以弥补这一不足。许多高校利用生源优势，举办汉语角、组织语伴活动，为留学生提供课外语言操练的机会，但“由于交际策略不足，学习者往往不会主动引出或切换话题……学习者和操母语者双方注意力多集中于信息，

对语言形式注意较少,多数情况下语言学习者的言语错误(声调不准、用词不当、错用语法等)得不到有效纠正,语言接触因缺乏指导而收效不明显。”(陈晓桦 2007:27)为了克服这一问题,组织者及学习者双方都需为此进行充分的准备工作,事先设计话题、流程。同时,参与者需要“有言在先”、“约法三章”,明确活动(或对话)的目的,提出具体清晰的要求,强调语言形式与规范的重要性,要求及时而全面的反馈。

对于以语言学习为目的的留学生来说,教师有着特殊的意义,其作用主要在于课堂的系统学习,但我们需要强调并进一步发掘的是教师在课外资源获取与利用过程中所能给予的支持,在众声喧哗的目的语环境下,教师应该是一座值得信赖的灯塔。教师应强调真实语境的重要性,并在能力范围内组织相关的语言实践活动(参观调研、街头采访、问卷调查等),将学生推入目的语环境,并实施指导。

3.2 资源二:大众传媒

大众传媒的发展对人们的生活产生了重要的影响,其形式多样、多变,在信息与文化的传递、沟通、共享方面发挥着不可替代的作用。在语言教学中,报刊、杂志、电视、广播、网络等新老媒介的作用已被广泛认可,课堂教学中专门设置了相关的课程,如《新闻听力》、《报刊阅读》、《视听说》等。而在信息传达之外,大众传媒的休闲娱乐功能又暗合了寓教于乐的教育理念。

按载体划分,大众传媒大致可以分为印刷媒体和电子媒体两类,有着各自的特点。总体来看,大众传媒很大程度上记录了真实语境(尤其是新闻纪实类电视节目),语言较为规范,常具趣味性、实用性;在利用的过程中,需要注意此类资源的语体特点,而由于篇幅较大,跳跃障碍的能力不可或缺。利用此类资源的最大难点在于素材的筛选、裁剪与整合。

以影视节目为例,其传播不受时空限制,最接近真实语境,题材广泛、故事性强;信息输入具有多元化、整体性的特点;除语言之外,还蕴含大量非言语交际知识、文化知识。因为具备上述种种优势,影视资源历来被当作最受欢迎的课外语言学习资料。影视节目体裁、题材多样,确实可以满足不同兴趣、不同目的的留学生的需求,但语言素材中生词数量和难度难以控制、语体风格不统一成为影视资源的一大弱点。在各种课外资源中,影视节目也是较早被引入课堂教学的,如大部分高校的汉语课程设置中都有影视课(课程名称与重点不同,如《汉语视听说》、《汉语与影视》、《影视赏析》等),但经过近二十五年的发展^①,至今仍没有出现一部获得普遍认可的专业教材,根源便在于影视资源自身的特点,使之难以兼顾时效性、典型性、持续性(词语和句子的复现率)等需求,词语与句式的难度更是难以预设与安排。为了解决这一问题,掌握主线、忽略枝节(抓大放小)、以专题方式切入或许是较为合适的策略。

^① 以1989年施宝义《汉语视听说》(外语教研社)的出版为标志。

4. 结语

目的语环境下汉语资源的有效组织和利用是对外汉语教学中的一个重大课题。其难度和重要性一样，都是不言而喻的。本文短小的篇幅内也难以对此进行深入而全面的分析，不过是抛砖引玉、提出问题，希望借此引起学界同仁的重视，尽快出现相关的研究成果，从理论上加以支持，从而帮助一线教育者掌握相关技能，为来华留学生提供更为具体而有效的指导。目的语环境下，课外汉语资源范围广、数量多，笔者认为对此进行研究可以从纵横两个方向进行。所谓“纵”，是指选择一类资源进行深入挖掘，分析其特征、划分其类别，进而制定策略，研究方法。而“横”的方向是指针对某一语言水平或特定需求的留学生，关注其所普遍接触到的各项课外资源，提纲契领地进行分析，并给出指导建议。希望在不久的将来，我们能看到相关论文或教材的出现，使目的语环境的优势得到真正发挥，使课外汉语资源的利用率实现质的飞跃。此类成果的出现，对海外的汉语教学和研究者同样具有重要的参考价值 and 借鉴意义。

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|第二部分| Part 2

浅谈中英高校国际汉语教学中的拼音及语音教学^①

——基于课堂教学的观察与比较

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摘要：在中英国际汉语教学课堂观察比较中，作者发现中英高校的拼音教学在课时分配上存在较大悬殊。这种悬殊原因何在？这种悬殊是否直接影响到教学质量？文章通过分析认为，对拼音教学的不同处理既与对汉语拼音教学与语音教学之间关系的不同理解有关；也与中英高校国际汉语的学习主体的特征和需求有关；但从根本上看，这种差异是由于对不同学习动机的分析以及由此而确立的不同的培养目标所决定的。在此基础上，作者提出了国际汉语教学目标进一步细分的建议，区分单项能力目标、复合能力目标以及综合能力目标，科学处理不同目标之间的上下位关系，根据学校的培养目标去培育各具特色的汉语人才。

关键词：国际汉语教学 拼音 语音 培养目标

1. 问题研究的缘起

2012 年秋，笔者来牛津访学，首次作为观察者进入英国高校的国际汉语教学课堂，第一节课就被怔住了：这是零起点班的第一次课，我是第二节课进的教室，想当然地认为老师肯定应该是在教拼音，但出乎意料地发现：拼音已经教完，教者已经开始教汉字的笔画。

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^① 2012-2013，英国牛津大学访学项目“中英高校国际汉语教学比较研究”阶段成果。

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牛津大学语言中心的所有层级的汉语课都是每周一次，每次两小时。汉语课型也比较单一，基本都是综合型偏一点口语。这似乎说明了在这里“说”似乎比“写”更为受到重视。

与说直接相关的是人的语音，语言学中有“语音面貌”一词，暗含了语音是人的言语面貌的意思。国际汉语教学内容中与语音面貌直接关联者，首推拼音教学。正因为如此，中国国内高校的国际汉语教学课程设计中，零起点的学生都会专门花上一段时间专注于拼音教学。以笔者所在的东华大学为例，汉语学习全日制学生开设了听说读写四种课程（或三种：听、说、综合）会在一个月左右的时间内从不同角度进行拼音教学^①。以每天上午三小时四节课计，我们花在拼音教学的时间一般在60小时80课时左右。因此，笔者对牛津大学的拼音教学如此安排觉得难以置信。事后又求证于所有汉语老师，并向英国其他高校的老师进一步询问，答案没有本质的改变只是变得更加具体：英国的拼音教学短只有五分钟，长不过一节课。连牛津大学的“Mandarin Course”学生社团的学生干部也要求汉语教学志愿者在一小时中完成拼音教学。有两位老师还从两个方面给我阐述了理由：若几节课总是教拼音会让学生感到非常的枯燥，教学双方都没劲儿；只有让学生尽快接触到汉字才能激发他们的中文的兴趣，他们才觉得学有所值。习惯于国内汉语教学课时安排的我一下子不敢苟同英国同行们的看法，但不得不沉思这种普遍性差异背后到底是什么样的原因？国际汉语的拼音教学到底应该如何实施？因为条件所限，笔者难以证明或评估中英高校不同拼音教学安排及方式对两国汉语学习者的学习效果的直接影响，但我们有所心得的是：分析学习者的“语”和“音”的特征，并寻求对症有效的教学方法，探讨语、音、字三者之间的科学的转换顺序和快捷的实施途径，已经是提高国际汉语课堂教学效益，保证汉语教学效果急待解决的课题。

2. “拼音”与“语音”的概念辨析

我们通常混为一谈或不加区分的“拼音”与“语音”实际上是两个虽有联系其实有很多不同的概念。拼音（或汉语拼音）既可以是名词也可以是动词，既是一种用罗马字母记写汉字读音的方法系统，也指拼读音节的过程。作为名词概念的“拼音”是需要学习传授的语言知识，作为动词的“拼音”就是按照普通话音节的构成规律，把声母、韵母急速连续拼合并加上声调而成为一个音节的行为。拼音是汉语特有的现象，因而拼音既不能简单等通于英语的“spelling”，也不是“pronunciation”所能涵盖的。前人总结的拼音要领：“前音（声母）轻短后音（韵母）重，两音相连猛一碰。”这是在读准了声母、韵母和声调，了解了普通话声母和韵母的配合规律或规则以后，对运用的实践经验的总结概括。因此，对国际汉语教学来说，拼音既是一种需要学习的知识，也是一种需要掌握的能力。

语音则是指语言的声音，是人类发音器官发出来的具有一定意义的声音，是语言的外壳。

^① 也有一些高校的拼音单元教学时长为两周，往往是针对欧美学生班级。

语音是任何一种语言的都有的特性。人类语言发展先有语音后有文字，语音的交流范围比文字要广泛得多，目前世界上还有很多民族只有语音而未形成文字，中国的一些少数民族语言也不例外。语言学意义上的语音包含了三方面的性质：一是其物理属性，包括音高、音长、音强和音色；二是其生理属性，包括发音的动力器官（肺部和气管）、振动器官（声带）、气流共鸣器官（口腔和鼻腔）；三是其社会属性，包括语音的地方特征和民族特征。由此不难发现：对语言学习者来说，语音面貌是拼音知识与学习者的个体特征结合后所呈现的学习者的语言风貌和特质。国际汉语课堂教学，只能在一定程度上帮助或指导学生解决部分与拼音相关的语音问题。具体而言：汉语教师或许可以告知学生某一音节的音高、音长和音强，却无法改变学生的音色；汉语教师或许可以指导学生发音的方法，却无法改变学生自身的发音器官特点或缺陷；汉语教师或许可以解说发音的地方特征或民族特征，但却难以将这一方水土养育成的发音属性马上传授给学生。

因此，从严格意义上讲，拼音教学不等于语音教学。语音面貌中的一些特征不是通过教学就能获得的。“语音教学”一词的使用只是一种约定俗成其实并不十分科学。当然，拼音与语音有着非常密切的关系：拼音的结果——音节正是最自然的语音单位；拼音学习中对元音、辅音、音位等要素的学习正是为了掌握语音音素的基础；而语音的调子既包括了句调也包括了拼音学习的四种声调（阴平，阳平，上声，去声）。因此在国际汉语教学实际中，人们常常将“拼音教学”视同“语音教学”。

3. 中英高校汉语拼音学习主体的异同

世界上学习汉语拼音的绝不只是外国留学生，中国学生同样也要学习拼音。笔者还记得自己考大学时，高考语文卷中就有字音互注的考题，很多人都对给汉字注音题发怵。中国学生的拼音教学中，基础方言区的拼音教学要比其他方言区的容易得多。原因是普通话本来就是以北京语音为标准音，以北方话为基础方言，以典范的现代白话文著作作为语法规范的现代汉民族共同语。绝大多数中国人都是先语后音，即大家都是先学会了说中国话然后才进入学校学习标准音的。尽管这样，即便是基础方言区的人也还是会觉得给汉字注音要比根据拼音写汉字难得多（对非基础方言区的人而言就更难了）。笔者认为，对中国人来说，由字到音是一个抽象化和标准化的过程，而由音到字则是一个形象化和回归化的过程。因为我国众多不同方言的迁移作用，各地人学习汉语标准音时都会出现程度不同的语音方面的困难。到了新时期，从娃娃抓起的推广运动，才使得新一代的语音比祖辈准确、纯正了许多。总之，精准的汉语拼音标注是很多中国人也很难做到的，更何况是“老外”呢？但这并不妨碍中国人的日常交流和表达。

如今在中国学习汉语拼音的还包括很多来华留学生，高校是最为集中的所在。来华留学生的汉语学习基本遵循了与中国孩子同样的路径：先语后文，先学拼音后教汉字。但不同也很明

显：中国学生的拼音学习是先语后音，来华留学生学习拼音则是先音后语。他们从并不懂汉语（我们通常说“零起点”）学起，先学拼音，后学说话和写字。因为缺少了一个先天的汉语环境，让很多留学生觉得汉语学习非常之难。其实，在华学习的留学生还可以分为两种：一种是来自汉字文化圈的学生，包括东北亚和东南亚等国的学生，因为种种原因，他们本身对汉字文化有一定的接触，无论是特定环境中他们对汉语有所目睹，对汉字有所体认，还是特定家庭中对汉语有所耳闻，都让他们与汉语发生了或多或少的联系。他们虽然未学过汉语，但其实并不是严格意义上的“零起点”。另一部分在华留学生则有所不同，基本都来自欧美或非洲的一些国家。他们的母语与汉语完全不同，都是建立在表音体系基础之上的，他们几乎是与汉语绝缘的，更准确地说，他们的语言背景是与汉字绝缘的。但是，来自西方国家的留学生也有一个优势，即他们大多已经掌握了英语，对几乎同样由 26 个英文字母构成的汉语拼音有着比来自汉字文化圈国家留学生更为得天独厚的亲近感或快速接受的可能性。因此，出现有些研究者所发现的欧美国家留学生比日韩国家留学生掌握拼音速度快得多的现象，其实不足为怪。

英国高校选修国际汉语的留学生，其“西方性”要比在华留学生突出得多。笔者在牛津所观察的十一个汉语学习班级一百多名学生中，除高级班有一名亚洲学生（新加坡）外，其余皆来自欧美及澳洲。这些牛津学生的英语水平可想而知。但英语水平与拼音水平之间是无师自通的关系吗？而且，即便是以英语为通用语言的国家，英语的发音也是千差万别，对字母语言的亲近与学好汉语之间还是有很大一段距离的。

如果说英国高校的汉语学习者的高水平英语使他们可以以难以想象的神速完成拼音的学习，但从拼音到汉字的过渡对他们却是一个难关。无论是在中国国内高校的两类留学生之间还是中英高校之间留学生学习汉语实际效果，都很难分出孰优孰劣。因为影响语言学习的因素有多种，总体上看，在中国高校汉语学习者的课时数要比英国高校的汉语课时数要多得多，中国的汉语环境也是英国高校的汉语学习者难以可比的。

总体看来，对中国学生的汉语拼音教学是一种“汉语→拼音”的母语教学，对来自汉字文化圈的外国学生而言，国际汉语教学是一种倾向于“汉语→拼音”的准二语教学；对来自欧美非的汉语学习者来说，国际汉语拼音教学则是一种“拼音→汉语”的完全二语教学。

4. 拼音教学与学习动机及培养目标

在国际汉语教育中，很多老师在讨论拼音教学时，常常忽略学习主体的“语”、“音”背景特征，而一味强调拼音教学的重要性；或者从纯粹理论研究角度去推断拼音教学的重要性，而往往忽略学习主体的差异、教学目标的不同。中英国际汉语教学的课堂观察引发了笔者对国际汉语教学目标的多重性和层次性的反思。中英国际汉语教学中实施拼音教学所存在的显著不同与学习者差异有关，但从根本上说还是由不同的培养目标所决定的。

教学目标是师生通过教学活动预期达到的结果或标准,是对学习者通过教学以后将能做什么的一种明确的、具体的表述。教学目标的设定对落实教学大纲、制定教学计划、组织教学内容、明确教学方向、确定教学重点、选择教学方法、安排教学过程等起着重要的导向作用。因此,也可以说教学目标是确定学习的预期效果,教学活动设计的依据,评估教与学的标准。那么,同为国际汉语教学,中英高校之间的培养目标有何差异?

培养目标具有系统性,纵向看来其包括了学科总目标、课程目标、学段教学目标、单元教学目标、课时教学目标等等。笔者认为,如果是同样基础的学习主体,同样的学习动机或目的和培养目标,那汉语的教学目标应该是无甚差异的。但客观上,不仅中英高校之间汉语学习主体存在差异,而即使在中国高校以及英国高校内部,不同的汉语学习者之间差异也是客观存在的。国内高校通常将汉语学习者分为汉语进修生和汉语学历生两类^①,实际上学历生与进修生内部学习动机也是多种多样的,甚至同样的学习动机也有强弱程度的大差异。不同高校的汉语课程正是适应学校的专业培养目标和学生的学习需求的结果。而培养目标反过来又对教学双方产生一定的导向、控制和激励作用。

《来华留学生汉语学习动机调查》一文^②认为,来华留学生学习汉语的动机有三类:一是工具动机、二是融入动机、三是成就动机。其中工具动机被认为是最强且最为普遍的动机。许文分析:“尽管留学生工具动机普遍较强,但是内部工具动机差异较大,出现以下特点:亚洲和非洲学生,年龄较大学生,学历较高学生工具动机较强。”而在牛津,以学历生而言,有中文专业学生的必修课(牛津大学中文系的汉语课即属此类),有其他专业学生的公共性选修课(牛津大学语言中心的汉语课即属此类);有计学分的汉语选修课(牛津大学现代中国学专业的汉语课即属于此类),也有不计学分的汉语兴趣课(牛津大学语言中心的汉语课属此)。非学历生的汉语学习目的更为多样,而且中英高校的汉语学习者的差异并不太大。牛津大学的非学历生的汉语教学安排在继续教育学院。在华的非学历生汉语教育则集中在高校的国际教育或对外汉语学院,另有相当一部分社会培训机构。在很多关于留学生汉语学习动机和目的的研究文章当中,笔者比较认同许秋寒等人的观点。“外国留学生有融入动机,但是主要局限于华裔学生。……尽管来华留学生有一定的融入动机,但是表现不明显,而且各组间没有显著差异,但是亚洲学生和19岁以下学生的融入动机相比其他组别较强。”

“留学生的成就动机普遍较强,但是内部差异较大:非洲学生,19岁以下学生和40-49岁学生成就动机较强。”

以上结果在一定程度上说明了一些问题。融入动机和成就动机中19岁以下者,我们基本可以将其理解为学历生;19岁以上者多为语言培训生。无需疑问的是工具性动机是三类动机中最强势的动机。这和笔者的英国调查问卷统计结果基本一致^③。但这份调查略有缺憾的是未能对

① 像北京语言大学那样相对细分的学校极少。

② 许秋寒、于书诚、郭力、马小垒,《来华留学生汉语学习动机调查》,《北京高校来华留学生教育研究》2008年。

③ 英国汉语教师对学生学习动机的分析:第一位是就业,第二位是个人兴趣。

学历生、语言进修长期生和短期生进行细分。因为实际上,学生性质不同,学习动机也会有所差异。

学习动机直接关乎培养目标,而培养目标又直接落实到课程教学目标的制定当中。学习汉语的工具性动机在英国高校的国际汉语教学中显得尤为突出。无论是对中文专业的学生还是对现代中国学专业的学生,都明确要求他们能读懂中文(且包括繁体字及竖排古籍)。以牛津大学为例,本科生一般没有毕业论文,而所有与中文相关专业研究生的小论文或毕业论文最终都是以英文写作和答辩。这和国内高校中文专业留学生一律要求用中文写作毕业论文形成了鲜明的对比。

我们似乎可以说牛津大学学历生的汉语教学以读懂中文文献为目标。牛津大学东方学研究所所列学生培养目标是“在中国语言和文学方面打好一般基础,以便继续深造,成为其他学科中未来的中国问题专家。同时培养中国文学、历史等方面的硕士、博士。”其中的“中国语言和文学方面打好一般基础”表述比较笼统。笔者课堂观察中表明:汉语听说读写四项技能中,牛津大学的汉语教学似乎更为着力关注“读”的能力。当然,听说读写之间并非决裂无缘,对阅读能力的强化并不等于不要其他能力。但是本科生不写毕业论文及论文用英文写作的结果有可能直接导致大多学生读与写能力(可以说是输入与输出)之间的失衡。在这样的培养目标之下,也易于直接导致了国际汉语永远的工具性角色,并在一定程度上导致了对拼音教学的重视不够。而国内高校要求留学生用中文写作毕业论文并用中文进行论文答辩,客观上给留学生以及论文导师带来了巨大压力。但另一方面也促使学生不敢对听说读写中某一单项能力过于偏废。因此国内高校的培养目标很少将汉语看作一种工具。以国内某高校汉语言专业的培养目标为例,其表述为:“培养具备汉语、语言学及中国文学等方面的系统知识和专业技能,并了解中国文化,熟悉基本的经贸、旅游、亚太文化知识,能从事相关工作的汉语高级人才。基本要求包括:扎实的汉语言功底:较强的汉语听、说、读、写、译能力,毕业时汉语水平至少达到 HSK 中等 A 级(旧 HSK8 级);灵活的汉语言应用能力:掌握计算机中文信息处理的基本操作和运用,具有运用汉语从事各相关工作的实际能力;丰富的专业知识:了解中国国情,熟悉中国文化,掌握经贸知识,熟悉国内外旅游业的发展状况,了解亚太文化与经济。”老实说,这样的目标要求是挺高的。真正能完全实现目标的学习者并不多。但中国文化向来有“取法乎上,得乎其中”的高目标传统。因此,中国国内的国际汉语教学目标大多为听说读写并重,这也是一种没有顾及到大多学习者学习动机的做法。因此,实际效果与目标之间往往有一定的距离。

英国高校中文相关专业的学历生目前毕竟还是少数。很多学生选修汉语往往和自己的专业并无很大关系,只是因为兴趣,所以,非专业学历生的汉语学习动机又与汉语专业生有别。这类课堂上淡化拼音教学其实也在一定程度上忽视了部分学生的学习需求。毫无疑问,汉字是汉语的特点、重点和难点,课堂上展示特点、突出重点和挑战难点都会激起学生的学习兴趣。这或许和西方的教育不普遍要求精通的传统有关。但作为培养兴趣或非学分课程的汉语教学来说,笔者认为,尽最大可能教给学生正确的拼音,并注意随时正音还是十分必要的。尤其是对于迫

切想张口说汉语的学习者而言,学好拼音,发好语音理应成为首要的学习目标。

5. 结语:目标细分的可能以及拼音教学的灵活性

面对全球学汉语的人越来越多的趋势,应对汉语学习需求越来越多样化的现实,国际汉语教学目标细分看来已是不得不为之事。笔者认为:听说读写密切关联且相辅相成,四种能力不废但可适当偏。目标设定时,根据学习者的需求,分设汉字、拼音、阅读和写作各单项能力目标以及多项能力复合目标,这样需要强化单项能力的学习者和希望提高复合能力的学习者都可以如愿以偿。

目标的细分当然要以一定的规模为基础,中英高校可以根据自己学校的实际情况具体分析,制定相应目标。汉语教学目标的设定既可以是单项能力目标:听力目标、口语目标、阅读目标、写作目标、口译目标及笔译目标六种;同时,还可以设定复合能力目标,包括:听说目标、读写目标、听说读目标、听说读写目标及口笔译目标等。

不难发现,这11种目标的相互关系和层次性也十分清晰。国际汉语学习中,听和说的共同关注点在于“音”,读和写的共同关注点在于“字”。听是说的基础,听说是口译的基础,读是写的基础,读写是笔译的基础。听和读之间、听和写之间、说和读之间、说和写之间都没有必然的联系。事实上,在汉语拼音方案出台之前,国际汉语教育已经存在。有学者认为,国际汉语教学从汉代即开始,在汉语拼音之前汉字的注音方法已不止一种,史实说明汉语拼音在对外汉语教学中重要但却不是必需。因此,今天在以写作或以读写目标为主的国际汉语教学中,拼音教学时数和方式可以灵活调整。但同时我们也发现,因为汉字和拼音关系疏远,历史上不乏未学拼音而学好汉语的先例;但如今我们不得不认识到汉字和拼音的关系越来越紧密,汉语学习者中的大部分来自字母表音语言体系国家,因而我们不得不对“音”有更多的关注。

对于以听力学习为主要目标的学习者而言,汉语之“音”就显得很为重要。不过,现实生活中对于某种语言会听不会说的现象也十分常见,正如有不少在上海生活多年基本能听懂上海话,但并不会说也不一定想说的人一样,听懂汉语但不说汉语的也大有人在。因为听的只是为了理解,交流则可以用通用语(比如英语);而会说不会写或会写不会说的人就更多了。有研究者将会写不会说的国际汉语学习者称为“洋文盲”。

更多情况下,听说是紧密相连的。会说的前提是会听。因此我们可以说听力目标是听说目标的上位目标。也就是说实现了听说目标的学习者一定实现了听力目标,但实现了听力目标的学习者则未必能够达到听说目标。拼音和语音学习中出现的偏误导致了留学生讲汉语时的“洋腔洋调”,这是会听不会说的在一定程度上的表现。同理,阅读目标和读写目标之间也存在着上下位关系:阅读目标是写作目标的上位目标,也就是说实现写作目标的学习者一定实现了阅读目标,但实现了阅读目标的学习者则未必能够达到写作目标。同理,听说目标又是口译目标

的上位目标,读写目标构成了笔译目标的上位目标。只有完全实现了听说读写目标的才真正做到所谓的“字正腔圆”,才是真正意义上的“通事”。由此可见,综合听说读写译各项能力构成的复合性教学目标其实是汉语学习者的最高目标。真正实现这一目标者为凤毛麟角。

目前,国内高校的汉语课程大多也是本着汉语教学的多重教学目标而设置,不过,一般学校的课程几乎对所有学生实行统一的课程设置,往往忽略了对学生学习需求和动机的分析,特别是在国际汉语的非学历教育当中。并且,对国际汉语专业的留学生的培养目标的定位也有过高的嫌疑。对于跳一跳依然无法摘到的桃子,人们必定会失去兴趣和信心。对国际汉语相关专业留学生制定科学而又适切的培养目标,也是当今促使国际汉语教育事业向更为先进和成熟的方向发展的现实需要。

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母语为拼音文字的初学者汉字教学研究

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摘 要：本论文总结了母语为拼音文字的汉语初学者在习得汉字时会遇到的主要困难，即认读汉字难、记忆字形难、书写汉字难等“三难”现状，并从汉字和学习者等角度分析了困难产生的原因。结合汉语初学者学习汉字面临的主要困难和产生原因，根据符合汉语规律的“字本位”对外汉语教学思路，提出了汉字教学“三先三后”的总体教学策略，即先学语音，后学汉字；先学汉字，后学词语；先学结构，后学书写等策略。在总体策略的指导下，提出了“读、释、析、写、忆”五步汉字教学法。

关键词：汉语初学者 母语为拼音文字者 汉字教学策略 汉字教学法

外国学生学汉字难已经成为普遍的共识。但在外国学生中，对于母语为拼音文字的欧洲学生来说，他们在学习汉字时到底面临着哪些困难？形成这些困难的根本原因是什么？应采取怎样的教学策略？针对这些问题，笔者结合自己在索非亚孔子学院的汉语教学工作，运用教学观察、访谈、作品分析等研究方法，进行了积极的探索和实践。

1. 母语为拼音文字的初学者学习汉字面临的主要困难。

笔者以保加利亚的学生为研究对象，探讨母语为拼音文字的欧洲学生在学习汉字时面临的主要困难。通过亲身的教学观察、个案调查和问卷调查，发现以拼音文字为母语的欧洲学生学习汉字时主要面临以下困难。

1.1 认读汉字困难。

教学中发现,如果老师只把几个已经教会读的汉字写在白板上且不标拼音的话,那么,初级水平的学生就不会读了,有的字需要翻书看拼音后才会读。反复教会读的汉字,到读课文时有的字又不认识了。所以在教读课文时,经常有学生一边看拼音一边读课文。上节课学会的汉字,下节课复习时,把字词打印出来,不标拼音,让学生认读,有近 20% 或 30% 左右的字词又不认识了。

1.2 难以正确记住汉字的字形。

如果听写上节课学会写的汉字,常会出现以下问题:一是有的汉字根本不会写了;二是有的汉字虽然写上了,但丢笔落画,如“候”字缺一竖、“很”字缺一撇等;三是笔画错误,如把“室”字的凸宝盖儿写成一横;四是有的汉字字形记忆混乱,如把“热闹”写成“交闹”,把“拥”字写成“走之旁”加个“用”等。

1.3 汉字学得死,难以举一反三。

初级水平的学生汉字学得死,在一个词语中学的汉字,就以为只是组成这个词语的汉字,在后学的词语中见到就不认识了。如学“身体”这个词时认识“体字”,再学“体育”这个词时,就不认识“体”这个字了。高级阶段的学生在用已学过的汉字组词时也很困难,难以举一反三,汉字学得死导致不能很好地发挥汉字构词能力强这一独特优势。

1.4 写字难,写字慢。

写字像画画一样,看一眼写一笔。不仅写字慢、写字难,而且经常容易出现笔画、笔顺错误的现象。

2. 形成汉字学习困难的根本原因

2.1 拼音文字与汉语的文字系统差异大。

从语音角度看,对于拼音文字,掌握音位与书写字母的匹配规则,就能从书写形式中直接识读语音,如看到 table 这个词就能读出 [teibl] 的读音。因此,由形到音容易认读,也容易记住单词的读音。而汉字的字音不能直接通过拼读汉字得到。虽然汉字中的形声字的声旁能表示

字音，但声旁能准确表音的形声字比例很小，大部分形声字的声旁只能近似或部分的表示汉字的读音。所以汉字的读音要以机械的硬记为主，以理解记忆为辅。这是汉字难以记住读音、认读困难的内在原因。

从文字符号的形式来看，拼音文字是 20 多个字母的不同组合，书写形式是从左至右的线性排列，而且音与形的联系紧密，可以因音见形，所以既容易记住文字的形，又容易书写。而汉字是由笔画和部件构成的，而且组成汉字的笔画和部件繁多。张静贤在《现代汉字笔形论》中归纳现代汉字的笔画种类多达二三十种，分为基本笔形 6 种、派生笔形 25 种。不少笔形的区别度很小，如：“横折斜钩”（“风”的第二笔）、“横折弯钩”（“九”的第二笔）与“横折弯”（“朵”的第二笔）等。前中国文字改革委员会和武汉大学合作用计算机对《辞海》（1979 年版）的 11834 字进行切分，共得末级部件 648 个之多。这些笔画和部件的不同组合，组成了各不相同的汉字。因此，汉字的字形对于母语为拼音文字的欧洲学生来说，不仅难以记忆，而且难以书写。

2.2 学生的汉字正字法知识不足。

汉字的正字法知识就是关于汉字组合规则的知识，包括笔画、部件构成、整字结构等。很多研究表明，基于字形的汉字正字法知识的学习对于非汉字背景的学生来说是很重要的。正确掌握这些知识，有利于提高他们的书写、认读水平，减少字形方面的错误。但这些汉字正字法知识需要一定的积累才能够逐步地掌握。这使外国学生在学习汉字的很长一段时间里，缺乏汉字正字法知识，使他们感到认读、书写和记忆汉字很困难。一些外国学生感到汉字的笔画和部件太多，不愿意学习和积累这些知识，这可能会使他们在更长的时间里难以突破学习汉字面临的诸多困难。

2.3 传统对外汉语教学思路的偏失。

长期以来，中国的对外汉语教学采用的基本是西方语言的教学路子，教师在课堂教学中，通常把注意力放在课文的阅读与理解上面，关注的是词语和语法教学，汉字只是作为一个词汇单位教给学生。世界汉语教学学会会长吕必松教授认为，“在西方语系中，通常是以词作为基本语法单位，而汉语是以字为基本语法单位。字本位是汉语的基本特点。”

但在我国的国际汉语教学中，多半采用词本位教学法，这不利于揭示汉字的表音和表义的功能，进而使汉字便于理解和记忆的优势变为了劣势，在汉语教学中走了弯路。以往的国际汉语教学，无论是以词为本的传统教学法，或是以句为本的当代教学法，还是现今倡导的结构——功能——文化相结合的综合教学法，都忽略了汉字教学这一重要且基本的环节。无论词、句、段、篇章、文化功能、语法结构归根到底都是以汉字为基础的，忽略了汉字这一组词、造

句、构段、谋篇的根基，其它的都是空中楼阁。在《汉语水平考试词汇大纲》中，有 8822 个词，其所使用的汉字仅为 2866 个。可见，坚持字本位能够充分发挥汉字构词能力强的优势，促进词语的学习。而坚持词本位，则变优势为劣势，加重了学习负担。因此，现在很多汉语教育专家和汉语教学实践工作者积极倡导和实践“字本位”的汉语教学思路。

3. 破解汉字难的基本教学策略

根据母语为拼音文字的学生学习汉字面临的主要困难和根本原因，根据语文教育中汉字学习的基本要求，提出以下“三先三后”汉字教学策略：即先学语音，后学汉字；先学汉字，后学词语；先学结构，后学书写策略。有机强化正字知识，激发汉字学习兴趣，奠定学汉字的重要基础。学汉字与学词语相结合，先学汉字、后学词语，字不离词。学汉字与用汉字相结合，在组词、造句中理解运用汉字，字不离词，词不离句。以写字促识字，先讲结构，后学书写，识字、写字、正字知识整体提升。

4. 破解汉字难的五步教学法

根据汉字教学的基本策略，提出“读、释、析、写、忆”五步教学法。

4.1 读：尝试拼读，正音指导，强化拼读能力，形成深刻的字音记忆。

学生通过语音阶段的集中学习掌握了拼音和拼读方法，但是要想能够正确的读准拼音、正确地拼读出汉字的准确读音，还需要一个长期的过程。汉字教学的首要任务就是要让学生掌握字音。所以，在汉字教学中可以顺理成章地强化拼读能力。尝试学习相对于接受性学习更能激发学习者的潜力和积极性，形成深刻的记忆。因此，在教汉字读音时，让学生尝试拼读，对于拼读错误，教师及时进行拼音发音和拼读方法的指导，特别是及时纠正声调的错误，强化拼音和拼读能力，这样既有利于巩固拼音、强化拼读能力，又能够在尝试学习中激发兴趣，形成深刻的字音记忆。

4.2 释：教师领读，例释生字，强化字音，活化字义。

通过尝试拼读，学生形成了较深刻的字音记忆，但是语音需要在反复训练中达到熟练，而且汉字的表音度低，认读难，所以更需要反复强化读音。为此，在学生尝试拼读，教师及时正

音指导的基础上,教师领读生字,例释生字,这样,既可以多次强化正确的读音,又可以在例释生字的过程中,理解字义,为发挥汉字构词能力强的优势、扩大词汇量奠定基础。同时,也可以在例释生字的过程中,复习已经学过的汉字,巩固已经学过的汉字。

4.3 析:分析结构,强化偏旁意识,深化对汉字形、音、义的理解和记忆。

汉字是形、音、义的结合体,大部分的汉字是由部件组成的。部件多有固定的含义和称谓,以部件作为教学单位与利用笔画教授汉字相比,识记每个汉字的记忆单位少,符合记忆规律,便于记忆汉字。外国学生识记汉字的错误,大都可以归结为没掌握基本部件或部件使用不当,强化部件意识,有利于纠正识记汉字的错误。

在汉字中,80%以上的汉字为形声字,在这些字中,有表示字义的形旁,有表示读音的声旁,这些声旁和形旁虽然大多只能部分或者近似的表示汉字的字音和字义,但是如果熟悉了它们,就能够根据这些提示信息,深化对汉字音、形、义的理解和记忆。正如孙永红 & 徐向东(2013)所指出的:“研究汉语学习规律,把教会学生学汉语作为重要的汉语教学目标之一”,因此在汉字教学中应该加强汉字正字知识的教学,强化偏旁意识,提高汉字的识记效率,培养学生学会掌握汉字的学习规律。这里还有两个需要注意的问题:一是大部分的形旁和声旁只能部分或者近似的表示汉字的字音和字义,所以,根据先入为主的原则,在形声字的教学中,应当先准确掌握字音、字义,让完全正确的信息先进入大脑之后,再分析汉字结构,了解形旁和声旁揭示的与字音、字义相近似的提示信息,深化对汉字形、音、义的理解;二是要重点强化未成字偏旁。汉字的偏旁很多,学生要记住这些偏旁很困难。但在偏旁中有很多是成字偏旁,即偏旁由一个独体字充当。像这样的偏旁只要学了这个独体字就容易记住了,因此不用特殊强化。这样根据新编汉字偏旁,还有29个未成字偏旁需要重点强化记忆。这就使掌握偏旁变得相对容易了,消除了学生记忆偏旁的畏难情绪,使学生很好的掌握汉字偏旁。

4.4 写:边写汉字边读笔画,强化笔画、笔顺,学会写汉字,避免写错字。

汉语的每个字均由笔画构成,要学会一个字,须学会它每一笔的写法及各笔的笔顺。外国学生写汉字难,主要问题是不熟悉汉字的笔画、笔顺,写汉字像画字一样,写得又慢,又容易写错,而且由于不熟悉、不掌握笔画、笔顺,写汉字不知从何下手,感到写字很难。因此,汉字教学最后要在写字上落实。写字要在熟悉笔画、笔顺上落实,在教写汉字时,边教写汉字,边读笔画,让学生跟老师写字时,也是边写字边读笔画,这样,可以在写字过程中强化笔画、笔顺,教师及时发现笔画、笔顺的错误,并及时纠正,逐步使学生熟悉笔画、笔顺,学会写汉字。笔者通过边写汉字、边读笔画的汉字教学方法,使学生们熟悉了笔画、笔顺,学会了写汉字,克服了写字难的问题。在调查中,他们感到写汉字不难了。汉字有很多形似字,它们之间

的差别往往是笔画多少的差别,很多学生容易把形似字写错的原因是笔画的错误,所以边写字边读笔画,可以在写字过程中及时区分形似字的笔画差别,加深印象,避免写错字。

4.5 忆:在词语和会话教学中记忆和巩固汉字。

语言学家王力先生说:“汉语基本上是以字为单位的。要了解一个合成词的意义,单就这个词的整体去理解它还不够,还必须把这个词的构成部分(一般是两个字)拆开来,分别解释,然后合起来解释记忆整体,才算是真正彻底理解这个词的意义。”这与当今“字本位”的教学思路是一致的。词语是由汉字组成的,汉字往往是构成词语的语素。为此,学汉语应采取“先学汉字,后学词语”的教学策略。所以,汉字教学的第五步就是在词语和会话教学中巩固汉字,让学生在掌握了汉字读音、字形和字义,理解了单个汉字的基础上学习词语,既可以巩固汉字,又可以更好地理解词语,记忆词语。在词语例释和会话中,尽量用已学过的汉字,既可以巩固学过的汉字,又可以根据熟字生词的原则扩大词汇量,发挥汉字构词能力强的优势,激发学习者对汉字和汉语的学习兴趣。

总之,母语为拼音文字的汉语初学者在习得汉字时会认读汉字难、记忆字形难、书写汉字难等困难,教师可根据符合汉语规律的“字本位”对外汉语教学思路,遵循先学语音、后学汉字,先学汉字、后学词语,先学结构、后学书写这一“三先三后”总体教学策略,践行“读、释、析、写、忆”五步汉字教学法,并将之逐步完善。

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英国大学非汉语专业的汉字教学

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Chinese character is perhaps the most frustrating factor for both students and teachers in learning and teaching Chinese as a foreign language in universities. While there is an increasing amount of literature on the learning strategies and teaching methodologies from the respective perspectives, students, teachers and researchers are still searching for the best possible solution to the problem - how to learn and teach Chinese characters effectively in university Chinese language courses.

It is not difficult to find that most of the existing literature examines the feature and structure of Chinese characters, and there is some literature and research on how students learn and how teachers should teach to English spoken students, but few have touch upon the conditions of UK Chinese language courses and their impact on the teaching of Chinese characters. The present paper aims to fill this gap by sharing my perspective and experience with colleagues. While the teaching approach is very much based upon my own experiences in teaching university Chinese language courses in a number of HEIs, it is also based upon the studies and research of many others on the topic, some of which will be reviewed briefly where necessary.

汉字教学的重要性

汉字对于非汉字圈国家学习汉语的学生来说，如果不是最大的困难，也是最大困难之一。多位专家和同行的调研已经证明了这一点，在第 11 届英国汉语教学研讨会上，德国的柯彼德教授甚至提出了双文制以解决汉语和汉字教学之间的矛盾，可见汉字教学在德国有多大的困难。笔者在英国从事汉语教学多年，对此也深有体会。如何克服这一困难，提高汉字教学的效率，保留住学生学习汉语的热情，一直是我追求和在探讨的课题。目前有关汉字教学的研究和文章

很多,为我们汉语教师提供了各种不同的汉字教学方法,但究竟什么方法适合于英国大学非汉语专业的汉字教学呢?笔者在此将从英国的实际情况出发,提出自己的一点看法。

英国大学的非汉语专业汉语教学

英国大学的非汉语专业汉语教学一般一学年两个学期,一学期实际上课时间为10-12周,每周为2-6个学时(大部分为3个学时)。全年授课时间少的只有40几个小时,多的大约有70多个小时。课型为综合课型,听说读写不分类教学。大多数的学校以欧洲语言框架为基准,在教学大纲里明确要求学生在课程结束时所必须达到的水平。这个要求是全面的,既有听说、也有读写的要求,各项技能都要达标。也就是说,学校培养的不是不识汉字的文盲,也不是临时应付商务、旅游、军事等活动的应急人士,而是能够用汉语全面交际,包括读写汉字的专业人才。在学习内容覆盖度上,虽然考虑到汉语对学生的陌生程度,不要求跟其他语种同步,但也不能相差太大。如果法语一学期要学8个交际题目,汉语起码也要学5、6个,不然学生会觉得没学到东西,下学期就不选学汉语了。另外英国高校有外校课监的制度,每一门课的教学大纲、考题和考卷分数都必须有外校的课监认可才行。这样做的目的是为了保证各大学的教学水平大似相同。在这种情况下,光学拼音是根本通不过的。

就学生成份而言,英国和北美有很大的不同。英国的华裔和亚裔学生比较少,大部分学生对汉字都缺乏了解,感到陌生,觉得无处下手。就教师而言,大部分的教师为汉语母语使用者,其比例可高达95%以上(根据英国大学汉语教学研究会会员资料)。他们当中毕业于汉语专业的人较少,不到5%(张新生,2010年资料)。所以从总体上说,教师对汉语、乃至汉字知识的掌握程度都不是很高。就学习经历而言,他们学习汉字已经是很久以前的事情了,而且最重要的是他们的学习经历与其所教的学生有很大的不同。与其他母语学习者一样,他们的学习经历都是先语后文。在教学方法上很多老师根据自己的体验和理解来选择教学方法。很多情况下语与文教学分隔时间过长,致使有些学生产生了汉语有两种语言的概念。在对学生掌握汉字的期望值方面,有的老师觉得汉字对西方学生来讲太难了,因此放低了对汉字的要求,导致某些学校一级期末考试试卷上拼音占主流。就汉字教学的研究而言,英国有这方面的研究(宋连谊,2000),但是不多,因为很多人都把注意力集中在用手机学习和文化教学等新兴的领域上。和美国的汉字教学差不多,“汉字教学只限于课堂上随意的象形字形体解说和简单的偏旁部首介绍,既无系统也无规律。”(黄伟嘉,2012年11月)

汉字教学法

汉字是汉语教学中不可缺少的一部分。我们大家都知道，汉字是汉语书写的基本单位，也是汉语表义的最小单位。很多汉字本身就是词，或充当构成双音节词的语素。汉字以字根组字，六书是汉字组字的基本原理。虽然汉字不是表音文字，但是绝大部分汉字都是形音义具备的。汉字的这一特点决定了汉字教学在汉语教学中的重要性。据资料统计，在 1000 个最常用汉字中，100 个左右的高频汉字部件可以构成 80% 的汉字，在 5000 多个形声字中，仅 54 个形旁就可以组构 87% 左右的形声字。口，三点水，提手，木，单立人，言字等 16 个高频形符的构字数目都在 100 个以上。我们大家应该利用汉字的这些特点来加强汉字教学，以字带词，以词连字，把汉字教学纳入词汇教学。可是从国内出版的教师用书来看，很少有讲解教师应该怎样教汉字的，而这正是我们汉语教师所急需的。由此可见，汉字教学在整个汉语教学中没有得到应有的重视。吕必松（2012-02-16）曾经说过：“我们一直把汉字看成汉语词汇的附属品，这就使汉字失去了汉语基本单位的性质；汉字失去了汉语基本单位的性质，就成了汉语教学的‘身外之物’，汉字教学跟汉语教学就成了‘两张皮’，读写训练和听说训练就互相制约。”

就目前的汉字教学方法来看，由于其指导理论不同，教学的对象不同，所以有多种不同的策略和方法。有传统的整体记忆法、三倍输入法、先语后文法，集中认字法、拼音汉字交叉出现法、听说读写分别设课法、认读汉字法，电脑打字、先认后写法、多认少写法、主题分类教学法、汉字联想游戏教学法、汉字文化讲解教学法、以字为本，以词带字和以词为本等方法。这些方法可以说都有其适用性和效果，但哪些方法适合于英国高校非汉语专业的汉字教学呢？下面我想讲讲我的一些看法和做法。

以成人学习理论为认知基础

首先我不提倡不加解释的整体记忆教学方法，因为我觉得这种方法比较适合于中小学教学，不大适合于大学成人的教学。虽然近年来许多汉字学习策略研究显示（McGinnis 1995），（Ke, 1998）大多数学生认为机械地重复能够帮助他们记住汉字，但我认为这样照葫芦画瓢效率比较低，效果也较差，从某种意义上来说，是我们当教师的失职。根据成人认知学习理论，成人注重理解，而且具有较强的举一反三的能力。不管是格式塔理论、托尔曼的信号学习理论、皮亚杰的建构论和认知图式理论、布鲁纳的发现学习理论还是奥苏贝尔的认知一同化学习理论，他们都强调学习是通过对情境的领悟或认知而形成认知结构来实现的。我们应该充分利用成人理解力强、逻辑思维能力强的特点，以适当的方法讲解汉字，提高学生认知和掌握汉字的速度。

在我们教授选修课的情况下,怎样留住学生、怎样在较短时间内让学生掌握一定量的汉字至关重要。

其二我主张语与文同时并进。先语后文、先认后写的方法适用于汉语专业或具有大量课时的公共汉语教学,像英国这样的每周只有三个小时的汉语教学,如果先语后文,学期结束时基本上完成不了教学任务。学生在有限的时间内,首先必须把语义与拼音联系起来,然后再与汉字联系起来,而拼音只是学习汉语的工具,它不是一种语言,也不是学习的目的,因此这样做会加大学生的负担。先语后文这种方法对于儿童来说是适合的,因为儿童可以不需要某种形式作为依赖来学习说话,而成人在学习时会寻找像拼音这种形式来帮助自己学习外语,这就是中国成人在学习法语 *bonjour* 时会注上汉字“笨猪”的原因。我们学校有些西方语言教学完全采用交际法,一上来就让学生重复,“你好!”,“你叫什么名字?”等等,不做任何解释,先乱轰一通,一点儿没学过该语言的亚洲学生完全蒙了,一堂课下来,全部转学其它语言。剩下的全是语言相近的欧洲学生。新实用汉语曾在我们学校试用过,当时的版本头七课里只有拼音,没有汉字。这样的先语后文安排不算太过分,因为只有短短的七课书,而且都是非常简短的课文,可是学生的反响很大。有的感到自己受到了欺骗,“没有人告诉我学习汉语必须学习两种语言,可是我们得学拼音和汉字两种语言。”当我解释说拼音不是语言,而只是一种工具、一种拐棍时,他们回答说“为什么学会拼音后不马上扔掉拐棍?应该让语音直接跟汉字对应,不要等到第七课再回过头学汉字,那样费两道手续。”学生的反应对我来说非常震撼。从那时起,我就尽力把语和文教学同步进行,即使是句型教学,我也板书汉字,目的是想通过不断的视力刺激和听力重复,来加强语义和汉字的联系。

其三我主张以字为本。很简单,这样学生就不会出现“他是吃牛奶妈的牛奶长大的。”的错误,同时自己还可以猜出“马奶,羊奶”是什么意思了。也不会出现“他是开车朋友的车来的。”以词为本适合于西方语言的教学,因为其词素大多不能单独使用,而汉语的词大多是由具有意义的、独立的汉字组成的,在接触了一定的词汇之后,你不讲学生也会问词中单个字的意思。比如在学习了“早饭”和“早上”之后,学生就会问“早”是什么意思。以词为本强调的是语言的交际功能,在学生学习了“早饭”之后就可以用于交际,比如“我们几点吃早饭?”这样做是“授人以鱼”而不是“授人以渔”。当然,我这里说的以字为本并不是要开汉字课,从简单的独体字开始教,而完全不顾交际的内容。一是我们没有这个条件,二是也没有这个必要。在我们的综合课里,我们仍以交际功能为其教学目的,也就是说学生首先要会使用“早饭”这个词,然后能明白、或者自己组成“早茶,早起,早婚,饭碗,饭前,饭菜”这些词。黄伟嘉老师认为,汉字教学需要有一个好的课本(2012),这一点我非常同意。教材可以决定教学内容,教学方法,教学模式。一本好的教材可以为新教师提供指引,大大减少其备课量。我和我的同事们根据我们多年的教学实践,编写了一套教材《步步高中文》。该教材本着以字为本的原则,在每课的生词中标出每个汉字的主要意思,并从第一课开始就有根据所学汉字来认识新词的练习。第一册每课后都有汉字知识,介绍汉字的六种构字方式。第二册则主要

介绍偏旁部首。该书于 2010 年获得了汉办颁发的优秀国际汉语教材奖。

具体教学方法

注重培养学生的汉字结构观念

在汉字教学中,要让学生意识到汉字不是一堆杂乱的笔画组合,而是有体系、有规律可循的方块字。我在教授汉字的时候,把重点放在结构上,而不是笔画上。汉字分独体字和合体字。独体字大都是一些简单象形字和表意字,因为这类字是从图画演变而成的,如:日、月、山、水、牛等。这些字由于形象而且笔画较少,所以比较容易记忆。合体字是由两个或两个以上的独体字组成的汉字,如:汉、语、李、张、章等。由于汉字是一个平面方块,如何将合体字的构字成分组合在一起,这就出现了结构分布问题。我们一般让学生了解以下几种结构方式:

- 1、独体结构:人、文、木、石
- 2、左右结构: A 左右:信、明、对、好 B: 左中右:树、哪、做、粥
- 3、上下结构: A 上下:忠、员、笔、贵 B: 上中下:翼、草、薯、害
- 4、全包围结构:国、园、团、围 5、半包围结构:用、仄、句、司

了解了汉字结构以后,学生对汉字的兴趣加大了。像“赢”这个笔画很多的汉字,很多学生可以把它分成“亡,口,月,贝,凡”五个汉字,然后以“上下”加“左中右”结构的形式把它们组合在一起。

注重偏旁教学和形声字教学

汉字的合体字中有很大部分是形声字。形声字是由表示意义的形旁和表示读音的声旁两部分组成。形声字占汉字的 80% 之多。但由于字义和字音的演变,有些形声字的形旁或声旁现在已失去了表意或表音的功能。有人拿 7500 多个现代合体汉字进行统计。就普通话读音来说,合体字跟声旁完全同音(声母、韵母、声调全同)的大约占 5%。声母、韵母相同而声调不同的大约占 10%。这两类加起来可占 15%。还有一种情况是只有韵母一项相同,这类大约占 20%。如果把以上三类全看作形声字,形声字大概会占通行汉字 35% 的样子。(朱德熙 1985)

虽然严格意义上的形声字并不多,但形声字是一种重要的、非常有利于汉字学习的构字法。譬如在初级汉语教学中,通过形声字教学,学生很快就记住了“马,吗,妈”的不同意思。在形声字学习过程中,偏旁得到了充分的练习,加强了学生对偏旁的掌握,培养了学生的汉字推理能力。在学习了青之后,学生就可以读出下列汉字并能根据偏旁猜出其意思:青:清,请,

情，晴，靖，靖，簪等等。

把握汉字形体的区别特征

在教学中我注重形似字的区分教学，运用汉字字理对形似字进行教学。譬如，学生经常记不住“冷、冰”是三点水还是两点水，我就让他们记住两点水的字与寒冷有关。对于“裙，衬，社，福”等字的偏旁他们也经常搞混，我就特别强调衤字旁与衣服有关，而礻字旁与祭祀有关。对于那些字理不清的字，我根据自己学习英语的经验，采用对比的方式，将模样差不多的字放在一起比较教学，如：千/干、毛/手、白/自、刀/力、石/右、广/厂、历/厉、鸟/乌、峰/锋、体/休、活/话、情/清，持/特等等。记住了单个汉字的特征以后，还要把汉字带入词汇中，告诉学生在这个词汇中只能是这两个字搭配。譬如，只有“千万”没有“干万”，只有“石头”、“乌鸦”、“生活”没有“右头”、“乌鸦”和“生活”等等。

趣味教汉字

汉语中的会意字虽然没有形声字那么多，但也是汉字主要构成之一。会意字十分有趣，很多字的组合都是有规律、有典故的。比如，“家”字上边的“宀”是房子，下边的“豕”是猪，古时候人们家中大都养猪，所以有了“房子”和“猪”就算有了“家”了。“男”字是由“田”和“力”组成的，这是因为过去男人主要在田里劳动。有一些会意字是用相同的字组成的，如二“木”成“林”，表示丛林，三“木”成“森”，表示有很多树；二“人”成“从”，表示跟随，三“人”成“众”，表示很多人。

为了提高学生学习汉字的兴趣，提高学生记忆汉字的效率，也为了让学生了解丰富的中华文化，我在教汉字的时候经常编造一些有关的小故事。比如在教“渴、喝”两字时，我就讲有一个人，被关在烈日下的小房子里，他感到渴，他要水，所以“渴”的偏旁是三点水。由于“渴”，他想喝水，喝水要用口，所以偏旁是口。讲到“杯”的时候，我就用佟秉正老师讲的一个笑话来解释。弟弟问哥哥，不是木字旁的字都跟木有关吗？为什么杯子不是木头做的，可是偏旁是木呢？哥哥说，你真傻，右面不是一个“不”字吗？这就是告诉你杯子不是木头做的。当然我会告诉学生在古代，杯子就是用木头做的。再比如“卖”这个字，顶上的十字原来是指古代被卖孩子头上插的草，这样讲学生也能理解，可是他们会问这跟“买”有什么关系？因为我教的学生都是学商务的，我就讲做生意就是做“买卖”，你先买后卖，可是你不能以你买的价格卖出，至少应该再加上百分之十，这样才能赚钱，买卖才能做得下去，所以有“十”的那个字就是“卖”。类似这样的小故事，学生都很喜欢。有时候学生自己编故事识字。有些同事

可能认为这样做很不严肃，也不科学，提倡以正统的字源学来讲解汉字。但是如果我们用许慎《说文解字》中的本义来解释汉字，学生就会觉得汉字复杂难懂、枯燥无味，觉得了解汉字字源是一个额外的负担。我认为只要不是太离谱，这种帮助学生在轻松愉快的环境里记忆汉字的方法还是非常实用的、有效的，值得推广。

中国文化输入

在教授汉语的同时，我们应该给学生介绍中国文化。可是西方的学生比较敏感，很多学生对中国文化持有怀疑的态度。他们学习汉语的目的不是为了接受或了解中国文化，而是为了利用汉语这个日益重要的交际工具为其谋利益。但是我们可以通过汉字教学向他们介绍中华文化。汉字中蕴藏了丰富的中华文化，比如在讲解“好”时，介绍中国人认为生子是一件好事，所以用一个妇女抱着一个孩子来表示“好”的意思。在解释“信”的时候，介绍中国人的言而有信，在解释“忠”的时候，告诉学生每个人都应该把心放在中间，不偏不倚就是忠。学生在了解汉字的同时，学到了中国文化，而中国文化会反过来帮助学生记忆汉字，一举两得，何乐而不为之？！

注重字音联系

汉字起源于图画，字形跟它所代表的意义直接发生联系，跟发音没有直接的联系。怎样帮助学生掌握汉字的发音、将音义形及早地统一起来一直是我关注的问题。汉语拼音的使用无疑为学生学习汉语提供了有力的工具，但是拼音不是一种语言，我发现过度依赖拼音会严重影响汉字教学。我的做法是用一两个小时将拼音介绍给学生，然后马上进入汉字教学。当然拼音也是需要巩固的，我们可以在其后的五周内做一些相关的拼音练习。汉字教学从第一课就开始，我会用汉字板书，手指汉字，直呼发音，使学生口、手、耳、脑并用。每堂课的重要生字都会写在黑板一角上，学生有意无意都会看到。除了在句型练习时使用拼音来代替没有学过的词汇之外，凡是学过的汉字，一律汉字板书，而且不标拼音。学生一开始觉得有点难，但是经过老师、同学的反复重复，他们也就能熟悉这些字了。即使不会写，也能辨认出其字形。至于写，我每课结束时都会给学生做听写，我不要求学生抄写多少遍，因为英国学生比较反感机械的练习，我只提出要求，只要能听写对了，你抄写一遍也行。当然，为了取得好成绩，他们自己会主动一遍遍地抄写。由于是自己主动的选择，所以他们并不觉得是负担。目前教授汉字的软件很多，教师也可以充分运用这些软件讲解汉字结构，演示笔画和笔顺以及发音等等。学生在课后可以在网上或通过软件进行练习，但是汉字字感的培养、汉字发音的练习还得依靠教师在课堂上逐渐的引导和训练。

多种形式的练习

汉字教学应该和词汇教学紧密联系起来，以字带词。汉字具有极强的生成词汇的能力，我们应该充分利用这一特点。

1. 词汇联想。让学生根据已学汉字组词，或者教师给出词，让学生翻译成英文

电：电话，电视，电灯，电梯，电扇

馆：图书馆，咖啡馆，茶馆，饭馆

球：篮球，足球，球场，球赛，球鞋

车：汽车，火车，自行车，车站，车票

打：打电话，打球，打字，打听，打法

2. 偏旁练习，找出相同部件

妈，洗，还，利，雷，法，排，鸭，部，贵，放，位，思，箱，病，想，饭，喝，红，问，们，花，冷，烧，照，胃，快，很，恨，猫，雪，家，钱，坏，

或者写出你所知道的带有木 / 口字旁的字

林，森，树，校，李，村，桃，材，样，格

吧，吗，吃，喝，叫，吵，和，告，号，听

3. 字形联想练习

这是通过形近字比较，来提高学生认知汉字的能力的一种练习。下面这些字非常相似，可以让学生翻译出英文意思。

大，太，天，人，犬，夫，

为，力，刃，万，卫，办，与

百，日，目，白，四，自，且，皿，曰

也可以通过词语搭配来检查学生的掌握汉字情况

选词填空

_____什么	为 / 办	办事_____	处 / 外
_____的	日 / 目	而_____	且 / 百
_____息	休 / 体	女_____	土 / 士

注意的问题

汉语不难，只是不同

汉语难、汉字难都是相对而言的，对西方的学生来说汉语比较难，这是因为英语和汉语不是一个语系的原因。就汉语本身来说并不是一种难学的语言。我对学生说，汉语不难，只是与西方语言不同。汉字虽然量很多，可是它没有字形变化，一旦学会一个，它是不会改变的。汉字绝大多数就是一个词，有自己独立的意思的。汉字组词能力极强，几百个基本象形字就可以合成上万个汉字，而掌握一千个汉字就可以读懂文章 90% 的内容了。作为汉语教师，我们要鼓励学生，提升他们学习汉语的自信心。与此同时，我们要加大对他们的期望值。虽然他们是西方公共汉语的学生，但是他们年轻、记忆力强，学习目的也很明确。只要他们认真学习，只要我做教师的正确引导，他们学习汉字不是个问题。

简单清楚，循序渐进

除此之外，我们应该避免一下子讲解很多的部件以及相关的知识。对公共汉语的学生来说，他们的授课时间很少，讲解太多的部件，特别是一些不常用的部件，会加重学生的负担，也会使学生产生畏难情绪，影响他们学习汉语的积极性。我也不主张让学生做用部件组字这样的练习。我们应该以正确的汉字输入为主。另外由于我们的汉语教学是以交际为目的的，我主张随课文学习汉字，不再增加额外不常用的简单基础汉字。学习一个汉字，不要一下把这个字的大部分意思和用法都教给学生，只教本课中的意思和使用方法就行了。要强调重复，循序渐进，充分利用已学汉字进行教学和比较。

结语

汉字教学在汉语教学中占有十分重要的地位，是全面提高学生汉语水平必不可少的前提条件。听、说、读、写四种技能之间是相互制约的。汉字识字量会在很大程度上影响学生汉语水平的整体提高。很多同事长期的教学实践都证明，汉字较差的学生学到一定阶段就无法继续学下去了。如果学生掌握了一定数量的汉字，他们可以通过阅读扩大词汇量，加快汉语学习速度，提高整体汉语水平。

与其它教学方面相比，汉字教学法的探索成果还是很有限的，而有效的教学法则对于提高

学生的汉字学习效率至关重要。汉字难学跟汉字教学不得法有着密切的关系，并不完全是由于汉字本身的原因。因此我们要寻找和利用汉字的优势，了解学生的学习特点，摸索出适合当地汉字教学的方法。我目前正在进行一项调研，对我校学过三学期以上的学生发放问卷，询问他们对汉字知识的掌握、对汉字学习的看法、他们的学习方法以及对不同教学方法的看法。届时将与大家分享调研结果。

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马来学生的汉字习得以及 在教学中对于运用字源学的尝试

闵申

文莱大学

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摘 要：汉字教学是对外汉语教学中最困难的环节之一。首先，对于学习者来说，汉字的结构复杂多变不容易记忆，因此相比学习汉语口语表达难度较大。而另一方面，对于教学者来说，教授汉字的方法众多。因此，如何寻找一个适当的方法，或者根据学生的情况调整教学方法，是教学者面对的难点。

关键词：汉字教学，对外汉语，汉字字源

1. 马来学生对于汉字的认知特点

由于文莱社会中华人人口占有相当的比例，马来^①学生在日常生活中拥有较多的接触汉字的机会。因此，他们对汉字的外貌特点有一定的认识，如汉字的形状、笔画等等。那么对于马来学生来说汉字究竟是什么样的呢？他们的看法和普遍的对外汉语教学中所教授的是否会有所出入？为此，面向在文莱大学学习的马来学生，开展了相关的调查。

调查一：象形字字义。

这份调查以问卷的形式展开。在问卷中，列出了最具有象形代表性的10个汉字，并在每个汉字下面提供三个容易混淆的英语解释（文莱大学生以英语为媒介语学习中文）作为选择，让50名马来人学生进行选择配对。

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^① 文莱的马来人占文莱人口约70%，是主要的人口组成。在文莱大学对外汉语课程中学习的学生，90%以上是马来人。

以下是问卷调查结果:

Table 1. 马来学生汉字外貌认知调查结果表

汉字	选项1	选择比率	选项2	选择百分比	选项3	选择百分比
一	Ground	31.25%	One	43.75%	Stick	25%
中	Middle	35.29%	Half	41.18%	Cut	25.53%
田	Paddy Field	29.41%	Window	67.41%	Square	5.88%
山	Mountain	29.41%	Three	17.65%	Fork	52.94%
伞	Roof	70.59%	Vender Booth	5.88%	Umbrella	23.53%
口	Window	58.82%	Mouth	23.53%	Square	17.65%
手	Hand	25%	Leaf	56.25%	Paw	18.75%
日	Sun	17.65%	Mouth	17.65%	Middle	64.71%
月	Door	0%	Moon	35.29%	Ladder	64.71%
人	Legs	41.18%	Arrow	29.41%	People	29.41%

注释: 为正确选项。

虽然调查的深度和广度都十分有限,但通过以上调查,大致可以了解马来学生在尚未正式学习汉字以前对于汉字的认知。从结果可以看出,正确率比较高的汉字是“一”字。可见,对照汉字意义的选项进行选择,比较容易理解“一”字的含义。

然而,另外一些对于汉语使用人群来说很容易理解的汉字字形,其选择的正确率却并不是很高。比如“日”、“月”、“人”、“手”、“伞”等,指示这些事物汉字的字形,从古至今虽然没有很大的改变^①,但是由于汉字方块化等原因,使得现代汉字的字形和抽象的象形图画相比还是有所不同,从某种程度上导致辨认难度加大。另外,这些汉字的字形也容易使马来学生产生对于其他事物的联想。比如“月”字,认为“月”字指代梯子的学生人数,占接受调查人数的近65%;而“伞”字的字形虽然很形象,但有更多的学生认为“伞”字指代的是房顶,占接受调查人数的70%以上。

还有一些汉字需要掌握一定的中华文化或者亚洲文化背景才能够理解或辨识。比如“山”字,如果了解中国人的传统餐具有并没有叉子,那很容易就会把“Fork(叉子)”这个选项排除掉,而更容易偏向选择“Mountain”作为答案。

另外,“田”、“中”、“口”等字,由于字形非常的抽象,可以指代的含义容易混淆,所以学生们必须进行更深入的学习,并结合读音和对于其他表达方式理解后,才能更好地分辨这些字。

最后,通过和接受调查的学生进行接触,并结合问卷结果,关于马来学生对于汉字象形的

^① 许慎,《说文解字》中华书局2004。

看法，得出了以下的一些观点：

第一：汉字是象形文字，但是单从形状上辨识汉字难度较大。可是，如果参考解释，会使学生体会到一些抽象的字形很有道理。但是学生们必须先建立起对于汉语的认识，包括基础的汉语表达能力，同时积累一定的词汇量，并了解中华文化等，在掌握融会贯通的能力以后，才能更好地理解汉字字形的由来。

第二：不了解中国人的思维方式，或者对于中国文化、人类历史的不了解，是不利于正确地理解象形字的指代对象的。比如，“山”字的意思，很明显不能是 Fork 或叉子，中国人吃饭不用叉子，而远古的中国人在使用餐具以前就应该已经认识到大山这样的自然现象了。









第三：由于汉字是象形文字，因此就算是没有学习背景的学生，对于汉字也并不是一无所知的。汉字的指代符号的特性，也是包括马来民族在内的非汉族人种可以广泛理解的。

第四：学生们对于汉字的指代意义很感兴趣，觉得汉字符号抽象而有意义，如果找到合适的方法，汉字的指代性特点一定能促使学生们更快更好地掌握汉字。

调查二：汉字结构

在汉字教学中往往会强调汉字是方块字，而复杂汉字的结构主要分成六种，即左右结构、上下结构和内外结构^①。那么对于没有学习过汉字的马来学生来说，汉字的结构是什么样子的呢？

Table 2. 马来学生对于汉字结构认知调查结果表

汉字								
林				✓		✓		
鑫	✓						✓	
圆				✓				✓
早			✓		✓		✓	
尖	✓					✓	✓	
国				✓				✓
赶			✓			✓		✓

^① 刘珣,《新实用汉语课本 1》北京语言大学出版社 2008。

句			✓					✓
等					✓		✓	
借				✓		✓		
谢				✓		✓		

以上是另一份调查问卷的结果统计。在这份问卷中，列出了最具有结构代表性的 10 个复杂汉字，并要求 50 名学生们将这些汉字和正三角形、反三角形、方形、菱形和圆形，以及左右、上下、内外结构进行配对。而表格中所标注的选项，是在调查中选择人数超过百分之三十的选项。

从调查结果可以看出，对于初学者来说，汉字的形状并不都是方块的。在他们看来汉字也有三角形、圆形、菱形等形状。比如在以上调查中，对于中国人来说很工整的“早”字，既有马来学生将它看作是圆形的，也有将它看作是菱形的。另外，“赶”字在中国人看来，是工整的方块字，在马来学生眼中，却是圆形的。

此外，学生们也表示，对于形状不同的汉字也有各自的喜好。有些人喜欢左右结构对称的字，有些人喜欢正方形的，特别是有外框的字。

至于在汉字的结构方面，可以发现，简单的将所有汉字分成上下、左右、内外结构，对于初学者来说是比较难以理解的。部分学生表示，有一些字，如“赶”、“谢”、“等”，不知道应该怎么选择其结构属性。从这点也可以推断出，对于初学者来说，分辨组合汉字的结构和组成汉字的构件是有一定难度的。

总结以上结果而产生的对于教学方面的思考主要有以下几点：

第一：字的形状可以引发学生的学习兴趣。对于喜欢的字学生们往往会呈现比较高的再现能力。因此，在教学中，可以鼓励学生对于汉字的形状发挥想象，并且应该将类似形状的字集中起来进行教学，以利于强化记忆。

第二：对于初学者来说，认知汉字组合构件，有利于记忆汉字的结构属性。也就是说，学生们需要有能力分辨出汉字中的构件，才能够了解汉字的结构。而单纯地从汉字的外貌来分辨结构，是比较困难的。针对这个问题，在教学的过程中，应该是使学生们首先掌握汉字的基本构件，并说明复杂汉字中构件组合的意义，从而帮助学生了解汉字的结构。

第三：汉字教学中通常所使用的六种汉字结构，即上下、左右、内外，对于以汉语作为外语的学习者来说过于抽象。按照这样的方法教授学生汉字结构，可能会造成比较大的困难。而如果可以使用其他的方法，如解释部件组合如何会意，反而可能更利于强化学生的记忆。

第四：结合调查一的结果，在教授初学者的过程中首先教授的汉字，提倡以使用率较高的汉字部件的原字为主，且这些字应该具有明显的象形指代意义。这其中既包括汉字中的常用部首，也可以是笔画组合。从这些汉字入门后再系统学习汉字，是针对马来学生来说比较合适的方法。

二、汉字字源在汉字教学中的运用



根据以上调查，在教学的过程中，针对初学者所安排的汉字教学内容，应该具有以下特点：

第一：应该首先教授特点鲜明的象形字。所谓特点鲜明，是指在向学生们解释了字源由来后，可以很快被学生理解和认可。

例如“木”字：

Table 3. “木”字的演化过程^①

甲骨文	金文	籀文	隶书	楷书	行书	草书	标准宋体
							
甲 3510 德上 13·8	伯 穆 墓	说文解字	熹伯 庙 碑	张猛龙 碑	文征明	孙过庭	印刷字库


甲骨文中的，有上部分叉的树枝，和下部分叉的树根，此后在演化的过程中没有很大的改变，直到在隶书中淡化了树枝的成分，形成了的样子，直到今天的“木”字，仍然保持这样的字型。

第二：使用字源学进行汉字入门教学时，所选择的汉字应该结构简单，且其字源是非中华文化背景的学生也容易理解的，即那些人类共通的符号形式。

有些汉字虽然具有明显的象形指示功能，也是出现频率较高的部件，但是随着汉字的发展，今天的字义已经发生了巨大的变化。比如“又”字^②：

Table 4. “又”字的演化过程

甲骨文	金文	籀文	隶书	楷书	行书	草书	标准宋体
							
粹 194	孟文 古匋 石鼓	说文解字	马王堆帛书	赵孟頫	颜真卿	怀素	印刷字库

从演化的过程来看，“又”字的字形并没有发生很大的变化。甲骨文中的，像伸手抓持的样子。当时的本意含有抓、持有的意思。因为古人也称面南而立时伸手向西为“又”方，后来又再加“口”另造“右”代替右边的意思。而今天的“又”的含义，则是指重复或者相同的持

① 许慎，《说文解字》中华书局 2004。

② 许慎，《说文解字》中华书局 2004。

续。

针对这样汉字的教学，强调其字源的由来，反而有可能使初学者感到困惑。因此，直接让学生们通过重复书写来增加字义记忆效果往往会更好一些。

在学习时，如遇到使用“又”结构作为一个部件的较复杂的汉字，如“友”，则可以介绍“又”结构是来源于人手的抽象图画，从而帮助学生更好地理解，“友”就是朋友在手拉手^①。

总而言之，是否使用资源学作为辅助教学的方法，应该根据汉字的特点而不能一概而论。

第三：最初学习的汉字应该是在复杂汉字中使用频率较高部件的原字。这其中大多数是汉字的部首，也可以是笔画的组合。因为使用的频率高，学生在学习复杂汉字时通过反复的重复，可以提高对于汉字的记忆。

例如在复杂汉字中经常出现的部首或者部件和相对应的含义如下：

Table 5. 汉字部件范例

含义	部首 / 部件				
人	亻	大	人		
手	扌	又	ナ	𠂇	
火	火	灠			

以上表中的部首或部件是在当今汉字中经常被使用的，所以“人”、“手”、“火”就应该是汉字最初教学的内容。另外，通过对于相同含义不同形态部件的对比学习，也可以进一步增强学生对于汉字的记忆，并培养推测生字含义的能力。






第四、基于同一个字源的汉字或者笔画组合应该集中学习，从而有利于强化学生对于汉字的记忆。但在学习的过程中应该有主次之分。也就是说，应该在课堂教学目标中设定读写字，即学生应该掌握书写的汉字，以及认读字，即仅以辨识为目标的汉字，而对书写并不做特定的要求。一般来说，在初级汉字学习中，读写字往往是结构比较简单的汉字，而认读字则结构比较复杂。

比如：

下面表格中的，是基于人的侧面形象的象形字𠂇，而发展演化而来的一组汉字^②。其中，对于初学者来说，可以要求对于“人”、“从”字的再现书写能力，而其他的汉字“化”、“比”、“北”，则可以作为认读字进行介绍。

Table 5. 和“人”字相关的象形字

① 林西莉，《汉字王国》生活·读书：新知三联书店出版社 2007。
② 林西莉，《汉字王国》生活·读书：新知三联书店出版社 2007。

人	从	化	比	北
				


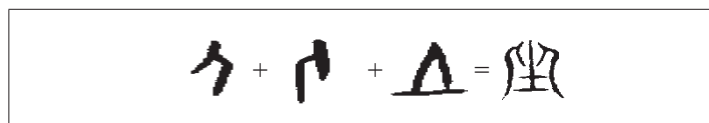
以下表格中的一组汉字,是基于人的正面形象的象形字 ^① 而发展演化来的。在教学过程中,可以将“大”、“夫”、“天”作为读写字来学习,而“立”、“交”、“夹”则可以作为认读字来学习。

Table 6. 和“大”字相关的象形字

大	夫	天	立	交	夹
					

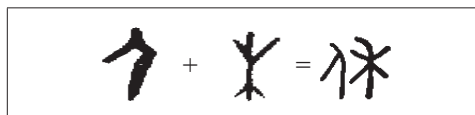
第五、在学生掌握了若干汉字部件之后,再将这些构件进行组合让学生推测字义。同时,也可以鼓励学生推测形声字的字音。以下是教学中的实例:

Table 7. “坐”字的部件组合



当学生学习了“人”字和“土”字,并了解这两个字的字源由来之后,可以将这两个字组合成的“坐”字还原成象形图画,即两个人背靠背坐在土堆上,从而很容易就能理解“坐”是指坐下来的动作或姿势。同时也可以很好的理解“坐”是一个上下结构,而非左右结构的字。

Table 8. “休”字的部件组合



学生们学习了“人”和“木”字并了解这两个字的字源由来之后,可以将这两个字组合的“休”字还原成象形图画,即一个人靠在一棵树上,从而很容易就能理解“休”是休息的意思。

这样的例子非常多,同样也适用于形声字。通过这个方法,学生们就可以由浅入深学习结构比较复杂的汉字了。同时,通过这个方法对于学生们正确记忆汉字的结构也有帮助。

以下是根据“新实用汉语”课本第一册^②,选出的符合以上教学方法的汉字,和在教学实践中,重新组合分类,并添加了一些补充介绍汉字的教学内容计划部分列表。

① 林西莉,《汉字王国》生活·读书·新知三联书店出版社 2007。

② 刘珣,《新实用汉语课本 1》北京语言大学出版社 2008。

Table 9. 汉字教学内容计划表

	读写字	认读字	部首 / 构件
第一课	一	二、三	
	力	男	
	田	里	
	土	坐	土
	人、从	比、北、化	亻
第二课	大、天	夫、立、交、夹	
	木、林	森、本、未、末、休、果	木
	八		
	刀	分、忍、	刂
第三课	口	叨、困	
	目	看、见、	
	手	支、友、反、爪、抓、父	又、扌、扌
	耳	取	

三. 结论

在对外汉语的教学中，汉字是教学的难点。很多学生一提到书写汉字就感觉头疼。但是，汉字具有独特的魅力，应该发挥其魅力，并通过适当的教学方法让汉字成为教学中的兴趣点。介于来自西方文化背景的汉字研究者，如 Richard Sears 和林西莉等对于汉字字源的研究被众多对外汉语学习者借鉴，成为著名的学习教材，在汉字教学的过程中，特别是在入门阶段，系统地使用汉字字源学应该可以作为一种有效的方法。

此外，如果采用适当的并能突出汉字趣味性的教学方法，将可以帮助初学者更容易地入门汉字学习。

结合以上两点，在文莱大学的教学实践中，尝试了将汉字字源和汉字学习结合。在教学的初期，以典型的象形字为学习重点，并以这些象形字为基础教授汉字、部首和汉字构件。虽然这些典型象形字的数量有限，但是基本的汉字和部首以及构件是组成复杂汉字的基础。学生们通过对这些内容的学习，不仅能更快入门汉字，还可以更好地掌握汉字构字法和汉字结构，从而为以后的深入和系统地学习打下基础。

与此同时，以上学习方法也可以大大提升学生对于汉字的学习兴趣。形象的图形示意，也会增强学生对于汉字的记忆和再现能力。

但是，使用字源作为一种教学手段，并不适用于所有的汉字教学。汉字有难易的区别，且造字的原理各有不同。另一方面，学生的水平也有所不同。通过介绍字源教授汉字，对于初学者的汉字入门学习，特别是使他们建立对于汉字笔画、结构的基本认识，是具有积极的作用的，但对于中级或者更高水平的学生，则不太适用了。因此，在教学中还应该根据汉字的具体特点，选择一组有代表性的汉字，通过介绍字源的方法，帮助学生加强记忆和理解。

总而言之，在对外汉语汉字教学的初级阶段，系统地使用字源学是可行的教学手段。在运用的过程中，应该根据汉字的特点合理结合其他教学方法，以提高汉字学习的质量。

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中文否定词“不”与“没”的成立条件

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Abstract: This paper analyzes the two most common Chinese negative forms “bu” and “mei” (you) from the point of view of characteristic of differential and integral calculus. “Bu” has a similar feature with differential calculus and “mei” has a similar feature with integral calculus respectively. “Bu” and “mei” both mean “after comparing real image with virtual image but real image could not be confirmed”, the only difference between “bu” and “mei” is that “bu” has a short negative scope, while “mei” has a long negative scope.

1. 导言

“不”和“没”是现代汉语否定句式中最常见的两个否定词，相关的研究也比较多，诸如，朱继征 (2000)，石毓智 (1992)，王欣 (2007)，吕叔湘 (1980)，白荃 (2000)，聂仁发 (2001) 等等。与以往的研究有所不同的是，本研究将人对外界的观察比喻成一种动态的扫描过程。从“微分”和“积分”这一对数学概念中得到启发，通过设定“实像”和“虚像”，“正像”和“负像”，分别对“不”和“没”给出明确的语法定义，在此基础上对二者的否定机理进行探讨。认为二者既有其语法意义上不同的一面，也有其语法功能上互补的一面。

2. “不”和“没”的相关研究

关于“不”和“没”的研究大致可以分为两类。一类是着重内涵方面的分析，比较典型的有朱继征 (2000)，石毓智 (1992)，王欣 (2007) 等。另一类是着重外延方面的考察，比较典

型的有吕叔湘(1980),白荃(2000),聂仁发(2001)等。

朱继征(2000)从“相”的角度将事象分为“动相”和“静相”,认为“动相”和“静相”对“不”和“没”的使用产生制约,“动相”的否定可以用“没”,不可以用“不”;“静相”的否定可以用“不”,不可以用“没”。应该说这个结论是很漂亮的,明确而有力。然而美中不足的是这个结论对“静相”的定义有待商榷,所涵盖的语言事实也有局限性。再者,这个结论反推一下,可以理解为:“可以用‘没’否定的为‘动相’,可以用‘不’否定的则为‘静相’”。然而下面一组例句既可以用“不”否定,同时也可以“没”否定,所描述的场景相似,我们很难区分出哪一种场景是“动相”,哪一种场景是“静相”。

(1) 小王不说话,只顾吃。

(2) 小王没说话,只顾吃。

石毓智(1992)根据 Jespersen 的所有否定都有“少于”或“不及”的含义这一结论,从而认为:

“不”和“没”的上述否定含义,要求所否定的概念在量上必须具有一定的伸缩性,即能表达在一定的数量幅度上变化的义项,以便能容下被否定后的义项“少于”,“不及”。这种在量上具有一定伸缩幅度的词称为非定量词,该类词都可以用“不”或“没”否定,从而将其肯定式变为否定式。那些在语义上只表示一个点的词,没有空间容下否定后的含义“少于”,“不及”,就称为定量词,它们都不能用“不”或“没”将其肯定式变为否定式。”

具体到“不”和“没”,石毓智认为,“‘不’和‘没’有着明确的分工:‘不’只能否定连续量词,‘没’只能否定离散量词”。

石毓智的关于“不”和“没”的分析给人的第一印象是,逻辑性很强,理论体系上很完整。然而由于其结论在具体的运用中难以把握,使得我们遇到具体的语言现象是容易产生迷惑。比如从下例中,我们很难区分出哪一种情形属于定量,哪一种情形属于非定量。

(3) 人死,植物也死。

(4) 灵魂不死。

(5) 那个病人没有死。

石毓智的关于离散量和连续量的分析也有待商榷。我们知道“点”是离散的,“线”是连续的。而“线”的数学定义为“点”的连续。也就是说“点”是包含于“线”之中的。推而广之,离散量和连续量是包含关系。照此,我们能不能推出“没”包含于“不”之中呢?

王欣(2007)以“他没来”和“他来了”为例句,分析得出:“‘不’和‘没(有)’的区别就在于前者是说话者站在事件的起点上来否定‘来’这一事件,而‘没(有)’是说话者站在事件的终点上来否定‘来’”。这一结论给人以耳目一新的感觉。然而仔细推敲之后,可以发现这一关于“不”和“没”的结论也有片面的一面。如果我们将动词用[过程][起始][结束][动态][静态]等语义因子来表示的话,动词大致可以分为[动词+过程+动态]类,比如“跑”,[动词+过程+静态]类,比如“是”,[动词+过程+开始]类,比如“去”,[动词

+ 过程 + 结束]类, 比如“来”, [动词 + 开始]类, 比如“出发”, [动词 + 结束]类, 比如“到达”, [动词 + 开始 + 结束]类, 比如“爆炸”等等。王欣的结论适用于带[结束]语义因子的动词, 而对于不带[结束]语义因子的动词则缺乏说服力。

上述研究以外, 大多数关于“不”和“没”的研究是从外延的角度着手的, 即着重分析“不”和“没”的词义与其他词的搭配以及不同语境下所表达的语义等。这类研究中, 聂仁发(2001)有其独到之处。该研究认为“不”和“没”涵盖整个否定域。先通过“不”与[±活动], [±暂态], [±实现]等语义因子的组合分离出“不”的否定域, 剩下的部分即为“没”的否定域。这种分析方法是比较新颖的。然而, 具体在某个词带什么语义因子的判断上, 会有主观倾向。比如, 聂仁发(2001)认为, “不”否定的动词是非暂态的。下例中的“抽烟”的语义因子被赋予[-暂态]。

(6) 小王不抽烟, 他不习惯。

对此, 王欣(2007)则认为“不抽烟”不具习惯性。本研究也认为“不”所否定的动词不一定都具有习惯性。见下例。

(7) 小王不说话, 一个劲儿傻笑。

综上所述, 以往关于“不”和“没”的研究都是力图在“不”和“没”之间划出一条线, 将“不”和“没”区别开来。然而这条线在某些语境下看似很清楚, 可是换一个语境就会变得模糊。即便是许建章(2004)的“不”否定未然, “没”否定已然这一比较认同的结论也有让人产生疑惑的语言现象。下面的“不”和“没”都可以认为是对已然的否定。

(8) 小王昨晚不洗脸就睡了。

(9) 小王昨晚没洗脸就睡了。

甚至有些语境下, “不”可以否定名词, “没”可以否定静态形容词。参见下面两例出现在网络的例句。

(10) 张大大, 回家吧, 不适合做主持人! 不男也不女, 不老也不少。

(11) 这小子对我真是没大没小的。

总之, 围绕“不”和“没”的语境极为复杂, 仅从外延的角度探讨“不”和“没”, 很难得出一个较为全面的结论。

3. 分析方法

在具体讨论“不”和“没”之前, 我们先导入下列一组相关概念。

事象(event): 事物存在的形式及其运动变化的方式。事象是人观察的对象, 也是语言描述的对象。

实像: 取值于事象, 具体指事像的场景。

虚像（语义像）：用来描述事象的动词或者形容词都有其语义原型。具体来说，之所以可以把“走”和“跑”这两个动词所描述的事象区分开来，正是因为“走”和“跑”有其各自的语义原型。我们把这种语义原型称看作语义像，在此称之为虚像。

正像：实像经判断被认为与虚像一致的像。

负像：实像经判断被认为与虚像不一致的像、也即正像以外的像。

微分和积分：微分和积分原本是一对严格的数学概念。但是这一对概念用来描述我们对事象的观察也具有一定的启发意义。人对外界的观察，类似于摄像机和被写体的关系。单拍得到事象的一个场景，类似于微分；连续的单拍得到事象的整体，类似于积分。据此我们还可以就动态和静态给出严格的定义。

动态和静态：假设我们对事象的观察是一个类似微分和积分的过程，则事象微分之后，成为一系列单独的场景，各个场景按时间序列积分之后，得到完整的事象。事象微分成一系列场景之后，如果所有场景都是相同的，则事象为静态的，如果出现不同的场景则事象为动态的。

4. “不”的定义及其成立条件

“不”的定义如下。

“不”是语用者对事象的某个时间点上实像与虚像经过对比判断，正像未得到确认的一种语言表述。这个定义也包含了“不”的成立条件，即某个时间点上正像得不到确认。

上述定义中涉及到两个关键因素，一个是正像与负像的关系，另一个是时间。下面通过对这两个因素的探讨，进一步阐述“不”的特征。

4.1 关于正像和负像的关系

如上所述，语用者对取值于事象的实像与取值于语义的虚像进行对比判断，两者一致则为正像，两者不一致则为负像。肯定是对正像的表述，而否定是对负像的表述。由于事实只有一个，所以在语言表述的时候，要么是对正像的表述，要么是对负像的表述，也即正像和负像在进入语境时，互相是排斥的。这种相互排斥的关系还可以具体分为一对零，一对一以及一对多的情形来加以讨论。

正像和负像为一对零的关系，即只有正像而没有负像的情形。什么时候会出现只有正像而没有负像的情形呢？具体来说，正像被确定或者被部分确定属于这种情形。当然，正像和负像为一对零的关系时，负像被排斥，因而不可以使用“不”来表述。有些语汇具有这种可以确定正像的功能。比如，表示进行时态的“在，着”，表示实现意义的“过，了，完”等，表示部分过程的“即将”（快要，快~了，就要，将要）等都是对正像的表述，“不”均不可以与这些

词汇搭配。

前述朱继征(2000)认为,“不”只可以否定静相,不可以否定动相。这个结论部分是正确的。因为动相表示正在发生的事情,确定了正像从而排斥了负像,无法满足“不”的成立条件,理所当然不可以用“不”来否定。实际上,只要不符合“不”的成立条件,有些静相也是不可以用“不”否定的。比如,石毓智(1992)认为“不”不可以否定“彤红”,理由是“彤红”是离散量。本研究认为“不”不可以否定“彤红”与“彤红”是否为离散量无关。而是因为,“彤红”是“红”的一种特定形式,是对“红”的正像的一种确认,因而排斥了负像,也打破了“不”成立的条件。除“彤红”之外,经过某些特定的词修饰之后的形容词乃至某些偏正结构的动词,也都不接受“不”的否定。比如形容词有“火急”,“透凉”,“昏暗”等等;动词有“耸立”,“悬垂”,“横卧”等等。

除了上述词汇以外,李瑛(1992)指出,“那些不受主观因素影响的客观性行为不能用‘不’否定,‘不’本身是一个表示主观否定或主动否定的副词”。同时列出“诞生,死亡,失踪,受伤,生活,碰见,接到,变成,听说,下降,有,得救”,等客观性动词,认为这些动词均不能被“不”否定。首先需要指出的是,上面列举的动词都有一个共同的特点,即这些动词都包含有“实现义”,也就是说对正像作了某种程度的确定,从而排斥了负像,“不”的否定条件因此不成立。但是如果我们将这些动词的“实现义”抹去,把它设定到虚拟的语境中去,则是可以用“不”否定的。见下面两例。

(12) 基督不诞生,就不会有今天的基督教。

(13) 病毒不死亡,这个病就不可能好。

其次需要指出的是,行为客观或不客观,不影响“不”的使用与否。比如“下雨”为客观性动词,我们照样可以说“今天不下雨”。同样,“不”也不一定表示主观意愿的否定。下例中的“不”并非是对主观意愿的否定。

(14) 小王不喝酒,医生不让喝。

所列举的动词中,“有”比较特殊。即使将之设定到虚拟的语境中,也很难使用“不”予以否定。究其原因,“有”和“在”同为表示存在的动词,“在”有“不在”和“没在”两种否定形式,而“有”常见的只有“没有”一种否定形式,“不有”这一否定形式一般不说。我们认为这并非受到其成立条件所限制,而是语用上,“不有”被“没有”替代了。用“不”否定“有”的实例也不是绝对没有的。比如“无奇不有”和“无所不有”,以及古语中也能看到“不”否定“有”的实例。见下例。

(15) 有五谷之实而不有其名。——明·李渔《闲情偶寄·种植部》

还需要指出的是,只要满足“不”的正像得不到确认这一成立条件,“不”甚至可以用来否定名词乃至数词。比如,“不男不女”,“不东不西”,“不三不四”等。

正像和负像为一对一的关系,即一个正像对应于一个负像的情形。这是一种镜像对称的关系或者 Jespersen (1924) 所说的反义 (contrary) 的关系。具体到词汇,相应的是一组互为反

意的词对。比如：“对—错”，“正—负”，“生—死”，“动—静”等等。在正像和负像为一对一的关系下，由于有负像的存在，满足“不”的成立条件，均可以用“不”加以否定，并且“不A则B”的关系也成立。镜像对称的关系构成的是二元语意空间，经“不”否定之后会发生语义反转。

正像和负像为一对多的关系，即一个正像对应于多个负像的情形。这种关系下，同样由于有负像的存在，满足“不”的成立条件，相应的词汇也均可以用“不”否定。一对多的关系常见于形容词以及“爱，明白，关心”等具有程度差异的动词。这些词汇一般都可以接受“很”的修饰，表示其值域是宽域的。举例来说，形容词“白”的否定形式“不白”所指的范围应该是与“白”有对立意义的“黑”为起点到近乎“白”的一个范围。这个范围内的所指与“白”相比，的确具有“少于”或“不及”的意思，印证了石毓智（1992）引述的 Jespersen 关于否定的结论有其正确性的一面。然而，对于正像和负像为一对一的关系，否定更强调语义反转或者说语义对立的一面，而不是强调“少于”或“不及”的一面。如果说“不丢人”“少于”或“不及”“丢人”，就有些牵强。同样，如果说“不取消”“少于”或“不及”“取消”也难以令人信服。可见以具有负面意义的词汇为基准时，Jespersen 的结论需要加以补充说明。不过，公平而论，Jespersen 的结论还是具有普遍意义的。因为我们一般是不会以负面意义的词汇作基准的。比如，我们说“高度，宽度，长度”而不说“低度，狭度，短度”。

4.2 关于“不”的时间因素

上述关于“不”的定义是，“语用者对事象的某个时间点上“实像”与“虚像”经过对比判断，正像得不到确认”。形象地说，这个定义可以理解为语用者对整个事象的一个“抓拍”，其结果得到的是一个“瞬间像”，类似于“静止像”。从这个意义上讲，朱继征（2000）的“不”是对静相的否定这一结论是可以理解的。“瞬间像”从时间域来讲是一个很窄的区域，相应地“不”的辖域也应该是很窄的。然而这种分析显然与聂仁发（2001）的结论是相矛盾的。因为聂仁发（2001）认为“不”具有[- 暂态]的特征，可以用来否定习惯。而从常识上来讲，习惯的时间域跨度应该是很大的。对于这一点，我们可以这样理解。首先，“不”是否否定习惯要视动词本身而定。比如，“小王吃辣的”可用来表述习惯，经“不”否定之后的“小王不吃辣的”也同样可用来表述习惯。而对于某些动词而言，“不”的否定形式既不一定表述习惯，也不一定是“非暂态”的。比如“小王不呼吸”就不能说是否定习惯，也不是“非暂态”的。“不”的时间域本身是窄域的，其相应的否定域也是窄域的。然而如何解释窄域的“不”可以否定宽域的习惯呢？关于这一点，放在“微分”和“积分”的关系中来看也就不难解释了。将“不”看作是一个“抓拍”，类似于微分，如果我们把一系列的“抓拍”连续起来，则得到一个连续像，类似于积分。比如，“小王一个小时不抽烟”，“小王一天不抽烟”，“小王一直不抽烟”等都表述的是连续像。划线的副词分别表示否定域的宽度。其宽度越大，否定习惯的特征越明

显。需要指出的是，虽然“不”的否定域均可以由时间副词表述出来，而往往在句子的表述时潜在化了。还有一点需要指出的是，无论时间副词表述的否定域是大还是小，其相应的连续像不会映射出动态的画面。从这个意义上讲，“不”表述的是静态。

实像和虚像的对比，可以是过去的对比，也可以是现在和将来的对比，因此，“不”分别可以用来否定“过去”，例如“小王以前不抽烟”，可以用来否定“现在”，例如“小王平时不抽烟”，也可以用来否定“将来”，例如“小王明年不结婚”。

5. “没”的定义及其成立条件

“没”的定义如下。

“没”是语用者在事象的某个时间段内，对实像和虚像的连续对比之后正像未得到确认的一种语言表述。

定义中，正像与负像的连续对比及时间因素是两个重要内容，下面分别加以讨论。

5.1 正像和负像的连续对比

如果我们说“小王上个星期没抽烟”，那么我们必须确定“上个星期”七天里的每一天都不能有“小王抽烟”的动作发生。假设我们只确定了前三天，我们只能说“小王上个星期的前三天没有抽烟”。确定的过程也就是正像和负像的连续对比的过程。这个连续对比的过程我们可以把它比喻成对事象的一个“连续拍摄”过程，与“不”的“抓拍”特征形成鲜明对照。需要指出的是，对于一些含有结束语义因子的复合动词，比如“吃完”，“推倒”，“打破”等经“没”否定后，分别为“没吃完”，“没推倒”，“没打破”，义为，“吃而未完”，“推而未倒”，“打而未破”，即“没”分别是对“完”，“倒”，“破”的否定，而不是对“吃”，“推”，“打”的否定。

值得一提的是，如果某个形容词或者动词既可被“不”否定也可被“没”否定，则“一直+不+形容词 or 动词”和“没+形容词 or 动词”所表达的语义有高度的相关性。比如，“一直不红”较之于“没红”，“一直不抽烟”较之于“没有抽烟”，“一直不红”和“一直不抽烟”成立，“没红”和“没抽烟”才能成立。表明“不”是“没”成立的先决条件。换言之，即先有“抓拍”才能得到“连拍”。从这个意义上讲，“不”和“没”是一对相关性很高的否定词。

需要指出的是，上述“没”的结论与王欣（2007）的结论是有冲突的。王欣（2007）认为“没”是对事象终点的否定，意味着“没”是对“点”的否定而不是对“区间”的否定。显然这个结论不适合于“没开始看电视”，“会议没结束”等未开始或未终止的事象。

朱继征（2000）认为“没”不可以否定静相。静相也即本研究的静态。严格地说，因为静

态表示整个事象只呈现一种场景，不需要通过实像和虚像的连续对比才得出判断，从而不用“没”加以否定。然而现实中，我们很难找到一种永恒的静态，也就是说静态是相对的。本研究将静态分为短区间静态和长区间静态。短区间静态意味着该状态是非持续的，可用“动词 or 形容词 + 了”表示该状态的开始，用“动词 or 形容词 + 到 --”表示该状态持续的区间。比如“枫叶红了，红到深秋”，“他们相爱了，相爱到海枯石烂”分别表示状态的开始，和持续的区间。这类短区间静态的动词或者形容词表明存在进入状态前和进入状态后的对比，均可用“没”否定。而对于表示长区间静态动词或者形容词，比如“属于”，“美”等动词，则难以确定其状态的开始与区间，也不能代入“动词 or 形容词 + 了”和“动词 or 形容词 + 到 --”的格式中。这类词汇难以用“没”加以否定。需要指出的是，即使是长区间静态词，如果出现可以形成对比的局面，则可用“没”否定。比如我们不能说“妹妹没有美”，可是与参照对象“姐姐”作对比的时候，“美”可以被否定。参见下例。

(16) 妹妹没姐姐美。

汉语中，“好”，“难”与动词结合形成的词群，也可被看作是长区间静态词。一般也不能被“没”否定。但是在比较的语境中则可以被“没”否定。例如，我们不能说“苹果没好吃”或者“弟弟没难看”，而“苹果没那么好吃”或者“弟弟没那么难看”则说得通。

“明白”和“知道”是两个语义和用法很相似的词，都可以代入“动词 + 了”，表示状态的开始。可是前者可以用“没”否定，而后者则不可说“没知道”。究其原因，“明白”可以有“从明白到不明白”或者“从明白到糊涂”这种状态的转变，而“知道”则没有“从知道到不知道”这种状态的转变。也就是说，“明白”与“知道”的区别在于，“明白”属于短区间静态词，而“知道”属于长区间静态词。这是“明白”可以用“没”否定而“知道”不可以的原因所在。

5.2 “没”的时间因素

多数学者都认为“没”可以用来否定过去和现在，不可以用来否定将来。至于为什么，则很少有研究涉及到。“没”的时间因素可以很好地回答这个问题。“没”的时间因素主要是指实像与虚像连续对比的时间区间，而时间区间的涵盖范围只能到语用者语用时为止。超过语用这个时间点就进入将来了。用拍摄来比喻，我们只能拍摄到眼前发生的事情，而不能拍摄到尚未发生的事情。这是“没”一般不能用来否定未来的根本原因。但是，如果是在一种表示推测的语境中，则实像与虚像的连续对比可以虚拟地延续，这种情况下，可以使用“没”虚拟地否定将来。但条件是必须同时使用时间副词标明虚拟延续的时间区间。李铁根（2003）所举的实例属于这类情形。

(17) 明天八点我还没起床呢。

(18) 明天这个时候我还没到上海呢。

6. 结束语

本研究通过对“不”和“没”的分析,认为二者同是“语用者对事象的实像与虚像经过对比判断,正像未得到确认的一种语言表述”,所不同的是“不”和“没”的对比判断的区间。“不”的区间为窄域,过程可看作是抓拍。“没”的区间为宽域,过程可看作是连拍。抓拍与连拍在原理上与微分与积分有高度的类似性。而微分和积分是一对互补性极强的概念,从类比的角度来看,应该说“不”和“没”也是一组互补性很强的概念。有趣的是积分有定积分之说。如果通过副词将“不”和“没”的否定域加以限定,其定积分的特征也会呈现出来。

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中级学生结果补语习得情况考察

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摘 要:系统的汉语语法教学一般在初级阶段集中进行,而受学生的词汇量和表达能力所限,这一阶段很多语法现象并不能充分展示。以结果补语为例,在起步阶段,对结果补语的展示十分有限,而事实上这一语法现象相当复杂。有研究者考察了由形容词充任的结果补语,从语义指向来分析,就可以有指向述语动词所表示的动作本身、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事等十种情况。^②汉语注重意念关系,学生运用教材中总结的语法规则往往造出接受度很低的句子。我们考察了中级学生的作文,发现学生对结果补语的掌握并不理想,存在着回避、泛化等各类语法偏误。究其原因,与初级阶段语法教学中对语法项目的展示过于简化,而中级阶段又不再进行系统的语法教学有关。中级阶段要进行系统的汉语语法教学,在复杂的表达层面上进一步有系统地展示汉语语法项目,而中级语法项目的选择和编排必须要以中介语理论为指导,建立在偏误分析的基础上。本文希望以结果补语为例,在构建中级汉语语法体系方面做一些尝试。

关键词:中级汉语,语法,结果补语,习得

1. 问题的提出

在教学内容的安排以及教材编写中,一直以来普遍的做法是在初级阶段进行有系统的语法教学,而进入中级阶段后则不再安排系统的语法教学,教学重点转为词汇教学。

这样安排教学内容存在着一定的问题。初级阶段受学生词汇量的限制,课文多为对话体,内容强调实用性,解决学生日常生活、学习和工作中遇到的问题,语法项目的展示并不充分。以北京大学出版社的博雅汉语系列教材《初级起步篇》I为例,课文全部采用对话体,全书共

有 30 课，每 5 课为一个单元。在北京大学对外汉语教育学院，零起点的初级班每周安排 5 次课，共 10 个学时。一个学期结束后，学生一般可以学完这本书。

《初级起步篇》I 选取常用词语近 700 个，语言点近 80 项。结果补语作为一个语法教学项目，在第 29 课“我们已经买好票了”中出现：

常用结果补语小结（1）

今天全部考完了吧？

（1）用在动词后，表示动作的结果。

（2）否定式：没 +V+ 结果补语

做补语 V/adj.	肯定式	否定式
完	考完了 / 做完了 / 吃完 / 喝完	没考完 / 没做完 / 没吃完 / 没喝完
好	做好了饭 / 包好了 / 收拾好	没做好饭 / 没包好 / 没收拾好
到	买到 / 收到	没买到 / 没收到
见	听见 / 看见	没听见 / 没看见
远	走远 / 跑远	没走远 / 没跑远
干净	洗干净	没洗干净

这些就是《初级起步篇》I 中安排的结果补语的全部内容。

在初级阶段进行的系统的语法教学，对许多语法项目只能展示其格式和基本用法，学生经过初级阶段的学习，对汉语的语法体系有了初步的印象。进入中级阶段后，课文内容深化，篇幅加长，词汇大幅度增加，学生在初级阶段打下的语法的底子并不扎实，进入中级阶段后，尽管教材中不再安排系统的语法教学，代之以“语言点”形式出现的以虚词为主的教学，老师们在教学过程中通常都需要根据学生的情况查漏补缺。

我们认为中级阶段仍然应该安排系统的语法教学，从学生的角度出发选择与编排教学内容。汉语注重意念关系，结果补语是汉语中富有特色的语法项目之一，也是初级阶段语法教学的重点。在这篇文章中我们选择结果补语的习得情况作为观察对象。基于这个目的，我们收集了北京大学对外汉语教育学院中级班一个班学生一学期的成段表达语料，包括命题作文以及作业和考试中成段表达的项目，我们希望通过对话料中学生结果补语使用情况的归纳与分析，为中级学生结果补语这一语法项目的习得情况勾画出一个大致的轮廓。

2. 材料与分析

我们以北京大学对外汉语教育学院中级班学生作为观察对象。“中级阶段的对外汉语教学

是一个跨度大、层次多、知识面广、难点集中,对留学生来说理解和掌握都比较困难的阶段,但也是学好汉语的关键阶段。”^①考虑到中级阶段内部的层次性,北京大学对外汉语教育学院将中级阶段分为两部分,对应博雅汉语系列教材的《加速篇》I II和《冲刺篇》I II。我们在这篇文章中选择中级阶段高班学生的成段表达语料作为观察和分析的对象。这部分学生在开学初经过分班考试后进入中级较高阶段学习,使用的教材为《冲刺篇》II,每周8学时,一学期16周学习结束后,还留在北大的学生大部分进入高级班学习,少数成绩突出的则进入系里学习专业课程。

2.1 语料分析结果

通过对收集到的成段表达语料进行穷尽式整理和分析,我们发现,语料中出现的结果补语数量十分有限,其中出现频率较高的有:

到 达到、感到、喝到、见到、看到、买到、拿到、碰到、送到、收到、谈到、想到、用到、遇到、找到、做到、感觉到、意识到、注意到

(1) 他对我说了心思,恐惧年老的时候会感到很孤独。

(2) 在那国家一夫多妻是合法的。丈夫可以有最多4个妻子。所以在那儿很容易见到一个丈夫和两三个妻子一起走路的样子。

(3) 在动物园,我也看到了很多树袋熊,也可以跟他们一起照片。

(4) 我几天前恰巧买到了一个文件夹,我就现在开始用。

(5) 现在我的房子有两只:一只很大的叫白白,当它很小时我在路上碰到了,然后收养了。

(6) 虽然他们谈到了若干无聊的问题,小李还觉得很自由自在。

(7) 旁边的一个和尚对我们的行为很不满,他告诉我们应该都吃完,因为在地球上的饿肚子的穷人太多了。所以我们应该想到这一点。

(8) 我的第二个梦想是无论在中国还是在日本,我都想要用到汉语。

(9) 所以到了中学时候我只认识了母语,遇到了很多困难。

(10) 最近中国的发展速度越来越快,所以很多公司欢迎会说汉语的人,比较容易找到好工作。

(11) 我看着它的眼睛。它意识到,我们俩都是幼年。我看得出来,在眼神。我们都意识到,我们已经找到了新的朋友。

(12) 因为我一直都很忙,所以我没注意到小狗这么难过。

好 订好、想好、学好、安排好、解决好、照顾好

(13) 我们订好了包租一间旅店,大家一起边喝酒边聊天儿。

^① 郭振华:《中级阶段对外汉语教学的几个问题》,《中高级对外汉语教学论文选》,国家对外汉语教学领导小组办公室教学业务部编,北京语言学院出版社1991年12月第1版P6

(14) 除了北京和天津别的地方我没去过，一个原因是我首先想学好普通话，另外一个是我很喜欢北京，我觉得是一个即有意思又好玩的城市。

(15) 你想好这些问题以后才能开始准备出国。

(16) 因为留学的学生都应该学习。他们的时间已经安排好了。

(17) 没有解决好这三部分那你的旅行肯定要过得不顺利。

(18) 可以说照顾好我的狗，责无旁贷。

成 变成、换成、养成

(19) 我们平常买在中国做的东西，这是空气污染的一个原因。民主的空气变成西方的空气了！

(20) 我就像一些学不好的小学生不得不写那样，“我怎么变成一位好的学生”的文章。

(21) 我外公经常极有耐心的帮助我跟深地了解书本的内容，可是重要的是接触了这些各种各样不同文化，使得下意识里变成了一个如今这样的人：愿意去尊重和感受多元的文化。

(22) 我并不是说以后再也不要进步我的汉语水平，反到要换成一个更激烈的办法，但不包括上课，做作业，考试。

(23) 我的这个反对性的态度早就开始养成了。后来定型了，变成我的一个特性。

完 吃完、考完、看完、写完

(24) 我幼年每天都三个小时的时间跟它玩不知不觉过去了，我把鱼菜丢给小鱼，尔后就凝视着它吃完了。

(25) 当我吃完我的早餐，非常有营养。

(26) 我明天口语考试考完以后去中国朋友家（望京），然后星期天回国。

(27) 看完了我就睡得着。

(28) 待到写完论文之时，我一定跟你们去。

为 称为、视为、誉为

(29) 关于睡觉状态，猫在一天中有 14 ~ 15 小时在睡眠中度过，还有的猫，要睡 20 小时以上觉，所以常常被称为“懒猫”。

(30) 本来猫是喜欢单独行动的动物，不像狗一样。它不将主人视为君主，惟命是从。

(31) 兵马俑坑被誉为“世界第八大奇迹”，秦始皇陵是最早列入世界遗产名录的中国遗迹，西安古城墙是至今世界上保存最完整、规模最宏大的古城墙遗址。

腻味 看腻味、听腻味、学腻味

(32) 我对中国历史方面是外行，看腻味历史电影，听腻味古典。

(33) 我两个哥哥都已听腻味了，但我可以说是一个例外。

(34) 我不太喜欢流行音乐，再说听腻味了这样的音乐。

(35) 我不太明白，所以听腻味了。

(36) 我跟她小心翼翼地学了一个月多点英语的语法。然后开始学生词和看书，然后到了

放假我学腻了。

在我们收集到的语料中出现频率很低的结果补语有：

会 学会

(37) 谁也想学会学外国语，我也希望学学外国语。

(38) 为了学会学普通话，我就应该怎么生活。

(30) 学会作一个独具特色的菜，可能可以开一个饭馆。

(40) 写汉字很难，但滴水穿石你努力就会学会学。

错 走错、说错

(41) 有人来到门前面送我比萨饼的时候，我开门后他就觉得走错了，因为他刚才接到另一个小伙子打过来的电话。

(42) 我也觉得跟那个国家的人讲有好处，因为他们也会帮你改如果你说错了。

近 走近

(43) 如果有人走近的话，猫就会腾地醒来。

(44) 我慢慢走近他们。

醉 喝醉

(45) 不过我们是年富力强的时候，所以没有人担心喝醉！

(46) 他总归喝醉酒。

在我们收集到的语料中，有些结果补语甚至只出现过一次：

扁 压扁

(47) 我的一只宝贝儿小鸡被我的表姐睡觉翻身的时候压扁了。

呆 看呆

(48) 我从来没有看过那么明明亮亮的天上，我都看呆了。

倒 翻倒

(49) 有一天我回家看它，一直翻倒。

干 喝干

(50) 都已经不知道味道就一个人喝干了。

跑 惊跑

(51) 猫的趾底有脂肪质肉垫捕鼠时不会惊跑鼠，猫在休息和走时候爪缩，捕鼠时候伸出来。

破 抓破

(52) 不过宠物除了诸多优点还有一些缺点。也就是猫抓破手，在墙上抓下来，不过猫抓得疼，老少皆知。

入 列入

(53) 兵马俑坑被誉为“世界第八大奇迹，秦始皇陵是最早列入世界遗产名录的中国遗迹，

西安古城墙是至今世界上保存最完整、规模最宏大的古城墙遗址。

伤 咬伤

(54) 第二个的缺点是如果你的狗偶然咬伤一个人，你也应该送那个人去医院然后注射很多次的疫苗。

熟 处熟

(55) 我总是一个人喂养他。结果他与我处熟了。

死 打死

(56) 现在没有猫，因为我的一只狗打死它。

走 偷走

(57) 因为他每天被同学们偷走他的钱，所以他恐惧再回学校。

着 睡着

(58) 我躺在床上，穿着我的衣服睡着了。

住 抓住

(59) 这个一年一去不复返，我想要珍惜时间、抓住机遇，不想后悔。

作 称作

(60) 狗是完全白色的，所以被称作“小雪”。

值得注意的是，学生在“把”字句、“被”字句中使用的结果补语正确率很高，这可能与我们在讲授这两种语法现象时反复强调动词不能只是单个动词，必须有其它成分有关。例如：

(61) 我二十六岁的时候实现了自己的第一个梦想，我又有了第二个，那就是把中文学好，当一个中国通。

(62) 把这些问题解决好以后才能开始买票，定房子和准备你的行李。

(63) 那个饭馆虽然风景很有好，但是饭不好吃，所以我们没办法把饭都吃完。旁边的一个和尚对我们的行为很不满，他告诉我们应该都吃完，因为在地球上的饿肚子的穷人太多了。

(64) 本来猫是喜欢单独行动的动物，不像狗一样。它不将主人视为君主，惟命是从。

(65) 关于睡觉状态，猫在一天中有 14 ~ 15 小时在睡眠中度过，还有的猫，要睡 20 小时以上觉，所以常常被称为“懒猫”。

(66) 狗是完全白色的，所以被称作“小雪”。

在我们考察的语料中也出现了一些与结果补语有关的偏误，例如：

(67) 过一个月胖了一些，所以我们为了令他们减肥。给饵食也少一些，后来有一天猛然饿死掉了。

句法成分冗余，应改为“饿死了”或者“死掉了”。

(68) 那建筑看到干干净净，动物也精力充沛。

结果补语“到”应改为趋向补语“起来”，“看起来干干净净”。

(69) 现在，我们国家在小学和中学教学生英语，所以中学毕业以后，很多学生们会说英

语, 写文章, 听懂。

动词 + 结果补语“听懂”应改为动词 + 可能补语“听得懂”。

(70) 我上大学之后, 我的空就更少了。但是我妈妈还把小巧养好。

“养好”应改为动词 + 程度补语“养得很好”。

(71) 就说北京, 这儿的空气污染别提严重多了。从我的房间看到中关村的东西, 我就觉得那天不错。

“看到”应改为动词 + 可能补语“看得到”。

(72) 景象的美丽让我双脚的痛苦减轻点儿。看完了我就睡得着。

动词 + 可能补语“睡得着”应改为动词 + 结果补语“睡着了”。

(73) 我一九九零年四月一日生, 所以我今年会变成二十三岁了。

这里用动词 + 结果补语非常生硬, 应改为“我今年就二十三岁了”。

(74) 第二个优点是你会会有更多的友人, 因为你们恍然大悟每个人在说什么, 为了这个你们也可以变成很亲密, 因为没有语言障碍。

“变成很亲密”应改为动词 + 程度补语“变得很亲密”。

(75) 所以我当时想请求他和我交换地, 但我同时懒得听到他的抱怨, 而且怕我这个受不了冷的脆弱地人要成为他跟朋友们之间的谈资。

这里不用结果补语, 应改为“懒得听他的抱怨”。

(76) 我平时跟朋友一起去电影院, 但有时候我一个人去。而且, 有时候一去就看到两三部电影。

这里不用结果补语, 应改为“一去就看两三部电影”。

(77) 我在北京学了两个学期的中文。每个学期之前我拿到了好几个主意。

动词 + 结果补语“拿到”不能跟“主意”搭配, 应改为“有了好几个主意”。

(78) 一位有名的记者偶然遇到了我朋友的一篇文章后他出名了, 所以他现在没过去的恐惧。

动词 + 结果补语“遇到”不能跟“文章”搭配, 应改为“读到了我朋友的一篇文章”或者“看到了我朋友的一篇文章”。

(79) 哪天晚上, 我回家的时候, 偶然发现了恐惧地小姐。当时他被坏人抢到了她的钱包。

根据上下文, 动词 + 结果补语“抢到”应改为“抢走”, “抢走了她的钱包”。

在收集到的语料中, 我们发现漏用结果补语的情况, 例如:

(80) 而且我是这集体的代表, 大家前面喝 \wedge 一升日本酒!

漏用了结果补语“光”或者“干”, 应改为“喝光一升日本酒”或者“喝干一升日本酒”。

(81) 猫把主人看 \wedge 父母, 像小孩子一样爱撒娇。

漏用了结果补语“成”, 应改为“看成父母”。

(82) 我也觉得跟那个国家的人讲有好处, 因为他们也会帮你改 \wedge 如果你说错了。

漏用了结果补语“正”，应改为“帮你改正”。

(83) 在澳大利亚你也可以买生猛海鲜让餐馆煮，然后在大海的旁边吃。可是你应该看∧你的食物，因为很多飞禽都想要你的食物。

漏用了结果补语“好”或者“住”，应改为“看好你的食物”或者“看住你的食物”。

(84) 在市场里，你可以买∧很多可爱的东西。

漏用了结果补语“到”或者“着”，应改为“买到很多可爱的东西”或者“买着很多可爱的东西”。

(85) 我最深刻的印象是我小的时候，我的老家人一直告诉我年轻人不懂很多事。我知道很多年轻人听∧这样的话的时候觉得是不对的，但是我同意我老家人的看法。

漏用了结果补语“到”，应改为“听到这样的话”。

(86) 我无法理解任何广告。我听∧的一切，我不明白。

漏用了结果补语“到”，应改为“我听到的一切”。

(87) 所以我们一起去过我们奶奶的房间就找∧一些药送给它。

漏用了结果补语“到”，应改为“找到一些药”。

(88) 你的行李太重的话，你不是扔∧一些东西，你就要化很多钱。这个会很麻烦。

漏用了结果补语“掉”，应改为“扔掉一些东西”。

(89) 我们的父母还记得我们问了他们我们可不可以做验尸因为我们怀疑有人杀∧它。

漏用了结果补语“死”，应改为“我们怀疑有人杀死了它”。

(90) 我有时半开玩笑的被母亲之称“执拗的坏蛋”。

多了结构助词“之”，漏用了结果补语“为”或者“作”，应改为“被母亲称为‘执拗的坏蛋’”或者“被母亲称作‘执拗的坏蛋’”。

我们也发现有漏用动词的情况，例如：

(91) 我来中国的目的是和中国学者们一起做公共研究、交流的。但是我的汉语水平不太好，所以这下学期努力学习汉语，比以前还∧高我的汉语、口语水平。

漏用了动词“提”，应改为“提高我的汉语、口语水平”。

(92) 到北京以后，我的听力水平当然∧高了。

漏用了动词“提”，应改为“我的听力水平当然提高了”。

(93) 我估计了把他∧醒的话，往后他就肯定会气死了我。我考虑了这么多才不彷徨。从睡袋出来走下火场去点着火还是好，不然我就把他∧醒了。

漏用了动词“吵”或者“弄”，应改为“把他吵醒”或者“把他弄醒”。

(94) 别如，你无聊的时，喝一杯茶心情马上就∧好了。

漏用了动词“变”，应改为“变好了”。

在分析整理语料时，我们还发现学生对结果补语这一语法项目有意无意地采取了回避策略的情况，例如：

(95) 人类在称呼“地球”的巨大的一块行星上互相共存, 进行不断地来往和沟通。

用双音节动词“称呼”, 回避了动词+结果补语“称为”。

(96) 我并不是说以后再也不要进步我的汉语水平, 反到要换成一个更激烈的办法, 但不包括上课, 做作业, 考试。

用“进步”, 回避使用“提高”, 应改为“提高我的汉语水平”。

(97) 你的行李尽可能少的, 你需要准备的一切都非常好。

回避使用动词+结果补语“准备好”, 应改为“你需要把一切都准备好”。

3. 几点发现

3.1 从形式上说, 学生主动使用的结果补语数量十分有限

从我们观察的语料中发现, 中级学生主动使用的结果补语有 24 个:

16 个动词: 到、成、完、为、会、醉、倒、跑、破、入、伤、死、走、着、住、作;

8 个形容词: 呆、好、错、近、扁、干、熟、腻味

动词中使用最多的是“到”, 正确率也比较高, “成、完、为、会”各自出现了几例, “醉、倒、跑、破、入、伤、死、走、着、住、作”则各出现一例。马真、陆俭明两位先生在考察了《形容词用法词典》所收录的形容词后, 指出单音节形容词基本上都能作结果补语, 有 153 个, 而双音节形容词作结果补语的能力远不如单音节形容词, 能作结果补语的双音节形容词有 63 个^①。而我们观察到的语料显示, 学生主动使用来作结果补语的形容词只有 8 个, “好、错、腻味”各自出现了几例, “呆、近、扁、干、熟”五个则分别只出现过一例。总体来说, 学生能够主动使用的结果补语数量十分有限。

3.2 从语义上说, 学生对指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的受事这一类结果补语掌握得最好

马真、陆俭明两位先生指出, “语义指向是指句法成分的语义指向, 具体说是指某个句法成分在语义上跟哪个成分发生最直接的联系, 从语法上说, ‘补语是补充说明述语的’。但是, 从语义上看, 补语不一定都是指向述语的, 即不一定都跟述语动词相联系。例如, ‘(把球) 扔进去’和‘(把球) 扔出去’, 补语‘进去’、‘出去’从语义上来说, 不是直接说明‘扔’这一动作的, 而是说明‘扔’的受事‘球’的位移趋向的。换句话说, 补语‘进去’和‘出去’的

^① 马真、陆俭明《形容词作结果补语情况考察(一)》,《汉语学习》1997年第1期P3-4

不同,不是说明‘扔’这个动作有什么不同,而是说明‘扔’的受事‘球’的位移趋向不同。”^①他们进一步将由形容词充任的结果补语的语义指向归纳为十种情况。

在我们观察到的语料中,学生主动使用的结果补语不仅有形容词,还有动词。从语义指向上看,有几种情况:

1. 指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的受事。例如:

(1) 我几天前恰巧买到了一个文件夹,我就现在开始用。

“恰巧买到了一个文件夹”里的结果补语“到”在语义上指向“买”的受事“一个文件夹”。

(2) 最近中国的发展速度越来越快,所以很多公司欢迎会说汉语的人,比较容易找到好工作。

“找到好工作”里的结果补语“到”在语义上指向“找”的受事“好工作”。

(3) 因为留学的学生都应该学习。他们的时间已经安排好了。

这句是受事主语句,“他们的时间已经安排好了”里的结果补语“好”在语义上指向“安排”的受事“他们的时间”。

(4) 关于睡觉状态,猫在一天中有 14 ~ 15 小时在睡眠中度过,还有的猫,要睡 20 小时以上觉,所以常常被称为“懒猫”。

这句是被动句,“被称为‘懒猫’”里的结果补语“为”在语义上指向“称”的受事“猫”。

(5) 我的一只宝贝儿小鸡被我的表姐睡觉翻身的时候压扁了。

这句也是被动句,“压扁了”里的结果补语“扁”在语义上指向“压”的受事“我的一只宝贝儿小鸡”。

(6) 不过宠物除了诸多优点还有一些缺点。也就是猫抓破手,在墙上抓下来,不过猫抓得疼,老少皆知。

“抓破手”里的结果补语“破”在语义上指向“抓”的受事“手”。

在我们观察到的语料中,学生使用的这 13 个结果补语在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的受事:

到、好、为、错、扁、干、跑、破、伤、死、走、住、作

2. 指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事。例如:

(7) 我不太喜欢流行音乐,再说听腻味了这样的音乐。

“听腻味了这样的音乐”里的补语“腻味”在语义上指向“听”的施事“我”。

(8) 为了学会普通话,我就应该怎么生活。

“学会普通话”里的补语“会”在语义上指向“学”的施事“我”。

(9) 如果有人走近的话,猫就会腾地醒来。

“走近”里的补语“近”在语义上指向“走”的施事“人”。

(10) 他总归喝醉酒。

^① 马真、陆俭明《形容词作结果补语情况考察(一)》,《汉语学习》1997年第1期P5

“喝醉酒”里的补语“醉”在语义上指向“喝”的施事“他”。

(11) 我从来没有看过那么明明白白的天上，我都看呆了。

“看呆了”里的补语“呆”在语义上指向“看”的施事“我”。

(12) 有一天我回家看它，一直翻倒。

“翻倒”里的补语“倒”在语义上指向“翻”的施事“它”。

在我们观察到的语料中，学生使用的这6个结果补语在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事：

腻味、会、近、醉、呆、倒

3. 指向述语动词所表示的行为的主事。“主事是指非自发的行为的主体”^①。例如：

(13) 我的这个反对性的态度早就开始养成了。后来定型了，变成我的一个特性。

动词“养”和“变”都表示非自发的行为，它们的主体就是主事。“养成了”里的补语“成”在语义上指向“养”的主事“我的这个反对性的态度”，“变成我的一个特性”里的补语“成”在语义上也指向“变”的主事“我的这个反对性的态度”。

(14) 我总是一个人喂养他。结果他与我处熟了。

动词“处”也表示非自发行为，“处熟了”里的补语“熟”在语义上指向“处”的主事“他”。

(15) 我躺在床上，睡着了衣服。

动词“睡”也表示非自发行为，“睡着了”里的补语“着”在语义上指向“睡”的主事“我”。

在我们观察到的语料中，学生使用的这3个结果补语在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为的主事：

成、处、着

4. 指向述语动词所表示的行为动作本身。例如：

(16) 我明天口语考试考完以后去中国朋友家（望京），然后星期天回国。

“考完”里的补语“完”在语义上指向“考”这一行为动作。

在我们观察到的语料中出现的在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作本身的结果补语只有“完”。

5. 指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事或受事所在的处所。例如：

(17) 兵马俑坑被誉为“世界第八大奇迹，秦始皇陵是最早列入世界遗产名录的中国遗迹，西安古城墙是至今世界上保存最完整、规模最宏大的古城墙遗址。

“列入世界遗产名录”里的补语“入”在语义上指向“列”的受事“秦始皇陵”所在的处所“世界遗产名录”。

在我们观察到的语料中出现的在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事或受事所在

^① 马真、陆俭明《形容词作结果补语情况考察（一）》，《汉语学习》1997年第1期P6

的处所的结果补语只有“入”。

马真、陆俭明两位先生将由形容词充任的结果补语的语义指向归纳为十种情况，而我们观察到的语料显示，学生对在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的受事这一类结果补语使用得最多，掌握得最好，在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事的结果补语也有一些用例。学生对在语义上指向述语动词所表示的行为的主事的结果补语、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作本身的结果补语、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事或受事所在的处所的结果补语则很少使用。至于马真、陆俭明两位先生归纳的指向当时人的人体器官或人体某部分、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作所凭借的工具、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的产物、指向述语动词所表示的行为动作的施事或受事的距离、指向述语动词的同源成分这五类结果补语，则完全没有涉及。

4. 需要思考的问题

在这篇文章中我们希望通过观察整理中级学生成段表达的语料，勾画出中级学生结果补语的习得情况的大致轮廓。到目前为止，我们的工作只能提供部分成果，从形式和语义上的分析也都还是表层结论，接下来需要思考的问题还有很多。

首先，是否需要进行国别化的研究？学生的母语对他们习得汉语结果补语的影响有多大？举例来说，日韩学生和欧美学生在汉语结果补语这一语法项目上的习得过程有没有差异？要进行国别化研究，首先观察的样本数量需要进一步增加。我们收集到的这个班学生一共有14人，从性别来看，男生11人，女生3人。从国家来看，日本学生2人，韩国学生1人，朝鲜学生1人，菲律宾学生1人，亚美尼亚学生1人，哈萨克斯坦学生1人，墨西哥学生1人，西班牙学生2人，瑞典学生1人，美国学生2人，加拿大学生1人。从母语来看，情况比较复杂，两名日本学生中一名是华裔，父母都是中国人，另外一名在美国上大学。菲律宾的学生也是华裔，平时较多使用英语。亚美尼亚和哈萨克斯坦的学生都能说俄语，墨西哥的学生除了西班牙语外，也说英语。瑞典的学生从小跟着当外交官的父母去过很多国家，一直上国际学校，在学校说英语，在家里说瑞典语。开始我们考虑区分母语情况，后来觉得太复杂，而且分开后样本数量又太少。

其次，对于收集到的语料还需要进一步分析整理。到目前为止我们对语料的整理归纳还停留在比较粗浅的程度，没有进行有统计学意义的分析。我们所能提供的结论也流于表面化。

我们收集到的都是成段表达的语料，有命题作文，也有考试、作业中成段表达的部分。选择这类语料作为观察对象，主要是想看看学生主动使用结果补语的情况。不过这类语料也存在着问题，一是受表达内容的限制，不一定能发现我们感兴趣的内容，再有就是学生可能会采用回避策略，绕开自己不太熟悉的表达方式，改用别的他认为更有把握的说法。

为了使收集的材料更为全面,我们考虑增加一些调查问卷,比如搭配测试,让学生不得不做出选择,明确标出他认为合理的搭配。不过调查问卷的设计需要考虑很多方面,这也是我们目前正在着手进行的工作。

第二语言习得过程研究是一项非常复杂的工作,影响习得过程的因素很多,我们希望通过研究,尽可能真实地反映学生的习得过程,为教学内容的设计和教材编写提供很好的指导。

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|第三部分|

Part III

试论日本高校二外汉语教学中的跨文化教育

——通过日本汉语教材内容的分析

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摘 要:近年来,在日本高校的汉语教学中,跨文化教育是一个受到关注的问题,编制相应的教材也是不少学者与教师探讨的课题。本研究以最新出版的10种中级汉语文化教材为对象,参考相关文化分类框架,抽取课文中介绍中国文化的内容,按照时代进行归类;对描述中国文化的内容,从正面话题和负面话题以及文化比较的角度进行分析。调查结果显示,具有全面的跨文化教育视角的教材还为数不多。由于中国与日本国情不同,为了达到跨文化教育的目标,汉语教材不仅需要对中国各种文化有较全面的介绍,而且,还要培养学生正确客观看待各种文化差异的能力,促进相互理解。

关键字:跨文化教育、汉语教材、日本、二外汉语

1. 研究目的

随着全球化国际化的进程,近年来,在日本高校的汉语教学中,跨文化教育是一个受到关注的问题,如何编写相应的教材也是不少学者与教师探讨的课题。“虽然英语也是重要的语言,

但了解英美以外的国家,对于培养全球化视野是非常必要的,尤其是对于战后一直向美国看齐的日本来说,下一代大学生们了解同处亚洲的中国是非常有意义的^①。”郁文堂编辑部指出了日本大学生学习中国文化的必要性(郁文堂编辑部,2002,p181)。

现行汉语文化教材中是如何理解“文化”的概念、并如何进行文化教育、是否能够达到培养学生的跨文化交际能力的目的、存在哪些缺点与不足,这些都是值得探讨的问题。

2. 先行研究

2.1 文化的定义

据调查,文化的定义约有300多种。一般都依照奥斯华尔特(Oswalt,1970)的“大写字母的文化”和“小写字母的文化”的分类来理解“文化”。前者指的是人类在社会历史发展过程中所创造的物质和精神财富的综合,后者则人们的社会风俗习惯、生活方式、相互关系等。爱德华·霍尔(Edward T.Hall,1957)将文化要素分为时间、空间、相互作用、学习等十类,通过知觉程度,将文化分为三个层次:显形、隐形、技术性。

可以说,文化涉及到各种要素,很难下完整的定义。

2.2 跨文化教育

国家汉办孔子学院总部制定的《国际汉语教学通用课程大纲》(2010)(以下简称《大纲》)中,对培养文化意识的具体目标进行了详细的描述。小川(2011)对日本理工科大学生的汉语课中的文化主题进行了介绍,对学生的理解度和兴趣进行了调查,指出为了培养学生的汉语交际能力,有必要尽可能地多介绍各种中国文化。胡(2009)提出为培养交际能力,在教授语法句型时要注重场景语境,这与文化背景的理解是密不可分的。洪(2001)、张(2013)都指出了在日本汉语教育中文化导入的必要性。

然而,从跨文化教育的角度对汉语教材作出调查分析统计的研究还很少看到。

^① 笔者译。以下引用日语资料均由笔者翻译成汉语。

3. 日本二外汉语教育概况

3.1 二外汉语教育概况

在日本,汉语已成为了仅次于英语的第二大外语。日本的大学里,选修二外汉语的学生很多,根据郭(2012),每年学习人数近15万。“听说大一学生选修汉语的有20~30%,不少大学高达40%”(奥水,2005, p12)。远藤(2002)对日本26所大学与短大的调查显示,26所中19所开设了二外汉语课程,1年级学生选择汉语的人数比率从58.6~10%不等,平均为37%。

史、周(2004)通过问卷调查,总结了如下日本大学二外汉语的性质和特点。(1)时间短,二外汉语教学一般为两年,共四个学期,有的时间则更短一些。(2)课时少,二外汉语教学一般一周只有4-6课时……,有些大学则更少,一周只有2课时。(3)人数多,每个教学班学生人数一般达到30-40人,甚至更多。

3.2 二外汉语教材概况

二外汉语没有一个统一的教学大纲,每年新教材层出不穷,教材数量之多,无法统计。“教材的水平等级没有一个明确的标准……二外汉语课程一般以学年为单位,所用教材与之相适应,一学年为一册。最近几年开始出现适合以学期为单位的教材。”(史、周,2004, p134)

本研究选取了近年出版的10种中级汉语文化教材,均是以话题为主线来编排的,各教材的主要情况如表1所示^①。

编号	初版	调查对象 出版年	教材名称	编写者	出版社	课数	对象	学习时间
1	2006.12	2011.3 第6次印刷	大学生のための現代中国12話	杉野元子、黄汉青	白帝社	12	大学生	一周一次,学一年
2	2007.11	2012.9 第5次印刷	読解中国語やさしい中国語でよむ現代中国	横川伸、王亚新	白帝社	12	学习二外汉语的大学二年级学生	
3	2008.1	2012.2 第5次印刷	中国を語る 文化と生活	山下辉彦、苏英霞	金星堂	12		
4	2009.3	2011.3 第6次印刷	变化する中国	孟广学、本间史	白水社	12		

① 教材以初版出版年份排序,从教材1至教材10。以下涉及教材名称时,均以教材编号代替。

5	2011.1	2011.1	リアルタッチ中国	为榕群、汪晓京	朝日出版社	12		
6	2011.3	2013.3 第3次印刷	中国之窗 认识真实的邻国	村松惠子、董红俊	白帝社	30	大学生	一次一课, 学一年
7	2011.4	2013.2 第4次印刷	焦点中国	植屋高史、郑伟、谷川荣子、阿古智子、砂冈和子	白帝社	15	已学一年汉语	
8	2012.1	2012.1	Chinese Adventure DVD で学ぶ中国文化	洪洁清	金星堂	12	已学一年汉语	一周一次, 学一年
9	2013.1	2013.1	リアルスコ・ブ現代中国事情	李贞爱	朝日出版社	13		
10	2013.1	2013.1	新・中国ってこんな国! 日々是变化	池上贞子、张国璐	朝日出版社	8	学习二外汉语的大学二年级学生	一周一次, 学一年一周两次, 学半年

表 1

4. 研究方法

本研究通过调查上述各教材的课文内容, 概括出各课课文的主题, 抽取课文中介绍中国文化的内容, 并从以下三方面进行分析。

4.1 时代分类

外语教育的相关先行研究把文化按照时代来分, 可以分为传统文化与现代文化(水内、李, 2006, p60)。然而, 此分类方法难以包含过去曾经出现过的一些社会现象, 它们不属于传统文化也不属于现代文化, 在现代生活中往往已经很少存在或者发生了变化的。本研究分为传统、过去、现代三类, 定义与具体例子如下。

传统: 反映具有悠久历史的中国有形与无形遗产, 包括长城、京剧、孔子的思想、传统节日等。对传统文化的介绍有利于使学生更多了解中国的魅力, 激发学生的学习热情。

过去: 反映新中国成立之后至改革开放初期的事物, 与“现代”的概念相对应。如计划经济时代的店员服务态度、过去年轻人的婚恋观、独生子女政策。对过去中国的介绍, 有助于学

生全面了解中国,再通过与现代中国相对比,可以加深学生的理解。

现代:反映当代中国面貌与新事物的内容,往往与“过去”的概念相对应。如现代化大城市的建筑、新语新词、现代的度假方式、现代人的消费观念等。对于现代中国的介绍,可以让学生了解中国的新面貌。

按照以上标准,对各课课文内容进行分类。如同一课文中同时存在两种或三种文化,则均作出标注。

4.2 负面内容

竹中(2012,p178)曾指出:“(选修二外)汉语学生人数容易受到有关中国的新闻报道的影响。前年出现东海油田开发、毒饺子等负面消息,学生人数就减少;相反,出现北京奥运会、上海世博会等正面消息,学生人数就增加。”奥水(2005,p13)也指出:“最近中日两国关系出现一些摩擦,选修人数就不见增长了。”可以说日本学生敏感地受到媒体的影响,对中国的各种新闻会有一定的了解。因此在汉语文化教材中不仅不应该回避负面消息,而且应该适当地进行介绍,引导学生正确地全面地理解中国。这也与《国际汉语教学通用课程大纲》^①(p30)五级文化目标的文化理解的目标之一“学会运用批判性思维方式学习”有密切关联。

负面内容:反映中国的社会问题、不良现象的内容。从课文中使用的形容词的感情色彩往往可以反映出课文作者的褒贬态度。

本研究对各课课文进行调查,抽取其中负面内容,归纳成表格,并进行分析。

4.3 文化比较

《大纲》(p30)五级文化目标的跨文化意识中规定:“了解有关中国文化和所在国文化的共性和差异;通过对所在国文化与汉语文化的对比,加深对所在国文化习俗和思维习惯的客观认识”。由于中国与日本国情不同,客观地看待中日两国的相似点与不同点、用宽容友好的态度看待中国文化、用汉语介绍本国事物也是需要培养的能力之一。而且不局限于中日文化差异的比较,对所有异文化持有客观看待、求同存异的态度,才是真正的跨文化交际能力。

文化比较:抽取课文中有关中日两国的相似点与不同点的叙述,归纳成表,进行分析。

5. 调查结果

通过上述调查,得到附表1、2、3。

^① 以下简称为《大纲》

5.1 时代分类

通过对 10 种教材的调查,可以从附表 1 看出,各教材的侧重点各有不同。如教材 1、2、4、7、9、10 侧重介绍现代中国的情况,教材 5 侧重介绍传统文化,而对“传统”“过去”“现代”三方面作出较全面介绍的是教材 3、6、8。总体而言,偏重介绍现代中国的教材居多,介绍传统中国的教材较少。如《大纲》(p IV)指出文化教育的目的之一是“使学习者理解中国文化在世界多元文化中的地位和作用及其对世界文化的贡献”,因此教材中对传统文化的介绍也不可缺失。

5.2 负面内容

从附表 2 可以看到,除了教材 5 教材 8 没有提到负面内容以外,剩下 8 种占总体 80% 的教材都对中国社会存在的问题,进行了介绍。对中国的正面负面同时进行全面的介绍,已经成为教材编写者的共识。正如教材 4 的前言编写目的中提到:“需要了解现代中国社会的正面和负面”。

5.3 文化比较

从附表 3 可以看到,教材 1、3、5、8、9、10 共 6 种教材占总体 60% 的教材包含了中日文化比较的内容,但除了教材 10 之外,各教材涉及到中日比较的内容很少。而且在各教材的前言部分,没有明确指出培养文化比较能力的重要性。由此可见,缺乏文化比较视点的教材还不少。

6. 结论

综上所述,可以看到日本汉语文化教材有一些缺乏对传统中国的介绍,有一些只介绍了中国的正面情况,而忽视了介绍社会问题等负面情况,有一些缺乏中日文化比较的视角。当然,在上课次数少、课堂时间有限等客观情况制约下,教材编写者在编写时很难做到面面俱到。

为了达到跨文化教育的目标,汉语教材不仅需要尽可能对中国的各种文化进行全面的介绍,通过本国文化与异国文化的比较,培养学生能够正确客观地看待各种文化差异的跨文化交际能力。教师可以展开一些活动提高学生的兴趣,发挥学生自主性,以期加深对某个问题或某种现象的理解。如让学生对自己感兴趣的话题,通过互联网进行调查,并将结果汇报给全班。也需

要编写总体的指导性文化大纲，对教材编写者与教师们起到一些参考作用。

由于篇幅有限，本研究只对教材内容进行了分析，未涉及到教材在课堂中的具体使用情况、文化的教育方法等方面，今后还需要进行进一步的调查与研究。

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附表 1 时代分类调查结果

	教材 1		教材 2		教材 3		教材 4		教材 5		教材 6		教材 7		教材 8		教材 9		教材 10	
	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类	话题	时代分类
第 1 课	饺子	传统、过去、现代	地理环境	自然	苏杭景色、饮食、美女	传统	教育的公平	现代	大学概况、学生证	现代	北京	传统、现代	找工作	现代	自我介绍、大学校园	现代	购房	现代	中国概况	现代
第 2 课	大学生活、卡	现代	人口大国	过去、现代	面条的种类、长寿面、生日蛋糕	传统、现代	就业难	现代	北京概况、前门大街	传统、现代	上海	现代	我的女友	现代	味千拉面、南京路步行街	现代	孩奴	现代	饮食习惯	现代
第 3 课	微笑	过去、现代	汉语	过去、现代	七夕的传说、习俗	传统	年轻人婚恋观的变化	过去、现代	公园晨练、太极拳	传统、现代	西安	传统、现代	媒体时代	现代	公园晨练	现代	个性 90 后	现代	节日	传统、现代
第 4 课	寒暄	现代	中国菜	过去、现代	春节习俗、春节晚会	传统、过去、现代	房奴	过去、现代	四合院	传统	广州	传统、现代	传统节日新过法	传统、过去、现代	豫园、春节灯会	传统	加班	现代	家人之间的寒暄语	现代
第 5 课	请客	过去、现代	黄河	过去、现代	国球	过去、现代	众多的股民	现代	长城、孟姜女的故事	传统	深圳	现代	休闲	现代	熊猫	自然	网络	现代	交际礼仪	现代
第 6 课	笑话两则		人口最多的姓氏	过去、现代	高考	过去、现代	城市里的消费热	现代	北京美食、烤鸭	传统	让一部人先富起来	现代	结婚	传统、现代	九寨沟	自然	裸婚	现代	中国人一生中经历的几种仪式	传统、现代
第 7 课	服务	过去、现代	大城市的年轻夫妇	现代	北京的“的哥”	现代	考碗族	现代	故宫	传统	独生子女政策	现代	独生子女	过去、现代	大学社团活动	传统	高铁	现代	“80 后”和“90 后”	现代
第 8 课	手机、手机号码	现代	沙尘暴	现代	海归	现代	保姆	现代	上海概况、新天地	传统、现代	上访户、钉子户和拆迁富翁	现代	你家谁作主	现代	故宫博物馆、龙、古人的智慧	传统	给力	现代	现代大学生	现代

	教材 1		教材 2		教材 3		教材 4		教材 5		教材 6		教材 7		教材 8		教材 9		教材 10	
第 9 课	价值		高考	现代	跳槽	现代	民以食为天	现代	中秋节 月饼、嫦娥奔月	传统	四大发明与知识产权	传统、现代	和谐社会的烦恼	现代	北京 798 艺术区	现代	两个 《非诚勿扰》、电影、婚恋交友节目	现代		
第 10 课	你别误会	现代	月薪一千元	现代	独生子女	现代	“80 后”与“养儿防老”	现代	中国传统婚礼	传统	环境问题	现代	新兴汽车王国	现代	秦始皇兵马俑、华清池的故事	传统	年轻人的榜样——杜拉拉	现代		
第 11 课	贫富之差	现代	成龙	现代	追星族	现代	养老危机	现代	中国民族音乐、女子十二乐坊	传统、现代	房奴、车奴和孩奴	现代	少数民族	传统、现代	石林、少数民族	自然、传统	网购	现代		
第 12 课	你在哪儿		龙的传说	传统	沙尘暴	现代	公益活动	现代	春节	传统	海龟、海鸥和海带	现代	节能	现代	纳西族的文化、丽江古城	传统	绿色消费	现代		
第 13 课											互联网在改变中国	现代	请自备购物袋	现代			中国里的日本	现代		
第 14 课											大寨村、小岗村和华西村	现代	带你吃遍中国	传统、现代						
第 15 课											三鹿事件的教训	现代	走出国门的华人	现代						

因篇幅有限，教材 6 第 16 课至第 30 课调查结果罗列如下：
 第 16 课 万里长城 传统，第 17 课 泰山 传统，第 18 课 秦始皇陵和兵马俑坑 传统，第 19 课 平遥古城 传统，第 20 课 客家与“福建土楼”建筑群 传统，第 21 课 孔子 传统，第 22 课 屈原 传统，第 23 课 秦桧 传统，第 24 课 鲁迅 传统，第 25 课 邓丽君 传统，第 26 课 卧薪尝胆 传统，第 27 课 破釜沉舟 传统，第 28 课 班门弄斧 传统，第 29 课 掩耳盗铃 传统，第 30 课 塞翁失马 传统

附表 2 负面内容调查结果

	教材 1	教材 2	教材 3	教材 4	教材 5	教材 6	教材 7	教材 8	教材 9	教材 10
第 1 课	对这些传统习惯的渐渐消失,有人觉得很可惜。	水资源的缺乏也开始成为一个严重的问题。		去追逐名牌学校,“择校热”持续升温。学校乱收费也屡禁不止。		大多数流动人口享受不到市民待遇,常常受到歧视,他们的子女不能接受良好的教育。交通堵塞情况比较严重,这是一个令当局和市民头疼的问题。许多四合院被拆掉,胡同被毁掉了,让人多少感到遗憾。	可全球经济危机却让就业越来越难。大学学历早就不像过去那样吃香了。		这几年房价涨得很厉害。	
第 2 课		人口的增加给中国社会带来了一系列社会问题		人才竞争激烈,就业形势日益严峻,工作也越来越难找了。与社会世纪需要脱节。 眼高手低					这些父母一辈为孩子忙碌	
第 3 课							我们也日益被大量价值不高的垃圾信息所包围。		如果达不到自己的期望,就会马上放弃。	
第 4 课		有的人甚至吃受到保护的稀有动物。	有人年年看春晚已经看腻了。	使房价不断暴涨。购房给他们心理上、生活上带来了很大的压力。			春节里的传统氛围越来越来减少。		中国的工薪族也经常加班	
第 5 课	无奈,是因为这既浪费时间,又增加支出。	水土流失严重。黄河就有发生洪水的危险。黄河下游开始出现河水断流的现象。		幻想能实现“一夜暴富”的美梦。老百姓对钱看重了,不少人出现了拜金主义的倾向。			在快节奏的现代社会中,工作、学习、家庭等各方面的压力时常让人感到疲惫不堪。			

	教材 1	教材 2	教材 3	教材 4	教材 5	教材 6	教材 7	教材 8	教材 9	教材 10
第 6 课			千军万马过独木桥。考生们得冒着酷暑复习和考试, 所以有“黑色 7 月”之说。考试的压力一点儿也没减少			原浙江省建设厅副厅长杨秀珠富起来了。原陕西省蒲县煤炭局局长郝鹏俊富起来了。“煤老板们”富起来了。还有许多吃不饱, 穿不暖, 没钱看病的农民。		关系到家人的面子		
第 7 课	但现在城乡差别仍然很大。	交通不方便。工作和生活也并不容易。				我们也要看到它的负面影响, 那就是男女性别比例严重失调、中国过早进入老龄化社会、独生子女的“小皇帝”化等问题。	我个人认为它是过于大功。独生子女被父母溺爱, 不利于健康成长。低出生率导致中国社会再不久的将来就要面临严重的人口老龄化威胁, 退休人口的养老问题将成为沉重的社会负担。另外, 违法超生的孩子因为没有户口登记, 不能享受正常的社会权利, 也造成了不少棘手的社会问题。			才意识到已经很难找到满意的工作。发现世界经济危机带给自己的是低薪金和危机感。买不起房子, 娶不起媳妇。
第 8 课		沙尘暴的危害、原因	在工作中遇到了各种各样的问题。“海归”在就业市场上“碰钉子”的情况多了起来。			遗憾的是, 不少信访部门工作人员并不按照《信访条例》的有关规定受理、处理信访案件。一些地方官员视上访呼为眼中钉。这些粗暴的做法在各地引发了许多起群体事件。				
第 9 课		每天的睡眠时间只有六个小时。千军万马过独木桥。激烈竞争。往往弄得全家人身心交瘁。		其浪费程度令人吃惊。		毫无疑问, 这些都是让中国人蒙羞的非法行为。	而广大农村地区的很多农民依然还是很贫困。贫富差距也在不断扩大。			

	教材 1	教材 2	教材 3	教材 4	教材 5	教材 6	教材 7	教材 8	教材 9	教材 10
第 10 课		有很多想做的事情根本无法去做。	一些独生子女从小养成了以自我为中心的习惯。	不少 80 后没有独立生活能力,以自我为中心,比较自私、任性,不懂得尊老爱幼。给不少老人的晚年生活增添了一丝不安、焦虑和无奈。		原材料的浪费让人痛心,但更让人痛心的是对生态环境的破坏。荒漠化、水污染、空气污染	交通拥堵和空气污染也成了新问题。有些私家车主还没能确立成熟的交通意识和文明的驾驶规范,不断发生的酒后驾车事故让我感到非常愤怒。			
第 11 课	中国的工薪族也经常加班九亿农民与四亿城镇居民收入差距却不断扩大。	随着年龄的增大,成龙眼武打片的难度越来越大。	“粉丝们”的行为常常让他们家长感到头疼。	不少父母将被置于家庭养老危机之下。		(房奴)结果身心疲劳不堪,生活质量下降。(车奴)为了面子去贷款买车。(卡奴)他们摆脱不了恶性循环。(孩奴)他们自己生病了舍不得花钱看,舍不得买件新衣服,不敢轻易换工作。				
第 12 课			沙尘暴是一种灾害性天气,它不仅会造成严重的空气污染,危害人们的健康,还会使土地贫瘠,影响农作物生长。			虽然他们有不熟悉国内情况,不适应国内人际关系,缺乏创业资金等弱点。“海带”是一个有些尴尬的群体。可到处碰壁。无奈地“泡”在留学地,成了“海泡”	目前中国的能源情况非常不容乐观。首先是土地资源紧张。其次是水资源的缺乏。第三,基础能源需求量剧增。			
第 13 课						“孙志刚事件”掩盖“非典”真相的官员被问责,山西“黑砖窑”事件曝光,抽 1500 元一条“天价烟”的南京市江宁区房产管理局局长周久耕	也造成了严重的资源浪费和环境污染。中国的环境污染主要体现在以下几个方面: 一、土地沙漠化。 二、大气污染和水质污染也日趋严重。 三、垃圾处理的污染。			
第 14 课						遗憾的是,许多地方大搞形式主义。兴办乡镇企业,但总体来说不是很成功。				

Cases Selection in the Textbook of Business Chinese in Intercultural Communication

跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程的内容选择

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摘 要: 本文基于跨文化交际商务汉语案例的内涵,在案例适合于教学的前提下,提出跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程在内容选择上应体现出系统性、层次性、实用性原则。系统性是指以商务案例的形式,按照跨文化交际概念的不同设计相关单元,每单元的多个案例既体现不同的文化维度又涵盖不同的商务功能;层次性是指案例体现的跨文化维度从现象、情境到制度,循序渐进,语言难度也由浅入深、层次递进;实践性是指案例设计既侧重于语言训练,更重视交际能力的培养,即培养学习者应用汉语言的跨文化交际能力,使之能紧密联系商务活动中的实际问题,识别、理解、尊重文化差异,学以致用。同时,对与内容选择相关联的案例的修改在内容、形式和语言上应遵循的原则,本文也提出了自己的看法。

关键词: 跨文化交际;商务汉语;教学案例;内容

在全球化(globalization)语境下,随着中国国际地位的提升,汉语在跨文化交际中的作用日益凸显,作为专门用途的商务汉语也发挥着越来越重要的作用。而教材是教学的基础和依据,编写适应汉语学习者需求的国际汉语教材既是国家汉办2012-2020年发展规划的重点项目之一,也是上海财经大学国际商务汉语教学与资源开发基地的主要任务。由此,在适应新形势开发出适合教学的跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程之时,其内容选择成为必须考虑的问题,本文即从以下几方面对此问题展开讨论。

一、跨文化交际商务汉语案例涵盖哪些要义？

1. 跨文化交际：对于以汉语作为第二语言的汉语国际教育（Chinese Language for International Education）而言，跨文化交际（Intercultural Communication）之义为在特定的交际情景中，具有不同的文化背景的交际者使用同一种语言（母语或目的语）而进行的交际。具体到商务汉语交际语境中，即不同的文化背景的商务人士使用汉语而进行的交际。当然，不可避免地，由于文化取向和交际规范的差异，会产生种种冲突或融合。而汉语国际推广（International Promotion of Chinese Language）的目的在于使中国语言文化向全球传播，那么本书的基本原则应在中国文化与全球视野有机结合的框架下，介绍中国商务文化，使以汉语作为第二语言的学习者通过学习本书，可总结出中国商务文化的特点，同时也了解主流国家的商务文化特点，并能以跨文化视角多维、开放地对待文化差异。

2. 商务汉语：近年来，对于商务汉语（Business Chinese）的教学内涵，普遍的共识是：商务汉语是以汉语为目标语言，以商务活动作为专门用途，以掌握经济、贸易、管理等基础知识和基本技能，以及商务文化因素为学习目标的专业语言教育，即为特殊目标的汉语教学（Chinese for Special Purpose for Business）。因此，跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程中所选取的案例在体现跨文化的特色的同时，还应体现商务专门用途汉语的专业性，把在商务环境中所需要的语言技能、词语知识（包括听、说、读、写、译）作为学习的中心，使学习者通过对与商务相关的专业知识内容的学习来学习汉语，既学习汉语言知识，又学习商务专业知识，并能运用汉语理解、表达和进行商务活动。

3. 案例与教学案例：所谓案例（case），是指以叙述的形式，对事件或现象产生、发展的过程的动态性把握，其核心是具体事件，其表述形式是对有关事件的时间、地点、人物、前后经过的再叙述（narrate），涉及到叙述角度（narrative perspective），与运用各种修辞手法对事物进行形象化的描述（describe）相区别。而且，事件本身是真实发生过、包含问题或疑难情境在内的；同时，事件的发生时间又不脱离近年来的现实语境。即：案例体现了典型性、真实性、时效性。

关于案例的“真实”性，可以是基于某种真实的经验，也可以是符合逻辑和常识的真实，由此，案例就存在编撰的可能，比如在一定的情境中，模拟人物对话，穿插背景叙述，以故事的形式展现真实的商务活动；比如为了明确案例中的某一理论要点着重突出案例的某些部分，而忽略其余部分等等。尽管经过编撰后的案例中时间、地点、过程等某些要素有一定程度的虚构，但有可资依照的真实原型，涉及的案例主体、案例中所描述的事件都有章可循，因而也更具有典型性。当一则案例的典型性、真实性和时效性都得以体现时，才适合进入教材，我们将其称之为教学案例。教学案例一般局限在具体教学的范围，由于有事先的精心设计与一定的

条件控制,因而更有代表性。因此,案例是教学案例的来源和基础,在重视案例的同时,也要掌握把案例设计、改编为教学案例的技巧,使教学案例一方面有利于“教”,另一方面适合于“学”,目的是让案例学习者在一个可讨论的框架内,通过案例,理解既定知识点,掌握分析问题、解决问题的方法。

把握了以上内容,那么跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程的内容应是以跨文化交际理论为指导的,以商务情景为限定的,以服务于教学的商务语境下的具体案例呈现为核心的。跨文化理论隐含于案例之中,既是理论归纳,更是实例演绎,既有成功的案例中,也有失败的案例,成功的案例中有经验,失败的案例中有教训,意在向学习者具体分析、处理文化冲突失败的原因或吸取成功的经验,解决其在跨文化交际中因文化差异而产生的种种困惑,逐步提高实际交际能力。概言之,跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程即是面向以汉语作为第二语言的学习者,培养其汉语语言能力和商务专业知识并跨文化交际能力的综合性教材,此能力覆盖了听、说、读、写、译各方面。

二、跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程的内容选择应在哪些方面做出努力?

本教程的设计是以跨文化交际理论为指导的,解决学生在跨文化中因文化差异而产生的种种困惑,逐步提高学生商务沟通中跨文化交际的实际能力为目的的,关于跨文化交际能力的构成要素,各学派的分类虽不统一,但基本上可归结为认知(cognitive competence)、情感(affective competence)和行为(behavioral competence)三方面,即知、情、行。而不管是跨文化交际理论、还是商务活动,抑或到具体的跨文化交际商务案例,其涉及的范围都是非常广泛的,可以说可资利用的素材纷繁复杂,如何在限定为“商务案例”的前提下,对这些内容进行筛选,并使之编排有序框架合理呢?

1. 系统性

国际化语境中,任何一种商务活动、商务现象都潜移默化地受到不同文化的影响,包括传统观念、价值取向、行为准则等等,而不同文化导致的文化取向则可能会阻碍商务活动的顺利进行。以此选取本教程的内容,在案例编排过程中,要尊重跨文化交际理论的整体逻辑结构,一方面,所选取的案例要有取舍地体现广为接受及成型的实践性较强的主要的跨文化交际理论,大的方面如言语交际、和非言语交际,具体方面要涉及个人主义与集体主义、权力距离、高语境、低语境、面子协商理论、礼貌原则等,以保障教学案例的整体设计。在表现这些跨文化交际理论时,坚持中国民族意识与全球视野的有机结合,案例所涉及的主体实施者需覆盖大多数主流国家,学习者通过学习,即可总结出中国文化的主要特点,又有与不同国别的文化的比较。另一方面,作为商务案例,又体现了商务功能的主要方面,如生活类的礼仪、出行、会见等,业务类的贸易、营销、人力资源、谈判、投资、品牌、管理等。

以上两个方面是相互交织、互有融合的,形制上表现为案例,内容上体现了跨文化交际,跨文化交际的理论隐含于商务案例之中,从理论归纳到实例演绎,又从实例演绎到理论归纳,力求做到理实交融。系统化的设定,使得学习者通过阅读、分析案例,对商务活动中的文化差异秉持应有的敏感性、宽容性和处理文化差异的灵活性,明白成败得失皆有因,这是学习,更是启发。

2. 层次性

作为案例式教材,语言技能的培养和训练,跨文化交际知识的了解和获取,都是紧紧围绕案例展开的,那么教程的层次性体现在以下两个方面:

(1) 编排上的层次性:案例的编排既有主题式结构(theme-based structure),又有主线式结构(linear structure),也有两者结合的形式。如主题式结构的跨文化品牌经营,则从品牌形象与认同层面纳入外企本土化、本土企业国际化的案例,从横的方面清晰划分,有联系有比较;如主线式结构的商务交际礼仪,则包括见面、宴请、会议、告别等环节,从纵的方面体现时间和发展的序列性。不管是横的方面还是纵的方面,逻辑上都渐此递进,以符合学生认知规律便于学生接受。

(2) 难易上的层次性:案例的字数由少到多,事件的线索由少到多,事件的实施主体由单个的个人之间,到群体之间,再到组织(企业)之间;涉及的文化知识也由浅入深、循序渐进,如从词汇差异,到话语结构误解,进而到言语行为的文化障碍和冲突,再过度到价值观念、思维方式、行为模式等等。具体而言,就是在跨文化交际意识之下设置若干个概念(concept);在每一个概念下设置若干个主题(theme)。每一个概念作为一个单元(unit),每一课(lesson)说明一个文化主题,可以是不同案例(case)从不同侧面说明同一个主题,也可以是每一个案例对应同一个文化主题的不同维度。同时从侧重现象的展示和交往性、情境式的学习,过渡到侧重因果的和制度性的思考,不断深化,以此使学习者接触后来内容时有一定的知识积累和储备。

概言之,因语言形式(form)与商务内容(content)密不可分的关系,层次性既体现语言形式(language-focused)如商务词汇、常用句式、语法点的难易把握上,也体现在跨文化交际知识(content-focused)的循序渐进上。

3. 实践性

可供选取的案例来源于国内近期出版的相关专著、教材、报刊杂志、网络等,案例本身是丰富多彩,摇曳生姿的。但在内容选取上,实践性也应纳入考虑的范围。

实践性的衡量指标之一为是否学以致用,即为应用汉语言的跨文化交际能力,此包括两个指向:汉语言应用能力、跨文化交际能力。试想,即使对跨文化交际的理论、商务知识有透彻的了解,而使用汉语言表达时却错误百出甚而一窍不通,那么何以谈得上全球化语境下的汉语国际教育、汉语国际推广呢?因此,理论本身不是目的,实践才是目的。选取的案例应始终有引导、有问题、有启迪。不管是跨文化交际理论,还是商务专业知识,都不宜做深入阐述,要

避免灌输诸如抽象的交际理论,或中国的贸易政策等专业知识等,而是紧密联系商务活动中的实际问题。在内容教授的输入步骤上,学习者通过阅读案例明确问题,通过分析案例找出原因,通过制定方案解决问题,这些都与实际商务活动息息相关,教学过程中语言输入的重点落实在如何运用汉语言交际上,语言是工具,是媒介,应教会学习者在实践中学习、在实践中应用,即这些案例并不以使学习者充分掌握某个跨文化理论的术语,或熟悉和了解中国商业经济活动运作程序为目的,而是通过案例,锻炼学生寻找信息、处理信息、交换信息等语言交际能力;通过阅读、思考、讨论案例使学生了解、分析文化的基本差异,培养身临其境地解决问题的能力,使学生在跨文化交际知识、认识和技能等层面得到锻炼和提高。

综上,跨文化交际商务汉语案例教程明确地把跨文化交际意识的培养确定为课程的理念性原则,使学习者能运用目的语——汉语进行有效语言交互活动,包括语言能力和语言运用能力。全书以单元分制,每单元都有总结性的观念框,并包含若干个案例,内容紧紧围绕原则、概念和主题组织材料,覆盖语言、文化、知识、技能几个方面。

三、案例的修改应遵循哪些原则?

跨文化商务交际案例涉及的素材纷繁复杂,但应力求做到:一方面,不以随机唾手可得的商务案例来对应解析跨文化交际理论;另一方面,也不以跨文化交际的理论来严格限定商务案例的选择。理论总是灰色的,而现实之树长青,理论与实际二者之间的调整、协配,可保证上述案例内容选取的系统性、层次性、实践性原则。鉴于此,在设计好合适的内容之后,教学案例的编写在内容、语言、形式上更需加以重视。

内容上:删繁就简。广泛搜索,博采众长,对每一个个案,力争从多个渠道尽可能多的搜集资料,在几个不同但相互确证的来源上注意到其间的相互联系(注释出处有多个)来整合加工,保证案例的准确性和解释力,而且,每一个个案,涉及的都可能不止是某一个文化层面的问题,而是牵涉到多个重叠、交织的层面,而教程的编写则应遵循语言习得的规律,做到层次分明、重点突出,而如何从这些“个案”所呈现的中西文化碰撞交融的复杂现象中重点梳理出有代表性的问题,使主题集中,矛盾突出,则是案例修改中最具难度又可能是最有张力的地方。

形式上:统一多样。尽管案例文本写作模式难有统一的写法,不过也有共通的理路,如上文所提到的,案例的表述形式,涉及到叙述角度,而叙述角度有分为全知视角(omniscient perspective)、内视角(internal perspective)和外视角(external perspective),所以,每一个案例的叙述角度在各单元可多样,但某一单元布局谋篇应视案例实施主体的不同(现象、人、或企业)统一为“描述+分析”或“背景+描述+问题+诠释”式,案例开头部分采用可哈佛商学院案例的写作模式,使案例轮廓清晰,结构分明,还可以对案例的结尾进行巧妙设计以增加可读性。

语言上：简明规范。案例语言的难易应坚持以学习者已有的知识积累和理解能力为基础，与其各项指标相适应，如将本书学习对象的语言水平上设定在中级及以上。此外，还应考虑语言表达上以规范的书面语为基准。语言点、商务词汇、习惯表达法串联合理，并规划好前后顺序，特别应重视常用词语的复现率（word frequency），有利于学习者预习、学习、复习和巩固。

四、结语

语言与文化密不可分。本教程以语言能力与跨文化交际能力的培养并重，教学案例的选择和编写既考虑不同文化背景交际者在言语行为、非言语行为、思维方式、价值观念等方面的文化差异问题，也考虑商务活动中具体交际因素如商务谈判、广告、投资等所表现出的文化内涵，使学习者学知识（to know）、学做事（to do）、学做人（to be）并行共进。当然，教程编写中还应注意到学时设置、学习者兴趣取向等因素。本书期待能整合已有资源，编写出体现系统性、层次性、实用性的教材，使学习者认知、情感和行为方面的跨文化交际商务汉语能力有一定的提升，进而识别、理解文化差异，以尊重、宽容的眼光超越文化差异。

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中、意文的“时体”问题与三套对外汉语教材之对比浅析

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摘 要：纵使从事汉语教学研究的学者们对现代汉语“时（tense）体（aspect）共存、有体无时、时体混合”观点所持之看法各有不同，众说纷纭，但不可否认，这是从事汉语教学工作与汉语学习者不可忽视的一个重要课题。意大利语隶属于印欧语系的罗曼语族，并不是有时无体的语言，只是在意语的学习过程中，教师们往往只强调“时”（tense）与“态”（mood）是影响意语动词屈折变化的两大重要因素，忽略给学生灌输意语中存有的“体”（aspect）概念，导致意大利汉语学习者无法确实掌握与了解“体”（aspect）在现代汉语中的语言实践与运用，时常将汉语中含有“体”（aspect）意义的句法结构以“时”（tense）的概念加以诠释。本文以在意大利、美国当地编写与在国内编写、并在海内外颇负盛名的对外汉语教材为例，比较其对“时体”问题所提出的解释分析方式、所涉及语法点在教材内出现的时间、次序，并探究其在学习上的适用性。

关键词：时体，对外汉语教材，语法点

1. 时与体

在历史上，曾经有多少科学家或哲学家尝试给时间下定义，比如亚里士多德（Aristotle）、奥古斯丁（Augustinus）、康德（Kant）以及最有名的爱因斯坦的相对论等等。在语言学方面，德国哲学家 Reichenbach（1947）基于对时间与事件发生之间的关系所作的观察定下了三种时间点（time point）：1）说话时间点（point of speech, S）；2）事件发生的时间点（point of event, E）以及 3）参照时间点（point of reference, R）；并根据参照时间点在时间上的定位决定句子想表达过去、现在与未来。英国语言学家 Comrie（1985）则将时间分为绝对时制及相对时制两种。这两位学者就时范畴方面所做的研究及提出的理论对未来的语言学界具有决定性的影响力。

至于什么是“体”？最具权威性的诠释则应该归属于语言大师 Comrie 在他的著作“体”(Aspect) 所赋予的定义(1976: 3-4): “体是情状的内部时间构成的不同观察方式”。而 Smith (1991: 3) 则提出, “体在传统上指通过完成与未完成之类语法化的视点呈现事件”。不管是 Comrie 或是 Smith 均把“体”划分为完整体(perfective) 和非完整体(imperfective) 两大类。完整体和非完整体的语法表述手段因语言而异。

根据 1924 年“新著国语文法”(1924: 122-126, 143-148) 里的记载, 黎锦熙当时早就已对时体标记具有明确的划分。他以“了”表完成, 并注明是国语中动词的 *Perfect* (1924: 124): 着、来着、来、起来、去、下去表持续, 是国语中动词的 *Continuous* (1924: 125-126): 另外还有重叠法 (*Iterative*) 表示一种动作方开始与继续的进行, 又表快完成之趋势。其他像“明天、已经、刚刚、快要、正在…”则被列为时间副词的范围。

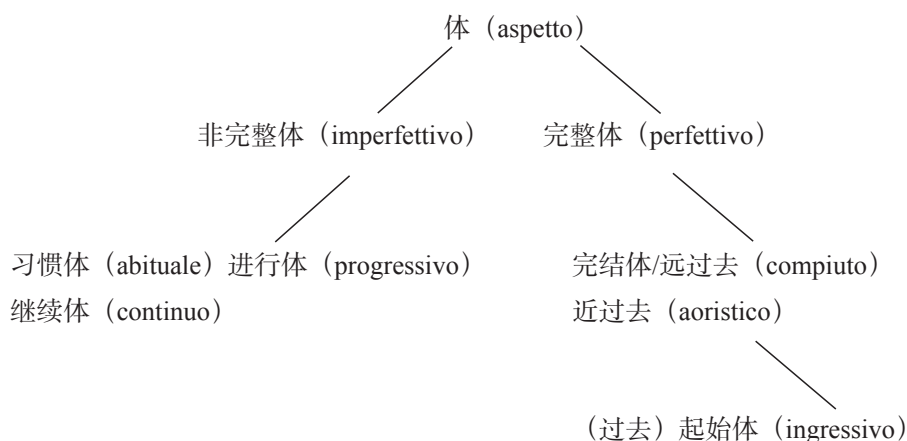
王力也在他的著作《中国现代语法》中(1944: 115) 将“体”分为七种类型: 1) 普通貌 - 不用情貌成分, 不把时间观念参杂在语言里 2) 进行貌 - 用词尾“着”字表示 3) 完成貌 - 用后附号“了”字表示 4) 近过去貌 - 用词尾“来着”二字, 放在句末 5) 开始貌 - 以“起来”表示 6) 继续貌 - 以“下去”表示 7) 短时貌 - 以动词重叠表示。王力将“体”称为“情貌”, 简称“貌”。至于 Li 和 Thompson 所写的“Mandarin Chinese”(汉语语法 1981) 书中则将汉语中的“体”(Aspect) 分为四类: 1) 完成体: 以“了”表示 2) 未完成体(持续体): 以“在, 着”表示 3) 经验体: 以“过”表示 4) 短时体: 以动词重叠形式表示(比如: 看看、用用)。Xiao 和 McEnery 在“Aspect in Mandarin Chinese”(汉语中的体: 基于语料库的研究 2004) 一书中将中文的“体”分为完成体及未完成体两类: 完成体被分为四种: 1) 现实体(actual aspect): 以“了”表达 2) 经验体(experiential aspect): 以“过”表达 3) 短时体(delimitative aspect): 以动词重叠形式表达 4) 完结体(completive aspect): 以结果补语 RVCs (Resultative verb complements pp.x) 表达: 未完成体也有四种, 分别是: 1) 持续体(durative aspect): 以“着”表达 2) 进行体(progressive aspect): 以“在”表达 3) 起始体(inceptive aspect): 以“起来”表达 4) 继续体(continuative aspect): 以“下去”表达。

2. 意大利语言学家、语言教师、学生对时体的诠释

根据意大利两位有名的语言学家 Banfi 与 Ramat (2001: 461-490) 对汉语语法中时体表现方式的观察与见解, [1] 他们主张汉语中“体”所涉及的语言表达形式有下列几种: 了 2 (动态助词)、……呢(句尾助词)、动词+着、正、正在、过、快要/就要……了、是……的, 以词汇表达的时标记(过去、现在、未来)则有: 表过去: 昨天、刚才、刚; 表现在: 目前、现在; 表将来: 明天、将、快、就等。

意大利语也有“体”范畴。“体”, 被学者们赋予多种不同名称。英文称之为 Aspect, 但也

有人称之为 Aspectuality; 其意大利文名称则为 Aspetto。意大利语体范畴研究最具权威的学者是任教于比萨高等师范大学的 Bertinetto 教授, 他将意大利语的体系统以下列图形示意:



Bertinetto 1986, *Tempo, Aspetto e Azione nel verbo italiano* pp.119)

根据语言类型学的突显理论, 汉语被普遍认为是体突显的语言, 而意大利语则属于时制突显语言。但其实意大利语也有“体”的存在, 只是普遍来说, 意大利的母语教育几乎不注重给学生灌输语法中的“体”概念, 直至中学阶段, 教师根本对此语法概念不加以解释, 只重视强调“时”(tense)与“态”(mood)是影响意语动词屈折变化的两大重要因素。知道如何使用语言中动词因“时”(tempo)与“态”(modo)的改变而产生的词形变化, 才是意语教学的重点。相信很多人都应该知道想学会意大利语的动词屈折变化与语法的正确应用实践必须经过一段很艰辛的学习过程, 甚至在日常生活会话中, 有些意大利人也无法正确地运用母语错综复杂的语法。如果幸运地碰到对“体”概念有所认知的学生, 那均要归公于他们在高中阶段拉丁语与希腊语的学习过程中所习得的理论概念。曾经就此现象笔者对 31 位意大利母语教学 [2] 老师做过调查, 请教他们为何“体”的概念在意大利母语教学中几乎不占一席之地地的原因。收齐了调查结果之后, 发现答案也是五花八门。

以下将问卷里的三个主要问题, 以及教师们的大致回答经过概括整理后于下列表格列出:

1. 您认为意大利学校通常在母语教学过程中, 是否给学生灌输语法中的“体”概念? 在意大利语法书里是否可找到

有关“体”概念的解说?

意大利的母语教学一向忽略“体”概念的解说与实践。

在高中阶段如果学习拉丁语或 / 和希腊语, 因需背诵表达“体”的动词形态变化而对“体”概念有所接触。

意大利语中的体标记不是以动词屈折变化来表达, “体”在意语的语法重要性只占次等地位, 所以在母语教学过程中几乎不被提及, 只有在高中的教科书中才能找到最多仅一页有关“体”的解说的篇幅。

2. 您认为“体”对意大利语的语言教学及习得有无重要性?

有,意大利语除了远、近过去完成式、过去未完成式与“体”的概念有所关联外,另外还有实词虚化(比如进行式 *sto mangiando* 我正在吃(东西)以及本身含有“体”意义的动词(比如 *addormentarsi* “睡着”表达起始体, *dormire* “睡”表达原形动词),我想在教学及习得上有其一定的教学与学习价值。

有,尤其是在学习分辨与如何使用过去完成式与过去未完成式的阶段具有相当重要性。

3. 您认为为什么“体”的概念在意大利语的语法教学与学习过程中没有“时”(tempo)与“态”(modo)的同等重要性?

也许是因为意大利语与斯拉夫语、古希腊语或汉语不同,不存有以动词形态变化表现的“体”标记,或者也可说在某些状况下时体标记是以同样的形态来表达过去完成式(perfective)与过去未完成式的(imperfective);其他的状况,则需借助实词虚化(比如 *sto per uscire*)或其他方式(比如 *comincio a leggere, mi metto a studiare*)来表达。所以通常意大利语的过去完成式(perfective)与过去未完成式(imperfective)的学习与实践是透过“时态”观点所给予的规则习得,在这种状况下,“体”的概念解说在语法课中几乎可视为“赘述”了。

因为“时”(tempo)与“态”(modo)主要是透过背诵与正确使用固定的语法规则及动词变化来习得的,但意大利语中“体”的表达则比较复杂,需要靠一定程度的语感去体会与运用。

通常“体”在意大利语只出现于过去完成式(perfective)与过去未完成式(imperfective);学生几乎也弄不清楚过去完成式与过去未完成式的(用法)差别,老师们也不愿多把时间花费在这方面的教学上,而宁可将教学重心移至最容易使学生犯错的虚拟式以及条件式的学习应用上。

传统性的意大利语教法主要是“时”(tempo)“态”(modo)教学,“体”的讲解在意大利语的教学上有点艰涩。

意大利语是个时态较突显的语言,“体”几乎不被视为一个语法范畴。

基于对意大利初、中、高级学校的意大利语教学内容的探讨与了解,语法结构分析以及语法逻辑分析是意大利学生在学习母语一门不可或缺的课程,所以,在意大利学生学习汉语的过程当中,想以学习母语的方式把汉语的语法规则、逻辑搞清楚,并知道如何确切地掌握语法规则,落实到日常的生活用语中,几乎是大部分意大利学生的汉语学习方式及目标。根据对一批去过中国学习汉语的意大利学生所做的问卷调查结果显示,意大利学生普遍认为中国籍与意大利籍汉语老师的汉语教学方法大为不同,大约有 50% 的意大利学生认为中国对外汉语教师所采用的教法为“实践演练”法,26% 的学生认为中国籍老师不具备教学方法,只是凭直觉教学;有的学生甚至痛恨中国老师要求的“死背法”;而对于意大利籍的汉语老师采用的教学方法则多认为是近似教意大利语的教法,也即“分析法”。这种现象探讨起来其实跟语言学上所称的“母语迁移”现象多有符合,因为“母语迁移”现象不仅探讨的是母语可对目标语产生

语言迁移作用，也涉及到以母语的思维方式，母语的教学方式对目标语的习得过程产生影响之说。

多年来在意大利的对外汉语教学经验让我发现，在初、中级的汉语语法学习阶段里，意大利学生最常问的一个问题是，我怎么表达“过去式”？在讲解如何使用语气助词“了”的时候，另一个最常遇见的问题是“什么叫做新的状况的发生”，什么叫做“用来强调变化”？因为依据意大利学生的想法，各种事物在各个时候几乎都有新的状况发生，也就是说，不断在发生变化，而且，之前已谈到很多意大利学生对“体”根本无任何概念，或者只有粗浅的了解，这就造成了以“时”(tense)的概念方式诠释含有“体”(aspect)意义的汉语句法结构的问题，只探究事件何时发生，而不问事件的动态进展。如何将这些疑点理清，让学生了解接受“体”(aspect)并在语言实践中应用，并非一件易事。

3. 现代汉语的时体习得

对于现代汉语的时体看法语言学术界各持不同观点一事，应已众所皆知，主要有下列三种主张：

- 有体无时论：代表学者有高名凯（1948）、王力（1943 称“体”为“情貌”），Comrie（1976）、戴耀晶（1990）、Smith

（1991, 1997）、石毓智（1992）、龚千炎（1995）等人；

- 时体共存论：主张时体各有其标记，以吕叔湘（1942）、李临定（1990）为代表；

- 时体混合论：主张时体标记一致，代表学者有龙果夫（1952）、雅洪托夫（1957）、张秀（1957）、张济卿（1996）、左

思明（1997）、金立鑫（1998）、李铁根（1999、2000、2002）等人。

纵使汉语时体存在性的争论无所定论，可是因时体问题涉及的语法点却也是外国学习者汉语习得的困难点，可见，探讨汉语中“体”的存在与其相关的教学问题绝对不容忽视。

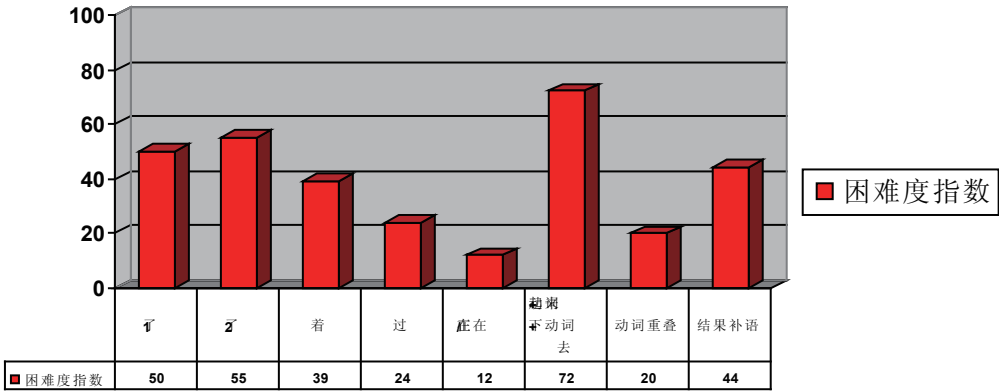
基于语言学者就“体”问题的观察与研究结果，现代汉语与“体”的表达手段产生牵连的语法点 [3] 大致可归纳为：

了₁（语气助词）、了₂（动态助词）、着、过、在 / 正在、动词重叠、动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去、结果补语，但是笔者在下面列出的表格里，还加入一些根据不同学者主张的体标记。

非完整体		完整体
进行体	正、正在、在、呢	过、已经、曾经、了 ₁ 、了 ₂
继续体	V + 着、下来、下去	结果补语 V + 到、过、完、好、得、着
起始体	V + 起来	
动词重叠	V + V..... 看看	

时量补语我学 中 文 学 了 三 年 了		时量补语我学 中 文 学 了 三 年	
其它	快、就要、快要	其它	是…的

笔者曾经对一群 100 位已学习过几年汉语的意大利学生作过一份问卷调查，问卷调查的内容涉及到是否对语言方面的体范畴有所认知？如果对体范畴有概念，是由何种渠道习得？对有关与体范畴涉及到的汉语语法点落实在日常生活中的对话使用能力自我评价，并请学生们将有关体中所列出的语法点依照习得难易程度依序排列，这些语法点包括：了₁（语气助词）、了₂（动态助词）、着、过、在 / 正在、动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去、动词重叠、结果补语。以下是学生们就上述语法点在学习过程中遇到的困难度调查结果显示图（困难度指数由 1 至 100）：



从图中我们可明显地了解到这些语法点在学习过程中对学生造成学习困难的难易程度，给意大利学生带来最大学习困扰的是“动词 + 起来（起始体）、动词 + 下去（继续体）”的使用；其次是动态助词“了₂”与语气助词“了₁”（完成体）的语言运用。所以，依照结果显示，上述语法点的习得顺序依难易程度排列为下：动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去（72）、了₂（动态助词）（55）、了₁（语气助词）（50）、结果补语（44）、着（39）、过（24）、动词重叠（20）、在 / 正在（12）。

4. 就时体问题比较教材相关内容

教材的编写适切不仅提供给教师重要的教学依据，也成为学习者的有效学习辅助工具。笔者在学习者就汉语与体范畴有关的语法点学习困难度深浅有一些初步了解以后，特意选择了几部中外学者所编写的对外汉语教材，比较其对“时体”问题所提出的解释分析方式、涉及语法点在教材内出现的时间、次序，并探究题材的针对性以及在学习上的适用性。

笔者所选择的教材是中、意、美三套对外汉语教材，分别是：新实用汉语课本、意大利人学汉语与中文天地。选择这三套教材的动机在于这些教材不仅在中、意、美三国对外汉语教学界深具代表性，并广受各大学及各阶层汉语学习者喜爱。本文就新实用汉语课本第 1、2、3 册、意大利人学汉语基础篇、中级篇与中文天地初级 上下册、中级 上册进行语法内容有关时体问题的比较。

以下第一张表格是对这三套教材的简略介绍：

表格 1

教材名称	新实用汉语课本 New Practical Chinese reader	意大利人学汉语 Il cinese per gli italiani	中文天地 Chinese Link
主编 / 作者	刘珣	马西尼、张彤冰、白桦、Anna Di Toro、梁冬梅、P. De Troia	吴素美、于月明、张燕辉、田维忠
出版地 / 出版单位 / 出版日期	2002 年初版 / 北京语言大学出版社 / 北京	2006 年初版 / Hoepli 出版社 / 米兰	2007 年初版 / Prentice Hall 公司 / Upper Saddle River
教材简介	全套教材共 6 册 70 课 第 1-4 册为初级和中级以前阶段共 50 课；5、6 册为中级阶段共 20 课	全套教材共有基础篇（20 课）、中级篇（20 课）、高级篇（20 课）	全套教材共有 初级 上下册共 22 课 中级 上下册共 20 课
特色	简体版（1-6 册）、 繁体版（1-4 册）	只有简体版，但包含繁体字阅读练习 初级篇相当于欧洲语言共同参考框架（CEFR）A1-A2 水平 中级篇相当于欧洲语言共同参考框架（CEFR）B1-B2 水平 高级篇相当于欧洲语言共同参考框架（CEFR）C 级水平	简体版、繁体版
注释语种	英文 为以英语为母语或媒介语的学习者学习汉语而编写	意大利文 为以意大利语为母语或媒介语的学习者学习汉语而编写	英文 为以英语为母语或媒介语的学习者学习汉语而编写

4.1 习得难度调查结果与教材内相关语法点出现次序之比较

经过上述问卷调查就有关时体问题所涉及的语法点在学习过程中引起的习得难度调查得到结果之后，笔者对所选择的三套教材书内的相关语法点出现次序排列做出以下归纳：

表格 2

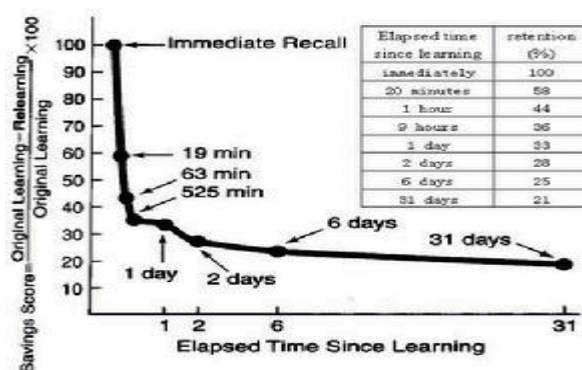
新实用汉语课本	意大利人学汉语	中文天地
-V+一下 (第 7 课) -了 2 (动态助词) 的用法 (第 13 课) (第一册共 14 课)	- 动词重叠 (第 10 课) - 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (第 14 课) - 正, 正在, 在…呢! (第 18 课) (基础篇共 20 课)	- 是…的 (第 6 课) - 正, 正在 (第 9 课) 复习 (初级上册共 11 课)
- 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (肯定事情已发生) (第 15 课) - 动词重叠 (第 15 课) - 时量补语 (1) (第 16 课) -V+了 2……了 1 (第 17 课) - 结果补语 (v+ 好) (第 18 课) - 时量补语 (2) (第 19 课) - 是…的 (第 21 课) - “过”的用法 (第 22 课) - 就要…了, 要…了, 快…了 (第 23 课) - 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (谈变化) (第 24 课) - 正, 正在, 在……呢! (第 24 课) - “着”的用法 (第 25 课) - 结果补语 (v+ 到) (第 25 课) 归纳比较 (第 26 课) (第二册第 15 课) - 第 26 课) - “着”的用法 - 存现句 (第 29 课) - 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (表情况变化) (第 30 课) - 结果补语 (v+ 着) (第 33 课) - 复合趋向补语的引申用法: V+ 起来 (第 36 课) - 复合趋向补语的引申用法: V+ 下去 (第 37 课) (第三册第 27 课-37 课)	- 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (解释较详细) (第 2 课) - 了 2 (动态助词) 的用法 (第 3 课) -V+了 2……了 1 (第 3 课) - 是…的 (第 4 课) - “过”的用法 (第 4 课) - “着”的用法 (第 5 课) - 结果补语 (第 6 课) - 时量补语 (第 8 课) - 就要…了, 要…了, 快…了 (第 11 课) - 复合趋向补语的引申用法: V+ 起来, V+ 下去, V+ 下来 (第 17 课) (中级篇共 20 课)	- 动词重叠 (第 13 课) 复习 - 就要…了, 要…了, 快…了 (第 17 课) - 了 1 (语气助词) 的用法 (第 19 课) - 了 2 (动态助词) 的用法 (第 19 课) - 动态助词“了”的用法归纳比较复习 (初级下册第 12 课-第 21 课) - 结果补语 (第 1 课) - 时量补语 (第 2 课) - “着”的用法 (第 2 课) - “过”的用法 (第 2 课) 复习 - 复合趋向补语的引申用法: V+ 起来 (第 3 课) - 结果补语、了 / 着 / 过的归纳比较 (第 5 课) (中级上册共 10 课)

来自不同国家的汉语学习者之语法学习难度分级排序与习得顺序应略有不同, 在此我们探讨的对象纯粹是意大利汉语学习者。基于上述就意大利学生汉语时体语法点学习难度分级排序问卷调查所得结果, 与三套教材的相关语法点在教材里的出现排序比较, 得到的结论是: 教材内的语法点排序与学习者的习得难度顺序有一些不一致的地方 (见表格 3)。由表格 3 可发现一个有趣的现象, 在三套教材内对了 1 (语气助词) 与了 2 (动态助词) 的介绍与解说的出现时间相当早 [4], 但是由问卷调查所得结果得知, 两个助词“了”的习得对意大利学生来说并非易事。就外国学生来说, 两个助词“了”的高难度学习过程及使用错误率高几乎是众所皆知之事, 但是笔者认为, 如果只针对意大利的汉语学习者来说, 它的习得及掌握难度跟之前提及意国学生对“体”概念的缺乏或模糊有关, 他们在汉语的学习过程中一定多少受到母语负迁移作用影响 (语际干扰), 无法撇开时态概念诠释法为主的阴影, 只是简单地从自己的母语出发去理解和使用目的语。

表格 3

问卷调查结果 学生语法点习得困难度 (由易到难排列)	新实用汉语课本 时体问题语法点出现 顺序排列	意大利人学汉语 时体问题语法点出现 顺序排列	中文天地 时体问题语法点出现 顺序排列
在 / 正在 (12) 动词重叠 (20) 过 (24) 着 (39) 结果补语 (44) 了 1 (语气助词) (50) 了 2 (动态助词) (55) 动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去 (72)	V+ 一下 / 动词重叠 了 2 (动态助词) 了 1 (语气助词) 结果补语过 正, 正在, 在...呢 ! 着 动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去	动词重叠 了 1 (语气助词) 正, 正在, 在...呢 ! 了 2 (动态助词) 过 着 结果补语 动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去	正, 正在 动词重叠 了 1 (语气助词) 了 2 (动态助词) 结果补语 着 过 动词 + 起来、动词 + 下去

4.2 语法点在教材中的重现率



根据德国心理学家艾宾浩斯 (Hermann Ebbinghaus) 的遗忘曲线理论 (1885), 人类大脑对输入信息的记忆保存并不持久, 甚至在开始记忆的初期阶段, 大脑的遗忘作用即开始产生, 但如果此信息经过多次反复输入, 到最后记忆则可保留较长久的时间。这套理论適切地解释为何在知识的学习过程中, 需要多次反复的原因, 为的不只是要加强学习者对学习内容的进一步了解, 另外还要帮助牢固记忆。同样的, 复现循环方式也是学习第二语言的重要方法之一。在教材里语法点的解说与练习由易至难循序分布并具复现性能够帮助学习者反思, 取得有效的进步。针对语法点在三套教材内分配性的观察, 由表格 2 可以发现下列情况:

新实用汉语课本: 1) 第二册介绍的“动词重叠”与第一册介绍的“动词 + 一下”用法相互辉映, 帮助学习者重拾记忆。2) 在第二册与第三册里将了 1 (语气助词) 的解说用法分配为三次, 并于第二册最后一课做出一语法点的例句归纳比较, 包括: 是…的 (p.258)、动作的态 - 了、着、过, 要…了、正在 (p.259)、结果补语、时量补语 (pp.260, 261), 这些语法点的再次复现, 可帮助学生对学习过的内容做重新归纳的整理工作 3) 结果补语在第二册及第三册曾经出现三次: v+ 好 (第 18 课)、v+ 到 (第 25 课)、v+ 着 (第 33 课), 重现率越高, 越能帮助

学习者熟悉与掌握该语法点。

意大利人学汉语：在语法点的介绍与解说方面，只有了1（语气助词）的用法在基础篇第14课与中级篇第2课各出现过一次，其他的语法点也只有在一些习题中重复出现，包括：两个了的比较（下册第二课习题5，6，只是此处笔者觉得有些缺失，因为了2动态助词的用法至此还未被正式介绍及解说过；下册第三课习题5，下册第七课习题6）；“了”与“过”的正确选择（下册第四课习题4）；“了”、“着”、“过”的正确选择（下册第五课习题5，测验 p.122 习题2，9）；“是…的”的用法（下册第五课习题6、8、11，下册第十八课习题11）；用结果补语填空（测验 p.122 习题3）。

至于**中文天地**，在中级上册第2课“着”、“过”及时量补语的语法点介绍说明，似乎有点过度集中。其他几乎将每三课分为一段落而开辟的“语法复习”篇幅，以及每册所有课文结束之后的语法点归纳整理，都提供给学习者重新复习语法重点的机会。语法点的高重现率是该教材的一大优势。

4.3 国别化教材还是普适化教材

最后笔者想谈到的是各套教材语法部分的解释方式。近几年来国别化教材的话题愈炒愈热门，甚至有专门的学术研讨会提供给学者们互相切磋的良好机会。记得在今年夏天在内蒙古师范大学举行的“基于多元理论的对外汉语教学模式研究”国际学术研讨会中，崔希亮教授曾提到“普适化教材”与“国别化教材”的话题，在今日全球掀起汉语学习热之际，此话题特别引人省思。朱德熙先生（1985）曾说“要问汉语语法的特点是什么，先要问你是拿汉语跟哪种语言比较。”在《新实用汉语课本》与《中文天地》两套教材里没有发现语法以语言对比的解说部分，但在意大利中外学者教师合写的《意大利人学汉语》教材内，特别在语法的解说部分多次提到中意语的不同处，在此只举出两例：1）[5]“中文的动词跟意大利语一样可重叠使用，只是，意大利语的动词重叠表示动作多次重复；中文的动词重叠使用则表示在短促的时间内只有部分的动作被完成，或者轻率地被完成。”（基础篇第10课）

2）[6]“动态助词”了跟绝对时间的概念无任何关系，不像意大利语必须选用一根据时间变化而使用的正确动词形态表达手法。”（中级篇第3课）

笔者认为语言对比解说在教材的编写应受到一定的重视，特别是在国别化教材愈来愈盛行的情况下，有比较，才有提供思考的空间，才可能对症下药地找到适切的教学方法。尤其在母语与目标语的语系差距甚远的情况下，如何分析比较两个语言之间的相似性与不同点，从中得到一些提供省思与达到习得目标的解决之道，则是一门值得深入探讨的功课。

5. 小结

中国经济的腾飞使越来越多的外国人深觉学习中文与深入了解中国文化的必要性,也因此,目前对外汉语教学的状况面临考验,备受世界瞩目。所以在尽力寻求如何提供高质量的师资之余,对学习者学习过程的需求也应特予关注。

世界人类的语言丰富多采,要让汉语在世界全面推广,需要学者、专家与对外汉语教师们,在研究与教学方面共同努力,并对学习者在学习过程的知识需求具备敏锐的观察力。

过去在学术界英语一直是最常用来与汉语做比较的语言,目前汉语学习热已在全世界兴起,与其他语言做语法或教学方面的比较工作已是当务之急。时体问题在语言界的持续争论与探索是个好现象,因为只有在争论之际,才会尝试着去探究原因,尝试着去寻求正确与客观的答案。另外,有关国别化教材还是普适化教材的专题探讨也是今日学术界与教学界的热烈讨论话题,这都是为了要从而更好的改进和提高学习者在学习上的满意度。在各种研究进行之际,透过研究所得的一些成果对学生提供有针对性的帮助,有效地协助学生成为成功的学习者,是教师们所应具备的使命感;透过研究所得的新发现及新见解,协助对外汉语教学工作迈入新境界,则有赖学者们、教师们与学生们的共同努力与合作。

[1] E.Banfi, A.G.Ramat 2001, Verbo italiano e cinese a confronto e questioni di acquisizione del verbo italiano da parte di silofoni in “Il Verbo Italiano –STUDI diacronici, sincronici, contrattivi, didattici (Atto del XXXV° Congresso Internazionale di Studi”, Roma, Bulzoni pp.461-490

[2] 此问卷调查对象包括 12 位在翁布里亚大区与托斯卡那大区高中任职的意大利语母语教师以及 19 位意大利佩鲁贾外国人大学的对外意大利语教师

[3] 不同中、外语言学家对现代汉语“体”的表达手段,或者说“体标记”的看法略有出入。比如: Banfi & Ramat (2001: 472-473) 认为“是…的”的用法(perfective)也是一种体标记;陈前瑞认为“得”表达结果体(2003 汉语时体系统国际研讨会论文)

[4] 对了 1 (语气助词) 与了 2 (动态助词) 在三套教材内介绍与解说的出现时间相当早的现象: 笔者认为可能是因为作者或编者刻意及早安排“了”的用法解释,以提高其复现率,这样也有利于之后与“过”和其他的语言表达方式之合并使用或比较,不过,这仅是笔者的个人诠释与浅见。

[5] “In cinese i verbi possono essere raddoppiati come in italiano, tuttavia, mentre in italiano il raddoppiamento indica che l'azione espressa dal verbo viene ripetuta più volte, in cinese il raddoppiamento indica che l'azione è compiuta in modo parziale, limitato nel tempo o distrattamente.” Masini, Zhang Tongbing, BaiHua, Anna Di Toro, Ling Donmei 意大利人学汉语 - 基础篇第 10 课 p.103

[6] “…la particella le 了 non ha alcun legame con il concetto di tempo assoluto, che ci obbliga a

scegliere la coniugazione del tempo del verbo italiano.” Masini, Zhang Tongbing, BaiHua, Anna Di Toro, Ling Donmei 意大利人学汉语 - 中级篇第 3 课 p.25

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海峡两岸对外汉语教材词汇数量及等级分布考察

——以《新实用视听华语》与《新实用汉语课本》为例

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摘 要: 词汇是最能体现第二语言教学效果的重要因素。好的教材首先要在词汇输入的定量方面有明确的认识。其次, 还应该词语的定性选择方面具有系统的意识。

本文以台湾和大陆两岸各自制定的“对外汉语词汇大纲”为依据, 选取了两岸较具代表性的两套对外汉语教材《新实用视听华语》和《新实用汉语课本》, 对两套教材的选词数量及分布进行了考察, 发现两套教材的收词总量分别为 3895 词和 3775 词, 基本相同。但在各册的分布上则有所不同, 前者跳跃性较大, 后者则较为平稳, 循序渐进。在具体收录词目上, 只有 1549 词是两套教材共有词。这一方面与教材选文的内容有关, 另一方面则显示出了两岸在用词上的一些差异。

关键词: 两岸, 对外汉语教材, 词汇, 定量, 定性

虽然目前汉语作为第二语言的教学存在着“字本位”教学与“词本位”教学的争议, 但不可否认的是, 绝大部分的汉语教材仍然是以词汇为中心, 这体现了词汇教学的重要性。

词汇是语言的三大要素之一, 是语言的建筑材料, 也是最能体现第二语言教学效果的重要因素。一套好的教材, 首先要在词汇量的输入的定量方面有一个明确的认识。教材的词汇量太少, 学习者学习的词语数量有限, 将会影响学习者使用词语交际的能力; 而如果词汇量太多, 则将提高教材的难度, 使学习者产生畏难情绪, 反而影响教学效果。各个学习阶段的词汇输入数量应该依照学习者的水平和适应能力而决定。除考虑定量之外, 教材还应该词语的定性选择方面具有系统的意识, 而不是简单随意的选取。因此, 在讨论汉语作为第二语言教学的教材时, 我们还要探讨教材词语选取的依据、范围以及数量等方面的问题。这就不得不提到海峡两岸在对外汉语教学中关于词语选择的一些依据。

1. 海峡两岸对外汉语词表的制定与比较

大陆较有代表性的依据主要是国家汉语水平考试委员会办公室中心制定的《汉语水平词汇与汉字等级大纲》(以下简称《等级大纲》),该大纲集合了若干个词汇表的精华得以形成。它最大程度地体现了共时层次出现频率较高的词汇,这些高频常用的词汇便是海外汉语学习者的学习对象。明确了生词选取的依据和范围,接下来要怎么控制生词的数量是一个问题。以往的汉语作为第二语言的教学大多是以经验型教学理念为主的,对教学词汇量多靠主观判断,缺乏科学的标准。《等级大纲》是一个词语量化的结果,它收录的词语共 8822 个,划分为甲、乙、丙、丁四个级别,其中甲级词为 1033 个、乙级词为 2018 个,甲乙两级词语为初级阶段需要掌握的词汇量;丙级词 2202 个,为中级阶段需要掌握的词汇量;丁级词 3569 个,为高级阶段的词汇量标准。各个学习阶段对词汇量的要求各不相同。

台湾对外华语文教学也有很多相关的研究成果。下表是部分台湾学者利用相关语料设计出来的一些词汇分级表(陈俊南,2009):

表 1: 台湾对外华语文词汇分级研究分析比较表

研究学者	叶德明教授	张莉萍教授	张郁雯教授	张莉萍教授
研究年份	1995	2002	2004	2006
研究名称	华语文常用语词汇频率等级统整研究	台湾师大华语文能力测验词汇分级表(简称 TOP 词汇表)	《华语文能力测验编制》——“词汇分级研究”	华语八千词
词汇分级标准与选词来源	1、语料取自当时所有华语教材共 36 万字。 2、使用中研究院词库小组的断词程序,共得 15252 个词。 3、根据词频统计及专家学者的讨论,取出排序在前的 8088 个词,划分成 5 个等级。	1、语料取自华语教材,共选得 10155 个词。 2、依照该词汇来自华语文教材的初、中或高级将词汇分为三级,如果词汇已经出现于初级,又再次出现于中级或高级,则归于初级,其余类推。	1、语料以中研院“词频统计表”为主,“基本词表”为辅。 2、首先依词频分级,再参照中研院“基本词表”,标示出各级词汇的核心词汇和通过词汇。	1、选词来源计有中研院“基本词表”、张莉萍(2002) TOP 词汇表、大陆 HSK 词汇表等。 2、运用相对频率值与加权值方式,计算出每一个词的总值,再依总值由大到小排序,取前 8000 词。 3、该研究之所以取 8000 词汇量,乃采取郑锦全教授(1998)“词涯八千”的概念,从计量的观点来解释人类的语言认知能力。
词汇分级项量	一级词:1471 个 二级词:1633 个 三级词:1664 个 四级词:1088 个 五级词:2232 个 共计:8088 个	初级词:1507 个 中级词:3684 个 高级词:4964 个 共计:10155 个	一级词:2720 个 二级词:1440 个 三级词:2372 个 四级词:4093 个 五级词:7636 个 共计:18261	初级词:1500 个 中级词:3500 个 高级词:3000 个 共计:8000 个

分析与比较	1、本研究为台湾第一个词汇分级研究。 2、语料来源限于华语文教材，词频统计结果也因教材的特殊性而使得罕用字频率偏高而失之客观，如郭子仪、秋瑾等专有名词。 3、较偏重于口语词汇，恐无法满足来台升学侨生阅读与学习所需。 4、词汇量与大陆相当，较具可比性。 5、未考虑大陆词汇分级研究成果。	1、因为语料以华语教材为主，因而偏重口语语料，书面语料所占的比重相对较低。恐无法满足来台升学侨生阅读与学习所需。 2、未能说明决定各级词汇数量的原因。例如，原先初级词汇表约有 1300 个词，但作者预计初级应有 1500 个词，因此补充了 200 个词，却未加说明决定各级词汇数的标准依据。 未将大陆词汇分级研究成果纳入考虑。	1、该研究所收录的词汇数远多于前面的研究。就外籍学生学习极限及华语文能力测验而言，过多词汇，恐有不利影响。 2、采用中研院平衡语料库的词汇，较无偏重口语而轻忽书面语料的问题。 未将大陆词汇分级研究成果纳入考虑。	1、综合考虑两岸主要词汇分级研究，结果较为客观与全面。 2、各级词汇量的制定以华语文学习里程为依归，明确了该词分级的根本精神——服务华语教学，同时作为华语文能力测验的基本参考词汇。 3、呼应了郑锦全教授（1998）“词涯八千”的概念，客观地从计量的观点来解释人类的语言认知能力。 4、词汇量与大陆相当，具可比性。 5、上述各加权值的分配比率是否合理合用，仍有待后续两岸学界广泛讨论制定为宜。
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从上面的表格中对各个数据的分析来看，《华语文能力测验编制》——“词汇分级研究”将词语总量定为 18261 个，这一数量对于母语非汉语学习者来说显然有些偏多。其他三个词表的词汇总量相对来说较为平衡，特别是“华语文常用语词汇频率等级统整研究”和“华语八千词”，与大陆的词汇总量基本一致，都在 8000 词左右。由于大陆的词表是按初级、中级、高级三个阶段来划分，这一划分方式与“华语八千词”的划分有一定的可比性，另外，从时间上来看，“华语八千词”的研究成果也较新，因此我们下面只取“华语八千词”这一词表来对比。大陆的《等级大纲》和台湾的“华语八千词”在词语选取的总量上基本一致，都在 8000 词左右，但在具体的各个学习阶段仍有所不同。具体细分如下表：

表 2 两岸词汇大纲分级词汇量统计

	大陆《等级大纲》	台湾“华语八千词”
初级阶段	甲级词 1033 个 乙级词 2018 个 总计 3051 个	初级词 1500 个
中级阶段	丙级词 2202 个	中级词 3500 个
高级阶段	丁级词 3569 个	高级词 3000 个
总计	8822 个	8000 个

大陆的《等级大纲》规定为：初级分上下两个阶段，第一阶段达到甲级词即 1033 个，第二阶段达到乙级词即 2018 个，因此，整个初级阶段应掌握的词汇量为 3051 个；中级阶段要求掌握丙级词，即 2202 个；高级阶段应掌握丁级词，即 3569 个，整个对外汉语阶段应掌握的词汇

总量为 8822 个。台湾的“华语八千词”中将初级阶段掌握的词汇量定为 1500 个，中级阶段需掌握的词汇量为 3500 词，高级阶段定为 3000 词，总计 8000 词。从这两组数据可以看出，对外汉语教学所需要掌握的词汇量总数方面，两岸的数量基本一致，都是在 8000 词左右。据统计，8000 词左右可以覆盖到现有语料的 95% 以上，因此，对第二语言学习者来说，掌握 8000 词能够满足学习者在听说读写各个方面的需要。两岸在词汇输入的总量上达成了一致。但在初、中、高各个学习阶段上，两岸仍存在一定的差异。大陆方面各个时期的词汇输入量相差不大，初级：中级：高级分别为 3：2：3，初级阶段因为分成了两个阶段，相对于中级阶段的词汇量来说会稍微多一些。而台湾方面各个时期的输入量分布则显示为 1.5：3.5：3，初级阶段的词语输入量较少，中级阶段明显增加，是初级阶段的两倍以上，高级阶段为 3000 词，高级阶段这一数据与大陆基本相同。也有其他台湾学者对这一问题有不同看法，台湾学者何淑贞（2008）认为：“华语教学界一致认为以华语为第二语言的学习者，大约学会两千五百个常用词，就能应付基本生活会话。”“把常用词列为我们教学的重点，学生很快就能掌握三千个词语，阅读一般语料，应付日常会话的需要就不成问题。”由这两段引文，我们可以发现，台湾对外华语文教学一般也是把 3000 词左右作为一个界标，虽然没有明确说明这一界标是初级和中级的分界线，但这种“基本生活会话”和“日常会话”等可以反映出这一阶段仍处于初级阶段。

2.《新实用视听华语》选词分析

根据台湾师范大学应用华语文学系主任蔡雅薰（2009）女士对台湾教授华语文的院校系所使用教材所做的统计，《新实用视听华语》是目前台湾使用范围最广、使用率最高的一部对外华语文教材，这套教材由台湾师范大学主编，正中书局出版。1999 年第一版《实用视听华语》出版发行，共分 1、2、3 册，发行以后一直深受好评，2008 年经修订后再版，更名为《新实用视听华语》（以下简称《华语》），将原第 1 册改为 1、2 两册，原第 2 册改为 3、4 两册，原第 3 册保持一册，改为第 5 册，现在全书共五册七十三课。

现在我们来考察和分析《华语》这套教材中的收词情况，讨论其中的收词量及收词特点。

表 3 《华语》选词情况考察

课本	收词总数	所占比例
第一册	452	11.6%
第二册	470	12.0%
第三册	1077	27.7%
第四册	1137	29.2%
第五册	759	19.5%

全五册	3895	100%
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从每册教材收词情况来看,第一册和第二册收词量大体相当,分别为 452 词和 470 词,第三册和第四册收词量也大致平衡,分别为 1077 词和 1137 词,而且四册教材收词量呈现上升趋势,但《华语》从第二册到第三册的跳跃跨度太大,从 470 词到 1077 词,猛然增加近三倍的新词语,不利于学生平衡过渡。第五册收词量只有 759 个,比第三册和第四册都少很多,这有可能与第五册的用字总量少有一定的关系。全五册教材相加(计不同教材中重复出现的词语)总计 3895 个词。

前面我们在讨论台湾“华语八千词”时知道,台湾的初级阶段选词在 1500 左右,而中级阶段选词则为 3500 词左右。对比《华语》的收词情况,我们可以发现,这套教材的收词与台湾的等级划分无法具有直接联系。一至四册为初级阶段,四级教材共收词 3136 个,远远大于“华语八千词”初级阶段的 1500 词,五册为中级阶段,只收词 759 个,与“华语八千词”中级阶段的 3500 词更是相差甚远。

但是,如果按照台湾其他学者的看法以及大陆的《等级大纲》的标准,这套教材的词汇分布就可以找到一定的依据。《等级大纲》将词汇分为四个界标,分别为 1033 词、3051 词、5253 词和 8822 词。1033 词为初级第一阶段的词汇量,《华语》一二册即为初级第一阶段,一二册共收词 922 个,这一数量与甲级词 1033 基本相当。《华语》一至四册为初级阶段,共收词 3136 个,《等级大纲》规定初级阶段应该掌握的词汇量为 3051 词,二者在初级阶段的词汇量上有一定的相似性。只是到中级阶段,《华语》第五册只收词 759 个,与《等级大纲》要求的中级阶段的 2202 词有一定差距。可见,按照台湾其他学者的看法以及大陆的《等级大纲》,《华语》教材在一至四册的收词量都是比较科学和合理的,中级阶段的词汇量有待增加。

3.《新实用视听华语》与《新实用汉语课本》选词情况对比

《新实用汉语课本》(以下简称《汉语》)是大陆出版的较有代表性的一套对外汉语教材,该教材由刘珣主编、北京语言大学出版社出版。它是在继承原《实用汉语课本》的基础上,结合新的教学理念、教学形式而重新修订的。之所以选取《汉语》这套教材,主要是由于它与《华语》有一定程度的相似性。首先,两套教材都是发行时间较长,使用面较广对外汉语教材,并且都在广泛征求了使用者的基础上进行了重新修订,因而都是“新版”的,是经过了时间和实践的检验,具有一定的权威性,受到使用者的肯定的教材。其次,从两套教材的体例来看,也基本一致。《华语》一共五册,一二册体例相同,以简单对话为主,共计二十六课;三四册体例相同,主要以话题为主,共计二十四课;这一到四册是属于对外华语文的初级阶段。第五册则主要是以文章的形式,或记叙、或议论、或说明,侧重于文化方面的传播,共计二十课。《汉

语》一共六册，同《华语》一样，前四册为初级阶段，一二册为日常简单对话，共计二十课。三四册为以话题为主的讨论式会话，以及一部分与话题相关的叙述形式，共计二十四课。前四册同样属于对外汉语的初级阶段。所不同的是，中级阶段分成了两册，第五册和第六册，但课文总数一样，也是二十课，内容也主要以文化传播为主。因而这样看来，两套教材在编写的体例上有很大的相似之处。

首先，我们从两套教材每一册的收词量及全套教材的收词总量上来看二者的差别。

表4 《华语》与《汉语》收词情况对比

	《华语》	《汉语》
第一册	452	327
第二册	470	419
第三册	1077	524
第四册	1137	608
第五册	759	803
第六册		1094
收词总量	3895	3775

从上表可以看出，《华语》第一册收词452个，《汉语》第一册只有327个，比《华语》少125个词；两套教材在第二册的收词数量上相差不多，《华语》比《汉语》多51个词。因为一二册是学生学习的最初阶段，学生需要过语音关、汉字关，需要一定时间的过渡和适应，因而这两册的收词数量都不会太多，在这一点上，两套教材的差别不算太大。但从第三册开始，两套教材的收词量有了明显的差别，《华语》第三册收词达到了1077个，而《汉语》第三册只有524个，《华语》差不多是《汉语》的两倍；第四册同样是这种情况，《华语》第四册有1137词，而《汉语》只有608，《华语》的收词量仍将近《汉语》的两倍。第五册《华语》759词和《汉语》803词在数量上相差不大。因为《华语》只有五册，第五册为中级阶段的教材，而《汉语》一共六册，第五册和第六册均为中级阶段的教材，因而《汉语》中级阶段的收词量1897词远远多于《华语》中级阶段的收词量759词。从两套教材的收词总量来看，《华语》总计收词3895词，《汉语》总计收词3775词，二者在收词总量上基本相同。

从两套教材每册的收词情况来看，《汉语》的收词呈非常平稳的循序渐进性，从零起点开始，先是收录较少的词汇量，慢慢增加，从327<419<524<608<803<1094，这种由少到多逐渐增加的过程，有利于学生不断地巩固旧新语，学习新词语。在这一点上，《华语》的收词显然有些不足，第一册452词到第二册470词收词量基本相同，没有体现出第一册作为零起点阶段的特点，并且从第二册的470词直接跳到第三册的1077词，这两册收词量的差别太大，呈现出一种断层，如果学生的适应能力不强，很容易会被两册教材之间产生的巨大落差吓到，容易

出现畏难的情绪。另外,《汉语》从初级到中级,词汇量始终呈上升趋势,一直到第六册,才出现收词过千的情况。而《华语》在第三册和第四册就已经出现了收词过千的情况,到中级阶段的第五册,收词量反而有所下降,只有 759 词,比第三册还少了三百多个词,这不符合中级阶段学生的学习情况。

虽然两册教材的收词总量上基本相同,《华语》3895 词,《汉语》3775 词,但在具体的词目上二者还是有很大差异。我们经过数据库的匹配查询,发现共有 1549 个词在两套教材中均有收录,这是两套教材的共有词。也就是说,除了这些词之外,《华语》中有 2346 个词是《汉语》中没有收录的,而《汉语》中也有 2226 个词是《华语》中不曾出现的。同为汉语作为第二语言教学用的教材,在近四千个汉语词汇中,共有词只占到 40% 左右,不能不说这种差异还是相当大的。当然,这种差异中有多方面的因素。一是选材方面的原因。从课文的选材来看,《华语》选取的基本都是与现代社会密切相关的文章,所使用的词也都是现代白话词;《汉语》在前四册基本也都是现代用词,但到了第五册和第六册,由于进入了中级阶段,所以选取了一些上世纪名家的作品,如鲁迅的《孔乙己》,老舍的《我的母亲》,朱自清的《背影》、钱钟书的《窗》等,这些文章中都或多或少地夹杂着一些文言用语,如“君子固穷、多乎哉、攀跻、粉板、芳冽、荐头、如是、服辩、进学、云(说)、尔尔、”这些用法在现当代口语中并不多见,有些词语作为旧词已经从词汇系统中消失了,只是因为它们存在于名家作品中而一直保留下来。这部分词是《汉语》课本中独有的,《华语》教材没有选取这些文章,因而也就不会出现这些文言词语。第二个原因是两岸用词方面的差异。虽然两岸中国人同文同种,但由于长期以来的一水之隔,一部分词语发生了变异,主要分以下两种情况:一种是两岸词语相同,但用字不同,如大陆的“荧幕”、“计划”、“倒霉”、“账单”、“糊涂”、“意大利”,台湾分别写作“萤幕”、“计画”、“倒楣”、“帐单”、“胡涂”、“义大利”。二是词语本身的差异,一些相同概念的事物,两岸使用的词语不同,如大陆的“录像”、“录像机”、“网络”、“邮递员”、“卧室”、“车库”、“公共汽车站”、“公共汽车”,台湾分别称为“录影”、“录影机”、“网路”、“邮差”、“卧房”、“车房”、“公车站”、“公车”。这种用字和用词上的差异,也导致了两套教材在共有词上的巨大落差。如果说第一种情况是由于选文内容所导致的,可以通过文章的重新选取加以调整,那么第二种情况,就只能通过台湾和大陆在用字用词方面的协调统一才能加以避免的。

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An Exploration on Translation Textbook System for Undergraduate Translation Major in Mainland China

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Abstract

As an emerging undergraduate major in mainland China, English-Chinese translation has been emphasizing the establishment of its textbook system. Based on an online survey and her teaching practice, the author analyses the existing English-Chinese translation textbooks and points out some drawbacks of the textbook system, such as the lack of system between chapters within one book and books for different levels, overlapping structures and the improper proportion of theory and practice. In light of the teaching objectives of undergraduate translation major and the actual requirements of translators' job market, the author proposes some suggestions on the improvement of the system of English-Chinese textbooks. Compilers need to construct a complete system of textbooks for four years' teaching and position each individual textbook in the system. The themes of exercises in the textbooks should be decided together with the translator employers and reflect the local market needs. The teachers should also have a good teamwork in the process of teaching when selecting textbooks for different grades. Textbooks should both highlight the training of basic translation skills and reflect upon the translation theories in a balanced proportion.

Key words: translation major, textbook systems, teaching objectives, market requirements

With the development of translation as a new undergraduate major in mainland China, govern-

ments, scholars, teachers and publishers have tried together to work out an applicable teaching and employment model for the translation graduates. The reform in the textbooks is one of the examples of these endeavors. Since translation has established its status as an independent undergraduate major in 2006 in mainland China, more and more translation textbooks have been published and some publishers have launched a series of textbooks. On one hand, so many textbooks available for the teachers and students have laid a solid foundation for the classroom teaching for translation major, on the other hand, it is still very difficult to find a suitable one among them for teaching and teachers still need to prepare materials of their own before each class. What problems there exist in these translation textbooks and how to improve the compilation and selection of them have become big headaches of the teachers and students, which need to be diagnosed and cured.

1. Current Situation of English-Chinese Translation Textbooks

From a survey of the current translation textbook market, it can be found that the textbook market is booming with hundreds of translation textbooks. The flourishing of translation textbooks shows the importance of translation teaching for undergraduates as well as the efforts made in textbook compiling and publishing. Compared with the state-controlled textbook compilation and selection system in the 1980s and 1990s, the freedom and ability to compile and select textbooks according to individual authors, teachers and universities are a big improvement in undergraduate translation teaching. It shows the fast development of translation as an emerging major and the increasing demand of textbooks of the university teachers and students. From the contents of each book, it is also easily seen that the compilers have taken more modernized and diversified themes of translation in the skill training part and exercise part, moving from the dominance of literary texts to non-literary genres. What's more, in the traditional textbooks, only translation skills were taught together with exercises, but in the new books published after 2006, many of the textbooks have incorporated translation theories from translation studies into the contents. However, authors haven't reached an agreement yet on what theory should be presented and what proportion the theory and exercise should be in the book. If we have a second thought of the long list of translation textbooks available, some other severe problems can also be detected.

1.1. Lack of structure and consistency in textbooks between different grades

In the past when translation was just a secondary subject under the major of Foreign Languages

and Applied Linguistics, one textbook could dominate the classroom teaching for many years, such as Zhang Peiji's *English-Chinese Translation Coursebook*, first published in 1980, which has been revised for several times later, has been widely used in the universities all over mainland China for over thirty years. However, in this new era, due to students' varied English and translation levels, only one single textbook definitely cannot meet the diversified requirements in the new situation. It is no surprise to see this monopoly being broken with more and more new textbooks springing up in the market. The booming of textbook market poses new problems for the textbook compilers and translation teachers and students. There is a lack of system between these new books and they are still deeply influenced by the old textbooks without much innovation in the structure and contents. What's worse, when these books come into the classroom teaching, teachers have no clear and coherent criteria on what books to choose and use. In the English-Chinese translation classes, it is not rare for teachers to use the handouts they compile themselves randomly rather than use a unified or published textbook. Through an observation of translation classroom teaching and learning in my own university and discussion with other colleagues, I find that students cannot be highly involved in the class activities and the teachers' questions. From the choice of the textbooks in many translation classes, it can be sensed that one main factor to this is the lack of system and consistency in compiling and selecting textbooks, which has put translation teaching into a chaotic and aimless situation.

1.2. Overlapping structures

Through a brief survey of the textbooks available in market, we can find that some textbooks have exactly the same title or very similar titles, which are very confusing to the potential users, such as Zhang Peiji's *English-Chinese Translation Course book (Revision)*, 2009, Yang Shizhao's *English-Chinese Translation Course book (2nd Edition)*, 2011 and Chen Hongwei's *New Chinese-English Translation Course book (Revised)*, 2010. This is not only a waste of time, money and energy of the compilers and publishers but also will cause difficulties for the teachers and students in selecting the most appropriate ones. Such discussion about which textbook is better among the same kind thrives in Baidu, a most popular and biggest Chinese search engine worldwide. What's worse, even the title and sequence of the chapters and the structure of each chapter are also very similar in some of the books.

1.3. Lack of system between chapters

Generally, each book will start with a chapter of a brief introduction to translation from various aspects. The compilation will generally follow two models, one is to compile the succeeding chapters

with the titles of various translation skills and the other is to arrange the chapters according to different translation themes. For the books of the former model, because of the fact that more than one skill is needed or can be adopted when translating a specific text or even one sentence, the skill taught in one chapter undoubtedly can't meet the requirements of teaching and teachers will need to make a combination of the skills in different chapters in teaching one chapter. As to the latter model, the themes are relatively independent of each other and we have no reason to say that trade materials should have priority over political texts as translation resources. Likewise, there is no evidence to show that translation exercises of scientific and technical materials should go before translation of journalism texts. Due to the time limit of each class and each semester as a whole, only some chapters will be taught and others will be discarded. Thus, teachers and students will lose their way in deciding the priority and focus in teaching and learning each chapter. Most of the time, there is no obvious clue which to keep and which to take away in classroom teaching and learning. Again the lack of system between chapters has impeded the smooth progression of classroom teaching.

1.4. Improper proportion of theory and exercises

Another problem worth mentioning here is that most textbooks still focus on the linguistic conversion training at the levels of words, phrases and sentences. They emphasize only one standard of translation, which is faithfulness. There is a lack of comparative and contrastive analysis of the source language and culture with the target language and culture in the exercises. For many applied translation textbooks, there is not sufficient explanation of translation theory and there is no appropriate linkage of the theory and the exercises, even if there are theoretical parts in the book.

With the development of translation studies in the recent decades, the importance of translation theory has received more and more attention in translation textbooks and classroom teaching for the undergraduate translation majors. How to properly combine the theory and skill training together in one textbook has become a new difficult point in the compilation and selection of textbooks for English-Chinese translation teaching.

2. Factors influencing the compilation and selection of textbooks

To construct a system for the textbooks, we have to decide what contents should be included in the book and what should be excluded and in what sequence these contents should be presented. The foremost important criteria compilers and teachers should bear in mind before compiling, choosing

and using the textbooks should be teaching objectives of undergraduate translation major and the future employment requirements in the current market economy regime.

2.1. Teaching Objectives of Undergraduate Translation Majors

There has long been a debate over the nature of undergraduate translation teaching. Some argue that it should be an academic teaching, while others advocate a vocational training for the students. In early 2009, National Joint Conference of Deans and Heads of Schools of Translation has described the training objectives of undergraduate translation major as follows, “The undergraduate translation and interpretation major aims to train talents with virtue and talent and professional translators and interpreters with wide general knowledge and international vision. The graduates should master the working languages skillfully, have a strong logical thinking ability, high quality of cross-cultural communication and good ethics in working. They should know about the domestic and overseas social cultures, the basic translation theories and master the translation and interpretation skills as well as utilize translation tools, know the industry procedure and can think, work and communicate independently. They should be competent in translation and interpretation work in foreign affairs, business and trade, education, culture, science and technology and military areas and other cross-cultural communication work.” (Zheng, 2011) We can sense from this description that the ultimate training objective for translation major is to train the students to be professional and qualified translators. The areas of translation and importance of translation theory, skills, translation tools and industry procedures and ethics have all been emphasized. These elements should all be integrated systematically into the textbooks to achieve the ultimate training objective.

2.2. Social and Job Market Needs Analysis for Translation Graduates

Dorothy Kelly claims that one of the most important factors defining learning outcomes/objectives is “beyond doubt the socio-cultural and institutional context in which courses are to be offered” (Kelly, 2005, p22). In China, higher education has developed through the stage of elite education to the stage of mass education. That means higher education will also train more and more professional vocational talents besides elites. Translators and interpreters training should also follow this trend, which should be reflected in the compilation of textbooks. In the 1980s, in the most widely used textbook like Zhang Peiji’s *English-Chinese Translation Course book*, most of the cases and exercises are about politics, diplomatic or military policy and the political leaders’ life. In those days, there were no undergraduates majoring in translation, only in English language and literature. Most graduates of

English those days would work in foreign-related organizations or as language teachers. However, due to the increasing number of university graduates, most of the present translation graduates will have no chance to work for the governmental department of foreign affairs or English publishing houses or English newspaper agencies as in the past. In this sense, the contents in the traditional textbooks will misguide the students in their future career. They may be good at the knowledge and translation of political or diplomatic or literary texts, but they will never have the chance to practice and realize what they've learnt.

A survey was conducted on the employment of the 30 translation undergraduates in Jiangsu Normal University in 2013. From Pie Chart 1, we can find the fact that 67% of translation undergraduates work for various companies, 13% work as English teachers in primary and middle schools while another 13% choose to have further study. Interestingly, a large percentage of those would-be postgraduates have chosen law, literature and some other majors rather than continue to study translation, which is really worth further analyzing. To provide better guidance to compilation and selection of translation textbooks, a further survey was carried out at School of Foreign Studies, Jiangsu Normal University, the result of which can be seen in Chart 2. It shows that the scope of business those graduates work in has a close relationship with daily life, such as electronics, computers, banks, estate management, hotels and foreign trade. The statistic is a sample of one university and might have local characteristics. Other universities are encouraged to conduct similar surveys to get a list of scope of business that are more popular and needed by graduates in the job market and integrate the teaching of these themes in their textbooks and classroom teaching rather than choose the same or similar textbooks launched by specific publishers without considering the requirements of local job market.

3. Suggestions

3.1. Collaborate with translator employers in compiling translation themes

As discussed in 2.2, translation textbooks should not be compiled on the basis of individual preference and ideology, it must be oriented by the market and social need. A survey of the translation market is a must before one sets to write and choose a textbook. Don Kiraly (2000) says "I depicted translation in terms of a double bind: as an internal, cognitive process and as an external, social phenomenon." (p1) "As knowledge is intersubjectively constructed, learning must be socially situated." (p4) In this sense, collaboration with the employers of professional translators in compiling the

textbooks appears to be very important. On one hand, the source material will be more genuine, on the other hand, the reference for the exercises will be more acceptable and idiomatic. Compared with other traditional majors of Humanities, such as philosophy, literature and history, translation is more practical than theoretical. That is probably why some theorists take translation as an empirical discipline. Compilers should not simply pick the sentences or passages from some newspapers or literature books as examples or exercises in general, instead, they should have a close contact with potential translator employers, getting first-hand materials in economy, law, education, cultural exchange and so on. The local materials are more important in arousing the students' sense of usefulness and involvement in the local affairs. If there is seldom foreign president or prime minister or other ministers coming to the city, the compilers still pick a lot of their speeches and event reports in the textbooks, students will feel they are kept out of the affairs they should have involved in, which will cause frustration in their practice. Gradually, they will lose their interest in the book and in the subject as a whole.

3.2. Teamwork among teachers in the process of translation teaching

Even with a good textbook or series of textbooks, it will still be difficult to achieve effective teaching if teachers don't know how to choose textbooks for each grade. Every teacher has his/her own preference and criteria for textbooks. Due to the lack of system in the existing textbooks, students may suffer from the incoherence of textbooks selected by different teachers for different grades. Firstly, different teachers may set different requirements and levels of difficulty for students. Secondly, teachers often use their own handouts in class. Without teamwork, teachers won't be able to know if the materials they prepared are overlapping with those of another teacher who has taught or will teach the same students in different grades. Due to the lack of systematic theoretical and practical guidance in the textbooks available, teachers will choose the chapters and exercises randomly from different sources, which will discourage the students to achieve a clear learning objective. They may think that translation study should be unsystematic. As Dorothy Kelly (2005) commented "At this point, suffice it to say that trainers must have explicit and clear criteria for selecting and designing class activities and material, including texts for translation, and that these can normally be derived, in an aligned curricular design, from the intended learning outcomes for the unit or module in question." (p85) Teachers who will teach the same class different courses during different semesters should have frequent exchanges with each other and follow the same set of criteria in selecting translation textbooks and exercise materials so as to prompt the establishment of textbook system for the four years' teaching and learning.

3.3. Integrate translation theory into translation textbooks rationally

Talking of the function of theory in translation training and teaching, people often challenge that they are too abstract and not applicable to translation practice and therefore, no need to emphasize it in class. Some may argue that translation theory is of particular use in an academic context, helping the students to fulfill the academic requirements in their further MA study. Daniel Gile (1995) also discussed the potential benefits of theoretical components in interpreter and translator training. He seeks the positive effect of theoretical components in training program in its “explanatory power” . (p13) The greatest contribution of any theory is helping students to gain a better understanding of translation with regard to phenomena, translation difficulties and translation strategies recommended by instructors. (p13)

Gile (1995) has also proposed some criteria for the theoretical component, which can shed some light on the compiling of textbooks. The choice of theory should be step by step and vary with the learning stage. In the early stage, “simple, pragmatic theoretical components can be taught during the first semester of training without further elaboration, as an introduction to practical strategies on one hand, and to a theoretical approach of interpretation and translation on the other, to be followed, if the syllabus calls for a more extensive theoretical view, by more theoretical, more abstract, wider components, which would benefit from the conceptual framework acquired during the initial stage.” (p15) It is also worth mentioning that Gile has focused on the pedagogical aims rather than the further research purpose of teaching theories to students in class. Therefore, the theories taught should be “directly relevant to the students’ needs” , to give useful solutions to the questions and problems students encountered in translation study. The choice of theories in textbooks should follow the principle of simplification to help the students understand certain phenomena and take proper action in practice. These criteria and rules suggested by Gile are inspiring for the textbook compilers and translation teachers in deciding the proportion of theory and exercises in the books and classroom teaching on one hand, on the other, they can also serve as a guideline on what theories to choose and what should be abandoned and left in the postgraduate stage.

3.4. Construct a complete system of textbooks for four-year’s teaching and learning

Compilers should have a close collaboration with each other to avoid overlapping efforts. The new compilers should have a comprehensive research of the existing textbooks so as not to duplicate books of similar structures and contents. The compilers of the textbooks should first of all have a

system in mind when writing a chapter, a book and a series of books. It is stated in the Teaching Requirements of Undergraduate Translation Major drafted by Guangdong University of Foreign Studies that undergraduate translation study lasts for 4 years, the total class hours is 2800 to 3000 class hours, and students should get 155-170 credits, among which, the class hour for translation major courses should be over 1800 class hours and their credits should not be lower than 100 credits. (Zhong, 2011) According to the years of study, the credits students are required to get and the courses they need to attend, chapters within one book and books for each course and different grades should be interconnected systematically. In order to do this, in the preface of the book, the compilers should state the usage of the book and the status of specific chapter and book in the system. Therefore, a book is better to be compiled in a series and compilers should work in teams to avoid duplication and disorderly and unsystematic individual efforts. The problem has aroused the attention of some scholars and publishers. They realized that a series of textbooks instead of a single one are needed in translation teaching. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press has launched a series of undergraduate translation textbooks, with 40 different kinds. The publisher has paid great attention to the importance of systems in textbook compilation. It can be set as a good example for the later compilers and publishers to follow.

This paper has tentatively worked out a system for translation textbooks as follows. Since there should be a series of textbooks, the role and status of individual chapter and book should be positioned clearly for teachers and students. By doing so, teachers and students can improve the efficiency in teaching and learning translation in and out of the classroom by using the books systematically according to both the compilers' original system and each university's own priority in teaching planning.

4. Conclusion

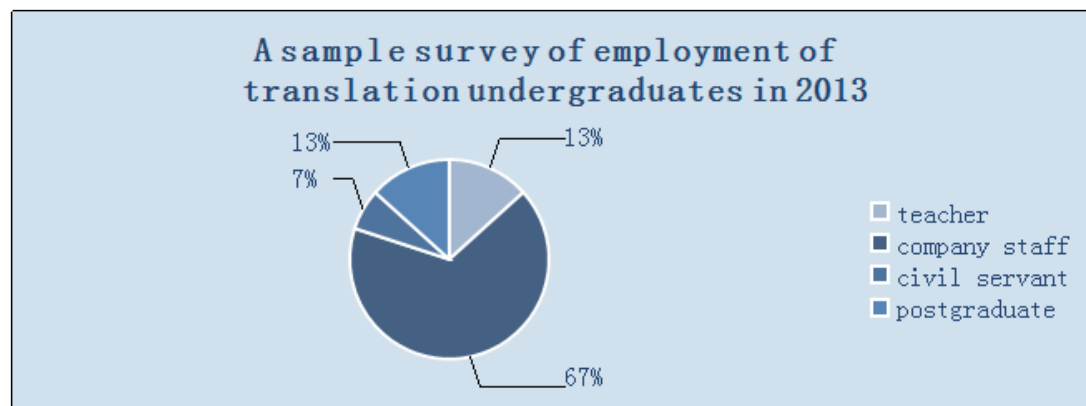
The quality of textbooks will directly influence the teaching effects and the achievement of teaching objectives. In compiling and using the textbooks, compilers and teachers should balance the relationship between translation skill training and general knowledge acquisition, academic requirements and employment needs as well as theoretical explanation and translation exercise and practice. The proportions and focus of those components should be dynamic and change with the social and institutional context rather than follow one set of rules without taking the learning stage and students' real needs into consideration. The establishment of the textbook system for the undergraduate translation major will play a significant role in stimulating and maintaining students' learning motivation, promoting the development of the major and cultivating professional translators who can combine

theory with practice perfectly.

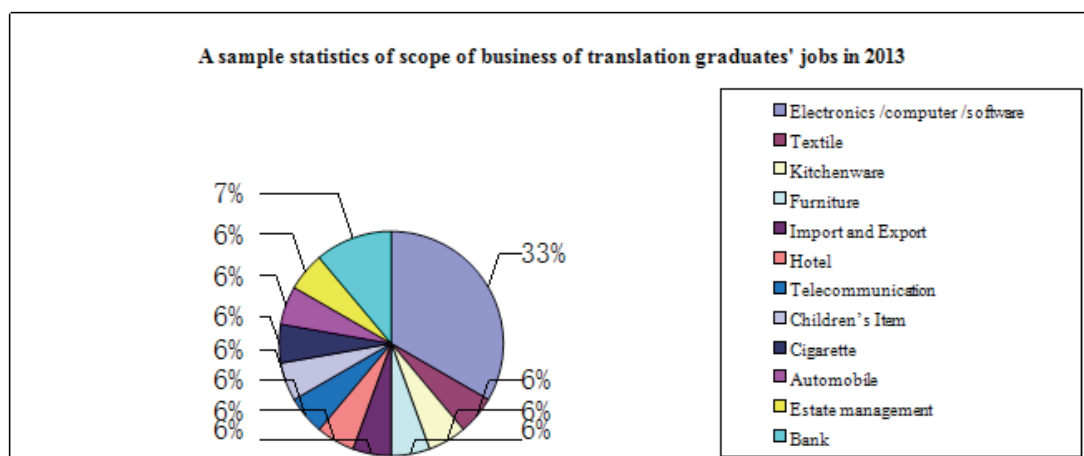
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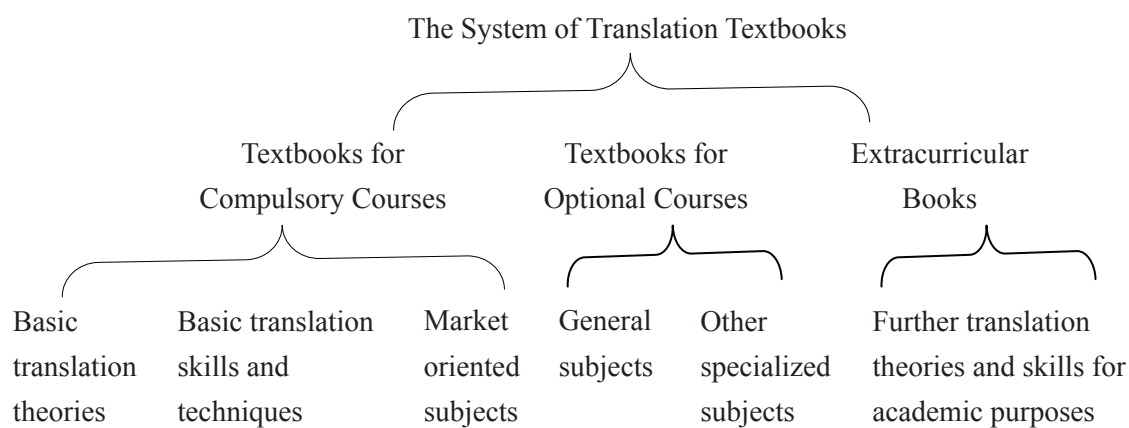
Pie Chart 1: A sample survey of employment of translation undergraduates in 2013



Pie Chart 2: A sample statistic of scope of business of translation graduates' jobs in 2013



Graph: A Tentative Proposal on the System of Translation Textbooks



|第四部分| Part IV

中国文化课的教学策略

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摘 要：众所周知，语言与文化密不可分，掌握一门语言不能不了解其背后的文化。随着对外汉语教育的深入发展，中国文化课程的开设也被日益提上议事日程。世界上有一些高校已经在探索实践，有的还取得了一些成效。本文在笔者亲身教学的基础上，提出了上好中国文化课程的四大策略：一是借壳上课，一叶知秋；二是文化比较，求同存异；三是构建联系，融会贯通；四是课堂课下，言传身教。希望借此抛砖引玉，共同探讨文化课程的教学策略及技巧，从而推动汉语教育进一步向深度发展。

关键词：中国 文化 课程 教学 策略

语言是了解文化的桥梁，文化是掌握语言的土壤，语言与文化两者密不可分。德国语言学家洪堡特（Wilhelm Von Humboldt）认为：“民族的语言即民族的精神，民族的精神即民族的语言” [1]，指出了民族语言和民族意识的相互渗透性和亲密关系。中国语言学家吕必松也指出：“从语言学习和语言教学的角度研究语言，就必须研究语言与文化的关系，因为语言理解和语言使用都不离开一定的文化因素。” [2] 语言与文化不可分割，单纯学习语言而不学文化，则很难真正掌握语言。美国语言学家沃尔福森（N. Wolfson）说：“礼貌错误比语法错误更难令人宽容。” [3] 只有在了解文化背景的前提下，人们才能准确使用语言，交流才能通畅顺利。因此，在学习汉语的同时，必须学习中国文化，学生这样才能提高汉语交际能力，才能增强交流深度，享受语言带来的更多喜悦。

课堂教学是传授知识的主要途径。想要系统地科学地了解中国文化,文化课程的开设势在必行。对于很多国家的汉语教学发展程度而言,中国文化课程还处在初级阶段,因此探讨如何上好中国文化课就显得颇为重要。下面笔者就结合自身的教学经历,谈谈在上中国文化课程的相关心得。

1. 借壳上课,一叶知秋

中国文化上下五千年,源远流长,博大精深。乍一看,不知如何入手。其实,任何再高深的文化都有其物质外壳,都有其外在形式。讲解中国文化,好比展开一幅水墨画。画面的呈现离不开卷轴飘带四大要素,只有在卷轴的基础上,我们才能进一步发现画面的内容构成和水墨分布,把玩其中的意境之美。中国文化的传达也离不开外在表征,只有通过具体的生动的文化形式或者文化现象,我们才能探知文化的多维时空,品味其中的人文奥妙。

时下,“嘴巴+板书”的上课模式早已是过去时,而文化课的教学内容丰富多彩,它比一般语言课程更需要直观的、多感官的现代教学方式。一些上了年纪的教师习惯用传统方式教学,依然采用旧模式,表达乏力,课堂显得枯燥无味。一些亚非拉国家还由于条件有限,运用现代教学方式存在一些困难,不得不走传统之路。随着中外方对汉语教学力度的不断提升,采用多媒体教学其实并非难事。就个人而言,笔者在孟加拉国达卡大学上中国文化课,实现了多媒体教学,刷新了中文系的记录。孟加拉国是世界上最不发达的国家之一,经济社会发展落后,即使最高学府达卡大学也尚处于传统教学的阶段。英语虽然是孟的官方语言,但学生的英语水平参差不齐,对于低年级的学生更需要实物、图片等辅助工具,使他们易于接受。鉴于此,启用中国大使馆赠送的投影仪,自行安装,自备电脑,上课时间就选在电力比较稳定的时间段,一改白底黑字的单一画面。有了多媒体教学的硬件支撑,需要教师制作精美的课件,内容的讲解还得结合时空条件,这是文化课的重点。比如讲解“春节习俗”的时候,我把本次课安排在离春节最近的一次课上,为的是利用当地难得的一点春节气氛。因为春节前后,一些有关机构会在孟举行新春庆祝活动,达卡大学中文系也有相应的项目活动。在课堂上,利用PPT展示了相应的春节文化图片,比较系统地用中英双语讲解了春节文化。另外,准备了一些实物红包,红包里装着从国内银行兑换的崭新的人民币纸币——壹元。当讲完“压岁钱”知识点后,大家一起演练拜年发红包的习俗。钱虽然不多,但学生拿到红包也十分高兴,无需多言很快就记住了蕴含其中的“尊老爱幼”、“重视教育”等价值观念。在之后的大年初一,有些调皮的学生,还会拱手作揖拜年,口中念念有词:“恭喜发财,红包拿来……。”

再比如讲解“尊师重教”的传统时,只用PPT描述难免力道不足,我还运用国内中小学课堂的“上下课仪式”来实战演练一番,增加了不少情趣。孟国学生对中国本土课堂比较陌生,充满好奇,难以想象到“上课、起立、老师好……”活生生的画面。于是每节课开始时,我都

会采用传统的上课礼仪，一则让学生迅速进入上课气氛，二则在口语互动中，潜移默化地把尊师重教的理念融入进去。正是借助这些点点滴滴，逐步让学生感知中国文化。

2. 文化比较，求同存异

不同的国家，具有不同的文化。文化教学中采用比较法，找出它们的异同之处，是了解另一种文化的有效途径。例如，在讲解生肖文化的时候，要注意比较动物在不同国家中的褒贬色彩。十二生肖来自古人的图腾崇拜，都是神圣美好之物。但有些动物在西方文化中有着截然相反之义，比如说龙，它是一种巨大的蜥蜴，长着翅膀，身上有鳞，拖着一条长长的蛇尾，能够从嘴中喷火。《圣经》中把龙看作罪恶的象征，与上帝作对的恶魔撒旦被称为“the great dragon” [4]。口语中如果用来指人（如 His wife is a dragon），则是指此人很凶狠、令人讨厌。而中国文化自古崇尚龙，称自己是龙的传人。孟加拉文化属于南亚系统，对龙没有特别概念，喜厌不一。那么讲授的时候，首先要确切翻译“龙”，可译成“Chinese dragon”，用来区别于西方的“dragon”。结合龙为中国皇帝御用词语的典故，把代表吉祥的中国龙与代表邪恶的西方龙区分清楚。运用中国“龙生九子，各有其能”的故事和百姓喜欢在龙年生子的习俗，让那些属龙的学生喜欢自己是“龙子龙女”，尤其是对小女孩，可以称其为“小龙女”，告诉她在中国电视剧里小龙女是一位绝世的文武双全的美女，让她引以自豪。

蛇在东方通常被视为阴险、冷酷的象征；在西方文化中，它引诱西方人的老祖宗夏娃和亚当偷吃禁果，亦为不良之物。那该如何讲解，走向积极的一面呢？不妨如此解释：蛇是一种长寿动物，在中国常用“蛇龟”来比喻长寿，也被人们视为小龙；有些蛇还可入药，医治百姓疾病，对人类也是有益的。另外，可借助《新白娘子传奇》的短片，用白素贞救苦救难的菩萨心肠和外在美好形象，改造学生对蛇的刻板印象。通过文化比较，确切翻译，引导学生对生肖文化怀有积极情感，至少做到不排斥。

像达卡大学初设中国文化课，上课之时若能穿插相同之处，在两个国家之间寻找某种渊源或者缘分，必能拉近与孟加拉学生之间的情感距离。因为孟加拉大学生普遍比较感性、直接。比如讲解中国历史之时，学生喜欢听中孟之间的交流史，尤其是古代的往来。孟加拉作为南亚次大陆的一部分，中国与孟加拉之间的交流史可追溯到秦汉时期。当学生听到中孟之间的友好往来有着两千多年的历史时，不少同学咧开了一排白牙，露出惊讶喜悦的眼神。中孟关系源自南方丝绸之路，那时中国的麻布、丝绸等传入孟加拉地区，而孟加拉的贝壳、珍珠传入我国西南地区。再到后来东晋高僧法显途经孟加拉、唐朝玄奘访问孟加拉佛寺、明朝郑和亲自访问孟加拉吉大港等，越来越多的中国人造访孟加拉。来而不往非礼也，学生特别希望有孟加拉人到访过中国，传播他们的文化。于是我浓墨重彩地描述了孟加拉首位访华的人文使者——阿底峡尊者（Atisa Dipankar），介绍了他的丰功伟绩，让学生感受到民族自豪感。北宋中叶，晚年的

阿底峡不辞劳苦，翻山越岭入藏宣传佛法，翻译经文，传法弟子，成为藏传佛教噶当派的鼻祖，翻开了中国佛教史新的篇章。除了弘法之外，他还兴修水利，传播医学，造福当地百姓。结果，全班学生静静地听着，脸上洋溢着高兴的表情，尤其是信仰佛教的少数民族学生，更是感到惊喜和满足。

再比如讲解“茶文化”时，中孟两国人都喜欢喝茶，喜欢边喝茶边聊天，孟语的“茶”的发音也跟汉语的相似，但喝法却有所不同。首先，中国人一般在家里或者单位坐着喝茶或品茶，而孟加拉人则盛行在沿街茶铺站着喝茶。其次，中国人喝茶讲究原汁原味，不添加其它东西，而孟加拉人则往往在茶里添加牛奶、生姜、柠檬等，同时还要吃点油炸饺子等点心。第三，中国人比较讲究茶叶、茶具和茶道，而孟加拉人则相当随意。把日常生活中的饮茶现象进行中孟逐项对比，加以精美图片 PPT 展示，其中的异同，学生很快就消化吸收了。

3. 构建联系，融会贯通

语言既是文化的重要组成部分，又是文化的载体。若能在文化课上联系精读课上的内容，即所谓的“文化因素”，学生似曾相识，会产生一股亲近、熟悉之感。比如在介绍“九大古都之一西安”时，附带说了一下“买东西”典故，不少学生听完之后有股恍然大悟之感。我们知道方位名词有东西南北，为什么购物不能说“买南北”，而只能说“买东西”呢？原来，唐朝的都城长安（西安）是一个国际大都市，设有东市和西市，人们上街购物要么去东市，要么去西市，后来“东西”就逐渐演变成为商品的代名词，“买东西”就成了购物的一种通俗说法了。知其然还得知其所以然，如此构建联系进行讲解，能较大地满足成年学生的求知欲，并且巩固所学的知识。

达卡大学的中文系是设在现代语言学院里，学院除了汉语，还提供很多其他语种，比如英语、法语、阿拉伯语、印地语、西班牙语、日语、韩语等。同时，孟加拉地处东西文化圈的过度地带，既有东亚文化的辐射，又有欧洲殖民的遗留，更有印度文化的浸润，因此大都数中文系的学生还会说英语、印地语等多门外语。我在讲解中国文化，尤其是语言文化之时，融会一些所知语言文化，归纳一些条目出来，结果是事半功倍。有些初学汉语的学生，往往深受文化负迁移的影响，本来是要说“再见”，却说成“你好”，下意识地套用印地语的“Nomoshkar”。“Nomoshkar”跟意大利语的“Ciao”类似，既可当作“你好”，又可当作“再见”之用。另外，这里的学生有一些是语言学专业出身，学汉语之前还学了韩语、日语等。若能在东亚语言文化之间做一些比较，学生亦会非常喜欢。像韩语“再见”有两种表达，一是对离开者说“Annyonghi-gaseyo”，相当于汉语的“请慢走”；二是对不走者说“Annyonghi-geseyo”，相当于汉语的“请留步”。这么对比讲解，既能实现有意义的学习，又能丰富“再见”的汉语表达方式，提高语言交际能力，情景法讲解之中还传达了中国文化中迎来送往的待客之礼。构建联系，

融会贯通，这对任课教师提出了较高要求，除了中国文化之外，还要多多学习任教国及其周边国家的文化。一个饱学各种文化的教师上课不仅能够游刃有余，事半功倍，而且对学生来说也是一种震撼，更是一种引导和一种激励。

4. 课堂课下，言传身教

在非目的语国家开展外语教学，最缺的就是语言环境，缺乏课下操练的机会。对于汉语学习者而言，我们中国教师自然就成了他们最好的语言伙伴和了解中国文化的最直接窗口。因此，在课堂上讲解的内容力求为精品，覆盖较为全面，包括语言、历史、文学、哲学、宗教等诸多方面，从远到近，由表及里，逐步互动传达。教师除了言语之外，还得注意非语言方面。众所周知，信息的传递不仅仅是语言，还包括其他方面。因此，身教方面也得下功夫。比如讲解“中国服饰”的时候，我一改平时所穿的休闲服装，穿了一件亚麻唐装去上课。一走进教室，学生就顿时围着观看，有的还努力认读衣服上面的草书汉字，甚至用手摸一摸，感受一番。课上，身上的衣物就成了最直接的展品，无须多费口舌，学生就直观地感受到了中国传统服饰与孟加拉的不同之处，体会到了中国服饰之美。课下，有的学生还问在孟加拉哪里可以买到唐装，或者是否可以一起去趟裁缝店（让裁缝仿制），非常期待自己也能有一件。

另外，课下学生来访，我也是按照中国的待客方式接待，泡茶待客、留客吃饭、临走起身欢送……值得一提的是，孟加拉也是舌尖上的国家，他们也是“吃货”。我们与学生经常一起做饭，烹制中孟两国美食，互相品尝，这成为他们最喜欢的课下活动之一。像欧美许多国家都有华人社区，比如唐人街、中国城等，这些地方是一些发展中国家所没有的，可以开辟为实践基地。我们教师可以适当带领学生走访实践基地，安排中文点餐、中文采访等活动项目，让他们结合所学文化知识零距离地去观察和体验中国文化的点点滴滴。结束之后，下一次课就组织学生展示采风所得，并且进行课堂讨论，从现象和事实中归纳出相关特点。在丰富多彩的第二课堂中，学生能在轻松愉快的环境中，自觉成为文化学习的主体，更能体会到文化差异，从而更真实更深刻地理解中国文化。总而言之，第二课堂是传播中国文化的重要渠道，这一块阵地也值得我们去挖掘和坚守。

5. 结语

以上四大方面是笔者在实践教学所得出的浅薄经验，文化教学之法远不止于这些，在此就是抛砖引玉了。总的来说，文化教学首先你要知道中国文化，正所谓韩信点兵，多多益善，同时尽快了解所在教学国的文化，而且还要有跨文化传播的意识，积极运用其中的策略技巧，

才能较为容易地向外国学生打开中国文化的大门，让他们更好地欣赏位于大门之后的那缤纷多彩的文化大观园。

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专题组合式与教师协作式的对外文化课型探究

——以暑期对留学生的中国文化课程为例

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摘 要:要学好汉语就必须了解汉语所承载的中国文化。为促进留学生的汉语学习和文化交流,香港理工大学中文及双语系每年暑假开设中国文化课,以三组教师协作教学的方式,对中国文化的语言文字符号、哲学宗教意识形态和文学艺术媒介三个文化专题进行共同授课。各组教师在各自的专业范畴内发挥各自的文化专长,精心选材,讲授本层面的文化专题,注重各文化专题之间的连贯呼应和互相渗透,通过课程统筹和交换意见,共同完成对外文化教学任务。本文以暑期对留学生的中国文化课程为例,探究此类专题组合式与教师协作式的对外文化课型的可行性和应用性。

关键词: Teaching of Chinese culture 对外文化教学, Combination of topics 专题组合式, Collaborative teaching 教师协作式

1. 前言

“对外汉语教师在教学过程中如何合理地体现文化教学的深度和广度?实际教材选编时如何合理地体现文化原则?这些都是当前中国对外汉语教学亟待解决的问题”(俞焯,2008)。

语言是文化的主要载体,语言反映该民族的社会生活方式、思维方式、价值观念、道德传统、宗教信仰和风俗习惯等。要学好汉语,就必须理解汉语所负载的深厚的中国文化。外国留学生如缺乏汉语文化意识,不仅可能产生认知偏差,还会出现交际障碍。越是深刻细致地了解

中国文化,就能越准确地使用汉语。

讲授对外文化课的教师,需具备深厚的中国文化知识涵养,深入了解中国文化的起源及发展,但凡中华民族的历史、哲学、文学、艺术等方面的文化精髓、人生智慧,都要面面俱到地有所了解。然而,每一位对外汉语教师的文化背景、文化专长及体验都各不相同,对教师相当于“文化大家、杂家”的要求未免过于严苛。因此,在香港理工大学中文及双语系每年暑假开设的中国文化课中,我们尝试以三组教师团队协作教学的方式,各组教师针对各自的专业学科研究范畴,发挥各自的文化专长,精心选材,对中国文化的语言文字符号、哲学宗教意识形态和文学艺术媒介三个文化专题进行共同授课。每组教师深入讲授本层面的文化专题,通过课程统筹和交换意见,注重各文化专题之间的连贯呼应和互相渗透,共同完成对外文化教学任务。本文以暑期对留学生的中国文化课程为例,探究此类专题组合式与教师协作式的对外文化课型的可行性和应用性。

2. 暑期对外文化课程的教学原则与教学语言

2.1 教学原则

2.1.1 分层原则。课程开设的三个文化专题组合先从常识性的基础文化开始,着重介绍日常生活的文化物质、文化现象、文化符号等外在物化的文化;进而教授一些含有中国人审美标准和价值判断的深层次文化内容,如风土民情、风俗习惯、文学艺术;最终对中国文化内涵的前因后果,发展变化规律进行总结,如宗教哲学、价值观道德观、民族心理等。从文化现象到文化知识至文化态度意识的分层讲授,先使留学生对表层文化有一个感性了解,进而引导其深入到起主导和定型作用的深层文化。中国文化不再是一堆杂乱无章的现象,而是由表及里、由果溯因,确立一个文化知识专题项目的图式,根据文化现象找到文化现象产生的原因,就实现了从“知其然”到“知其所以然”的飞跃。

2.1.2 适度原则。中国文化浩如烟海,要全部教给留学生是不可能的,也是不必要的。进行对外文化教学,目的在于引导学生较全面地了解中国文化,使他们利用所学去进行文化交流实践。文化教学以点到即止,引发思考实践为原则。在每天三小时、为期一个月的暑期文化课程中,教师精选那些曾经积极影响中华民族发展进程的、具有普遍代表性的文化内容进行整合,以话题引发学生对文化专题的兴趣。如讲生活习惯侧重讲饮食,讲节日风俗结合历史传说故事,讲哲学宗教结合成语俗语等。

2.1.3 比较原则。每个学生的文化背景不尽相同,教师应找到中国文化与异质文化最有比较意义的文化点,通过各自文化的对比呈现双方的文化差异,揭示中国文化的内涵,如汉民族在

思维方式、民族心理等方面不同于西方的特点。教师有意识地指出汉语言文化的特质,让留学生有概括性的认识,在今后进行汉语学习和文化交际时逐步加深印象并准确运用。关于文化异同的思考讨论、要求学生撰写跨文化比较的论文,能帮助学生形成广阔的文化视野和文化比较的思维方式,激发出更多文化碰撞交流的火花。教师还应把中国文化与世界文化相联系,使学生理解中国文化在世界多元文化中的地位和作用,培养学生尊重包容的文化态度,寻求人类共同的文化内涵。

2.1.4 趣味性原则。在跨文化交际中,文化移入和文化合流较为困难。然而中国文化源远流长、博大精深,在中国人的生活中无处不在。教师可以充分利用这一有利之处,结合课程内容或岁时节令导入相关的衣食住行、风俗习惯等活泼直观的生活细节,为教学内容配上照片、图画、故事、电影、音乐等易于感知的多媒体手段,使留学生对中国文化产生较浓厚的兴趣,更容易引起学生的学习动机和积极性。

2.1.5 实践性原则。文化教学内容选取要切合实际生活,使学有所用,比如介绍中国人的礼仪规范等交际性的文化知识就很有实用价值。课堂上所导入的文化内容应尽量与学生的日常生活和文化实践活动相关,如教师利用自身的文化专长亲身演示书法、绘画、武术、音乐、舞蹈、烹饪等,让外国留学生亲身尝试操作。教师结合主流文化和本地区的文化特点,组织留学生进行社会文化实践活动,如讲历史文化参观历史文化博物馆、讲宗教参观寺庙、讲书法绘画参观书画展览、讲音乐戏曲观赏传统戏剧、讲风俗民情参加传统节日活动等,这些都会使学生对所学习的文化知识有更深刻的体验。

2.2 教学语言的选用

暑期对外文化课为短期密集的文化知识课,其目的为培养留学生的汉语交际能力提供一定的人文底蕴,与对外语言教学平行又相关,有一定的专门性、系统性和完整性。它考虑外国学生汉语学习和文化交流的需求,强调文化知识的基础性和常识性,加强学术性,突出文化价值观念系统及其体现形式,如语言文字、哲学宗教思想、风俗习惯、文学艺术等。

对外文化课的教学任务主要是向留学生介绍和阐释中国文化,在阐释诸如审美情趣、价值取向、思维方式等深层的精神文化层面时,由于留学生的汉语水平所限,应该考虑合理地使用媒介语或学生的母语如英语进行教学,消除学生的语言障碍,提高学生的认同感,让学生更准确深入地了解文化现象及其文化内涵。这是由对外文化的教学任务、教学内容和学生的实际情况而决定的。从实践来看,教师主要以学生的母语阐发中华独特的文化魅力,能让留学生从感性到理性对中国文化有所认识理解,这种教学语言选择具有实效性。基于以上的因素,我们选择了专门介绍中国文化的书籍 CHINA--Five Thousand Years of History & Civilization (City University of Hong Kong, 2007) 作为主要教材。这本书有中、英文两种版本,方便教师备课及留学生阅读。

3. 专题组合式与教师协作式对外文化教学的实践

3.1 专题组合

“专题化组合式教学模式是一种针对培训对象的层次和特点，按照培训目标，把课堂教学内容和其他教学内容划分为若干有机联系而又相对独立的专题，然后把它们组合成完整的教学内容体系，并以多样化的教学方法加以实施的新的教学模式”（朱立民，潘开标，1994）。我们的暑期对外文化教学按照三个文化专题组合内容：（见下表）。

文化专题	文化子题
一、中国文化的符号与现象	1、中国的语言
	2、中国的文字
	3、中国的书法与绘画
二、中国文化的意识形态	1、中国神话与历史
	2、中国民间故事与习俗
	3、中国主要哲学流派与宗教
三、中国文化的反映与传播媒介	1、中国主要文学体裁
	2、中国的戏剧与影视
	3、中国的戏曲与音乐

各文化专题注重前后的连贯呼应和互相渗透，体现了分层、适度、比较的对外文化教学原则。例如在“中国文化的反映与传播媒介”文化专题中，介绍经电影、戏曲改编的小说。例如在观赏电影《赤壁》时带出中国四大名著之一的《三国演义》。这样，就把这个文化专题下的三个文化子题“文学、影视与戏曲”联系起来了；在讲第一个文化专题“中国的方言”时涉及了第三个文化专题的“地方戏曲”内容，讲汉字的演变历史、书写汉字的书法艺术和仓颉造字的传说，又联系起了第一、第二个文化专题的相关内容。文化专题的组合有意识地对文化项目进行不同角度的复现，从不同层面加深学生对文化专题的印象和感受。

3.2 教师协作

“教师协作教学 (Collaborative teaching) 是指教学组群在相同议题或学科领域下，建立共同教学目标导向的专业关系，整合教师个人的专长，共同发展课程、设计教学及准备教学资源，

共同完成教学工作。教师间的互动对话 (co-generative dialogues) 是一种合作性的教学型态, 通过讨论加强教师间的交流、沟通与合作, 实现教学经验的共享和教学技能的提升, 达成教师共同成长的目的” (Cook & Friend, 1995)。协作教学提倡教师组成教学群, 一起参与教学行动的计划与执行, 互相协作解决教学上的问题, 并由所有参与教学活动的老师们轮流上台教学, 一起承担教学责任, 让学生接触多样化的知识。

教师组成教学社群, 就是为了使教师在与同侪的互动中进行专业对话, 提供教师进行专业的自我省思与协同省思的机会。在此互动的历程中, 所有参与者都需要扮演积极主动的角色, 所有参与者都获得专业成长的机会。以往教师习惯“单打独斗”的教学模式, 鲜有与其他教师合作教学的机会, 只能透过进修来提升专业知识和技能。然而, 透过教学社群的协作互动可以提供教学理念的交换、充实课程素材资源, 也可以分享课后教学心得。这种多元互动的形式是促进教师教学观点改变的有效方式, 教师互动的机会越多, 教学能力的成长就越明显。

教师协作式对外文化教学具体体现为由教学主任统筹三个文化专题的教学内容, 针对教师的学科研究范畴、文化专长塑造专业性组合, 以教师合作方式提升教学的内容与能力。以两位教师为一组共分为三组, 各自负责三个文化专题, 共同完成对外文化教学任务。教师们从不同的角度分析中华文化的特有现象, 集思广益, 达到的效果比个人“单兵作战”的教学型态要好, 这既有助于教师个人的专业发展, 也有利于培养教师创造性和开放性的专业自主精神。例如属于少数民族族裔、学习汉语言专业的老师, 具有会说方言、擅长跳民族舞蹈和唱民族歌曲的特长, 就负责中国的语言文字专题; 而研究文学学科的老师会中国书法绘画、会弹奏中国乐器和唱中国戏曲, 就让其负责中国文学艺术专题; 平常受过哲学思维训练, 研究过风水建筑的老师, 让他们负责中国哲学宗教专题, 就再合适不过了。小组各自找资料, 制作教学简报, 搜集音像材料, 整理教师和学生用教材, 制定分组讨论话题, 确定课外中国文化英文译本的阅读材料, 准备考试题目、制定评分标准和建议答案。在开课前的一个月每周进行一次集体备课, 交换课件查漏补缺, 每组互评互助, 开诚布公地提出意见和修改建议。在教学时间、空间的安排上, 也更加开放而有弹性。开课后定期开会交流教学心得, 根据学生实际情况及时改进教学策略。

这种教师协作教学模式取决于教师在团队里的平等地位, 在备课和教学的过程中, 小组内的教师以分工合作方式, 自主活泼地设计课程, 互相支持、一起决策, 使教学达到最佳的效果。教师在团队协作的过程中, 共同承担责任, 把几个人的意见集中一起互相激励, 一个人的观点刺激其他人的想法, 从而诱发多元观点, 增加解决问题之可能性, 最后集各家之大成, 得出创新又独特的结果。按照文化专题的教学组合方式, 小组内的教师也不失教学自主独立性, 会相对独立地负责某一文化子题的教学工作。

教师协作教学同时可使学生对同一文化主题获得不同学科领域的观点与看法, 有助于培养学生的分析、判断与整合能力, 并激发学生的创意与批判思考能力。例如针对“中国的风土人情”这一文化项目的教师协作教学, 一位教师从社会学领域讲授中国江南塞北的地理位置、民族分布、饮食习惯、节日风俗, 一位教师则从语言学科领域示范江南塞北的不同方言, 另一位

教师就从文学艺术领域引导学生欣赏江南塞北不同风味的民歌乐曲,如此的协作教学设计既统整了有关中国江南塞北风土人情的相关教材,也结合了教师的专长,使学生从多元化的文化内容组合和多位教师身上学到较完整的文化知识。

3.3 教学方法和手段

教师通过讲述点拨和解释描述文化知识要点,深入浅出地列举相关的生活例子,引导学生习得中国的文化特征。设置文学作品体验情境,把文化与神话故事、诗词曲赋、散文小说、影视戏剧、戏曲音乐等文学作品相结合,引发学生体会中国文化的审美情趣、价值取向、思维方式和民族心理。实践对外文化教学的比较原则,例如把“盘古开天女娲造人”的神话传说与《圣经》创世纪的故事、《红楼梦》与《罗密欧与朱丽叶》、《西游记》与《魔戒》、《水浒传》与绿林好汉罗宾汉、《三国演义》与古希腊各国枭雄纷争、《聊斋志异》与《人鬼情未了》等中外文化作品进行比较,不同文化背景的学习者展开文化比较的问答讨论,体会文化内涵的差异,寻求人类共同的思想情感的不同表达方式,促进文化交流。教师还重视非言语交际因素如手势、姿态、服饰等,如制作具有中国风格背景的简报,在课堂上穿着中国传统服装进行对外文化教学。

小组文化专题报告和个人文化论文作为评估方式,要求学生总结文化课程所得,选取对中国文化触动最深的一个要点进行阐发,引导学生从知识接受者转变为知识探索者。有华裔背景的留学生在报告和论文中探究中国传统文化的价值意义,重新思考自己在华洋共处中的文化身份定位,产生了“寻根”的意识。课堂上中西文化对比的教学方式也启发了学生对文化现象的思维方式,在学生的报告和论文中均能反映出来。例如学生比较中西的宗教观、语言文字体系、节日文化,及中国文化对本国文化乃至世界文化的影响,从而审视本国文化的发展。

4. 结语

对外文化教学的核心应着眼于跨文化,它不仅包括文化知识的传授,为学生打开一扇更为广阔的看世界的窗户,还涉及到学习者对目的语文化的体会和比较。文化教学如果能够通过与一种特定文化的交流沟通,培养学生积极开放的文化态度和善于发现汲取目标文化因素的能力,就能使其在与其他文化的交流中游刃有余,这样的对外文化教学观念才是与当今世界频繁而深入的文化交流相适应的。

笔者认为,专题组合式与教师协作式的教学是一种应用较广泛的对外文化教学方式,它从内容和形式上打破了以往教材单一、教师独立作业的教学型态,无论在课前准备、教学进程或最后的评鉴,都可以让多位不同专业的教师共同参与、设计和执行。这不仅可以活化教师的文

化专长与能力，还可以针对中国文化特定专题进行统整，就文史哲、文学艺术等学科范畴共同向外国留学生提供必要的文化知识，让学生从不同角度不同层面去体验中华文化的魅力，对外文化课程因此而变得更具操作性和多元化。

专题组合式与教师协作式的对外文化教学的实施，也会涉及到一些具体问题，包括：（一）教师上课前须付出更多的心力和时间去和小组成员进行磨合；（二）不同的老师有不同的教法，不易保持教学主题脉络的连贯，对学习程度较差的学生也许会产生不连贯的问题；（三）教师除了本身领域的文化知识之外，必须充实其他文化领域的相关知识，因为教师有责任为学生解答除了涉及教师本身的文化领域知识之外的其他文化知识部分。实施协作式教学，教育行政单位还应该有教学队伍的组织与规划、教学时间的多样编排、教学空间的弹性调整、教学资源人力物力的充分提供等相关配合措施，如此方能发挥协作教学的特色和精神，达到完善对外文化教学方式、创新留学生文化学习型态的目的。

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Towards students' learning activities in an MA translation module: An interview-based study

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the experience of learning from the student's perspective and is based upon a phenomenological approach to education studies, investigating the relationships between approaches, conceptions, contexts and outcomes of learning. Students' interview data were collected and analysed in order to investigate the complex relationships between different factors in the nested model of student learning (Meyer 2011).

This research reveals that learning processes have close connections with students' intentions, motivation, and conceptions of learning. Moreover, the context of learning also plays an important role in the complex learning system. Secondly, students' prior knowledge or background plays an important role in their learning process. For example, blank knowledge or troublesome knowledge of translation theories can obstruct a student from taking deep approaches toward learning, inhibiting their ability to achieve in-depth understanding of, and creative thinking about, reading materials.

The findings of this research can effectively be applied to the teaching of this module. 1) It is vital to provide students with clear task requirements (i.e. learning aims and presentation standards) at the beginning of the teaching activity. 2) Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge in MA transla-

tion teaching should be taken into account. A focus on threshold concepts enables teachers to make refined decisions about what is fundamental to a grasp of the subject they are teaching. It is a ‘less is more’ approach to curriculum design (Cousin 2006:4).

Keywords: learning intention, learning motivation, conception of learning, threshold concepts

1. Introduction

This paper aims to study different conceptions, motivations, intentions, and approaches in relation to learning as conceived by students on an MA translation seminar module. The focus of this research is students’ learning activities under a particular learning environment, bearing in mind that “...student learning is a complex multi-dimensional and multivariate phenomenon that cannot be decontextualised” (Meyer 2007: 1104). Three students’ interview data were collected to analyze the complex relationships between different factors in the nested model of student learning.

Three Chinese students at Durham University volunteered to attend an interview about learning activities after I explained in class the purpose of the interview and what would be involved. Each of them had a BA degree from a Chinese university and is pursuing a one-year taught MA degree in Translation Studies. As the programme supports the learning of candidates who wish to pursue careers as translators and research scholars in Translation Studies, the students are provided with both theoretical and practical training. The seminar module I designed embodies a combination of learning and research processes. Students are asked to read three academic papers on a focused topic each week, with six of them being asked to give presentations in front of the class. However, different conceptions, motivations and intentions towards learning and research lead to different learning approaches (such as surface or deep reading), which further produce different learning outcomes.

2. Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework of this paper focuses on the experience of learning from the student’s perspective and is based upon a phenomenological approach to research that has been widely applied by researchers over the last thirty-five years, investigating the relationships between the learners’ approaches to studying, their conceptions of learning, the learning context and learning outcomes. The first pioneer research examining students’ learning derives from research by Marton and Säljö (1976), which distinguishes ‘deep approaches’ and ‘surface approaches’ to learning. The dichotomic “deep-

surface” approaches were further elaborated by Ramsden, who describes the “deep approach” as correlating with an intention to understand and focuses on ‘what is signified’ , while the surface approach correlates with an intention only to complete task requirements and focuses on the ‘signs’ and related parts of the task (Ramsden 1992:46). In the present research, if a student relates previous knowledge to new knowledge, or relates theoretical ideas to practice, and so on, it can be predicated that s/he takes a deep reading approach. However, if s/he only extracts information from designated papers into his or her presentation, or fails to apply the principles to analysing practical cases, a surface approach to reading is indicated.

According to Meyer’s (2011) nested model of learning, the learning process is mainly and directly influenced (though that may vary with time and discipline context) by the intentions, motivations and conceptions of learning. Learning intention in the above mentioned model essentially refers to what students are trying to accomplish in a given learning context and is distinguished by ‘acquisition of meaning’ , ‘reproducing what is being learned’ and ‘striving towards personal achievement’ . Motivation is a prime determinant of human behaviour, and learning behaviour in particular; and is operationalised in the Approaches to Studying Inventory (Entwistle and Ramsden 1983) in ‘intrinsic’ , ‘extrinsic’ and ‘strategic’ terms (Meyer 2011:13-14). Conceptions of learning represent one important form of prior knowledge, as do associated epistemological beliefs, that students bring with them to any learning task (Meyer 2011:13). Säljö (1979) produced five qualitatively different conceptions of learning, which include ‘increase in knowledge’ , ‘memorization’ , ‘acquisition of utilization of facts’ , ‘abstraction of meaning’ and ‘understanding reality’ . Conceptions of learning are further operationalised in ‘accumulative’ and ‘transformative’ terms in earlier versions of the Reflections on Learning Inventory (Meyer and Boulton-Lewis 1997). Van Rossum and Schenk (1984) found that students with transformational conceptions of learning were more likely to adopt a ‘deep’ approach to learning than students with accumulative conceptions.

Based on the above conceptual framework, the interview questions cover different factors in students’ learning processes, with particular attention to their conceptions of learning and research, their learning intentions and motivation in the module, and their process of reading academic papers. The observation by means of interview data not only helps to understand the complex relationships within the nested learning model, but also serves as valuable feedback on the teaching activities (including the module design). The relationship between learning context (learning environment, content, task demands, etc.) and learning process is also discussed at the end of this paper.

3. Case studies

3.1 Student interview case 1

In this paper, Jane is used as the pseudonym of the first interviewee. When asked about the conceptions of learning, she responded as follows:

I think learning at this stage (MA study)^①, er, should be more driven and motivated for the students to find information on their own, and teacher will give less guidance (compared with UG study) on the teaching materials, and the student must be equipped with skills to find information, and be critical to the information obtained either from internet or books. Within this learning process, I could always generate some new understanding towards some existing matters.

This is a typical transformative conception of learning, since, in Jane's mind, learning is not just a means of increasing knowledge, storing information and applying what has been accumulated, but looking for information, critiquing existing knowledge and generating new understanding on existing matters. Moreover, her arguments that "learning is for the students to find information on their own" and "(students should) be critical to the information obtained from internet or books" reveal a research attitude towards learning, which could be further supported by her conceptions of research:

Research in my opinion, compared to learning, er, is a similar form of learning, only research is to conduct some kind of learning into the field that you are not familiar with, or the subject which is newly found, and requires to be discovered. There is not much existing information or guidance you could follow in this field and you should first read a lot of existing materials about it, and, and second, you should be critical on your reading; and third, you could, you probably could generate some hypothesis of your own, and lastly, you could carry on some experiments to testify your hypothesis and generate a conclusion.

It can be seen that Jane has a very similar understanding of learning and research. Her conception of research can be regarded as a combination of (A) research as information gathering, (C) insightful exploration and discovery, (F) the re-examination of existing knowledge, and (G) identifying and solv-

^① Words in bracket in interview data are provided by the author, with an intention to facilitate the understanding of excerpted interview content.

ing problems in Meyer's "eight categories in conceptions of research" (Meyer 2007:1108). Bearing the above mentioned conceptions of learning and research in mind, Jane described the following learning activities in the interview report:

As for reading materials, I made use of them with a selective attitude. After all, the presentation is not like a book report, the targets of group presentations are to work out collective goal and to reach our own conclusion... Also we (group members) were critical to authors' thoughts, provided the class with our critical thinking during the presentation. As for my independent research, er, I had conducted relative research activities, including searching information from books, online searching. In case of the presentation preparation, I sometimes chose other scholars' opinions related to the topic, both criticizing and supporting views... And yes I did have some reflections and revisions after presentation, but not systematically, sometimes I took the comments from tutors and I could find the gap between my performance and their expectations. Sometimes tutors' suggestions were not prescriptive, more like guidelines and I would apply these suggestions to my future presentations and essay writings.

Jane's process of learning appears to match a deep learning approach, which is characterized as "focusing on what is signified (i.e. the author's argument) and relating previous knowledge to new knowledge" (Ramsden 1992:46). In the process of learning, she takes a selective attitude towards reading materials, applies her own critical thinking to papers, and also relates other scholars' opinions to her current reading materials. Jane's learning approaches are closely related to her conceptions of learning. With transformative learning conceptions, she would be reluctant to make her presentation superficial, like a book report, but rather do some research on a given topic, including collecting information from internal and external resources, generating critical ideas and drawing a conclusion, as well as carrying out post revision and reflection after presentation.

Moreover, Jane's learning approaches are also connected with her learning motivation. When asked about her learning motivation in this module, she claimed as follows:

To conduct the above mentioned learning activities, initially, (the motivation comes) from my module requirements. I need to meet the module requirements to successfully achieve my degree. After that, I have strong curiosities and interests to this module, which is translation studies, and want to achieve the accurate and deep understanding of this subject.

According to Marton and Säljö (1984:52), intrinsic motivation (interest) seems to lead to a deep

approach and extrinsic motivation (concern with demands) to a surface approach. Jane's initial motivation, which is about module requirements or task demands, can be regarded as extrinsic motivation; however, strongly prompted by her second motivation, which comes from her curiosity towards and interest in this module, she mainly takes deep approaches in her learning process.

Finally, this paper tries to investigate the potential relationships among “conceptions of learning”, “learning intention” and “learning approaches” based on Jane's following opinions on her learning intentions:

By learning this module, I can firstly accumulate a lot of knowledge about translation and linguistic and cultural aspects. And secondly, I could sort out the relations between different theories put forward by different (translation) schools, thus to have a clear picture of translation studies. And thirdly, I expected to be more rational towards those controversial ideas and theories which I learned in China.

With transformative conceptions of learning, Jane's desired outcome to this module was not limited only to increase knowledge, but extended to sort out relations between different translation theories and improve her capability on rationally understanding of controversial ideas. That is why in her process of learning, she would feed her peers with critical thinking in her presentation, instead of simply making a book report.

3.2 Student interview case 2

George is the pseudonym of the second interviewee, who describes his conceptions of learning as follows:

First, I think that learning is a kind of knowledge and information accumulation, but, but learning is not just that, I mean, it also means to apply what we've learned to practical things.

The above-mentioned ‘knowledge accumulation’ and ‘knowledge application’ belong to the category of ‘accumulative learning conceptions’ in Meyer's nested model of learning (Meyer 2011:12). Based on his understanding of learning, George's conception of research arguably differs from his conception of learning: “Research is not just about paper or other products; we should understand it as a process of finding the truth in academic areas; also to change some existing ideas, to correct some misunderstanding”. It is interesting that George establishes a clear borderline between learning and research: ‘knowledge acquisition and application’ are understood as learning, while ‘changing

existing ideas', 'correcting former misunderstanding' and 'finding out truth' belong to the domain of research. Such conceptions of research combine (B) discovering the truth, (F) the re-examination of existing knowledge and (H) a set of misconceptions in Meyer's (2007) category. With the help of the above conceptions of learning and research, George understood his learning process as follows:

For my own presentation duties, the most important thing comes to my mind is finding out the key points, which should be clear and brief. Then I will find out some supportive materials and examples, I personally would like to use a lot of video clips which are very vivid...My reflection was mainly based on tutors' comments and suggestions. In every presentation, there will be a Q & A section, a comment and discussion section, when the tutors and other classmates will provide us with their ideas and opinions about our presentations, and then when we were preparing for presentations a few weeks later, we will try to avoid such failures we made last time. I seldom did revision on my presentation slides, mainly because the presentations were not required to be written into articles.

George's learning activities include finding out key points and using examples to support these points. His reflections are mainly based on external suggestions and he seldom makes revisions because it is not strictly required for the module. His learning approach is mainly a surface approach, as it "treats the task as an external imposition" (Ramsden 1992: 46). When asked about his approaches toward reading academic papers, the surface learning approaches were clearly demonstrated:

For my presentation paper, in order to achieve, I mean, to fulfill the standard of presentation, I have to do so, I have to know in depth about my article, so that I could handle the Q and A section, make good interaction with the audience...(But for papers to be presented by others) Since this module is not compulsory, I don't have to learn that much as there's no final examination, so that's why I don't have enough motivation to read all of the provided articles. I think if I could sit in the class and listen to others' presentations, that would be enough for me.

The above answer also reveals a close relationship between motivation and approaches to learning activities. George's motivation for learning mainly comes from extrinsic arousal, such as task demands or learning requirements. In order to fulfill the module requirements, he takes his presentation papers quite seriously, spending more than two hours reading one article; however, in the case of the papers to be presented by others, he spends only half an hour skimming all the 3-4 papers. He also frankly replied to the question about his learning motivation:

My motivation is mainly from the demand of my major, translation studies. In this seminar, there is lots of information and knowledge about translation theories, otherwise I could not accomplish (the task), as in the future it is very important, I have to do so. That's my basic motivation.

In the case of learning intentions, George gave the following answer:

First is to acquire knowledge and information from this course, which is my basic intention. The second is, er, I can enhance my presentation skills during the class. Another thing I want to mention is, I want to improve my research ability by attending this module, but it is not that visible. During the process of this seminar, I found that when I try to read an article and to prepare for a presentation, I will have lots of ideas, how to structure these ideas, how to make it (the presentation) understood by the audience, and that is also similar to research.

The first intention is about 'acquisition of meaning', while the second and third intentions are about 'striving towards personal achievements', such as presentation and research skills. Bearing the above learning intentions in mind, George's learning process is mainly focused on information accumulation and personal skill improvement. His reply about achievements and progress in this module indicates that his learning outcomes are achieved through the process of learning, which is also influenced or functioned by intention and motivation. Here is his answer about learning outcomes:

Yes, I have had lots of achievements through this seminar, first one is knowledge and information accumulation and acquiring, and second is communication skills and presentation abilities. Another interesting thing is about how to find research interests, you know when I read materials, make my presentation or listen to classmates' reports, I could always find out something to agree, and something to disagree, during this learning process, I could find out my research interests finally.

3.3 Student interview case 3

Sally is the pseudonym of the third interviewee, who also displays accumulative conceptions of learning as revealed by her following statements:

To me, postgraduate study is nonetheless an accumulation of knowledge. From postgraduate

study, I can learn a lot of new knowledge on translation theories and I can apply these theories in my translation practices. And, compared with undergraduate study, it is more career-related. Postgraduate study is much more systematic.

When asked about her conception of research, Sally said:

I have to learn from other people's opinions. Then from the knowledge I learn, I should discover the truth and attribute some findings on certain topics and all these findings should be creative and original. For some topic, I always have some initial understanding, and through research, I can have deeper understanding of it. Sometimes the research results are different from what I have imagined.

This suggests that in Sally's mind, research is first of all about 'information gathering'; then 'discovering the truth'; then followed by 'the re-examination of existing knowledge; and finally related to 'insightful exploration and discovery' (cf. Meyer 2007). Research is a part of learning for Sally, who believes that "there are many methods for learning, and research is one. In order to conduct the research works, one needs to learn from other research works' findings and opinions on some certain topic, and this knowledge accumulation is itself a process of learning. So, it's also a way of learning to do creative research." Such an understanding of research is supported by Meyer's (2007) model of postgraduate research-as-learning, in which engagement in postgraduate research is viewed as a learning process with summatively assessed outcomes (theses or dissertations).

Sally's learning intentions are a combination of 'acquiring meaning' and 'personal achievement' (e.g. presentation skills), as indicated by her words: "I noticed all the seminar papers are about translation theories, so I would like to obtain full understanding of the translation schools. Besides, I'm also expecting to improve my presentation skills by attending these seminars". And her motivation for learning in this module is a combination of the "intrinsic" and the "extrinsic" factors, as can be seen in her words: "I myself have the motivation to learn, and this module really gives me a good direction and improves my learning efficiency".

Based on the above information, we can go further in analyzing her learning approaches as demonstrated in the process of learning:

For the provided reading materials, I read them and try to understand the author's thoughts which I then compare with other scholars' opinions. The most important thing is to seek application of those opinions into translation practice, which could improve my own translation

efficiency.

Basically, the presentation consists of three parts. The first part is the introduction of the author's opinions, which accounts for almost 40% of my presentation. The second part is to talk about other scholars' findings and then bring forward my own thoughts, which takes about 30% of the presentation time. The last part is the illustration of all the thoughts and opinions I've just presented, by using some examples, to show how to apply these theoretical thoughts into translation practice.

It is clear that Sally takes a deep-level learning approach, through which she can dynamically associate the author's thoughts with other scholars' opinions, and effectively apply translation theories to her translation practice. 30% of her presentation consists of her own thoughts and understanding about the topic, and 30% is about applying theory to practice. Such presentation behaviour can obviously be placed in Ramsden's (1992: 46) deep learning category, which is 'relating theoretical ideas to everyday experience'.

According to Van Rossum and Schenk (1984), if someone takes accumulative conceptions of learning, s/he is less likely to adopt deep-level approaches to learning. But in Sally's case, we may understand that it is her strong 'intrinsic' motivation for learning in this module that encourages her to take a deep approach to learning (Marton and Säljö 1984:52). Moreover, deep approaches to learning are typified by an intention to understand and seek meaning, leading students to attempt to relate concepts to existing understanding and to each other, to distinguish between new ideas and existing knowledge, and to critically evaluate and determine key concepts (Fry et al. 2003:11). Based on the above analysis, I concluded that the links between motivation, intention, conceptions and approaches to learning are not simple and clear ones. Deep observation and careful analysis are needed in order to understand their complex connections.

4. Reflections and implications for teaching practice

This present research on learning activities in a postgraduate seminar is based on the theoretical rationale that MA learning involves a student-centered model of teaching (Biggs and Tang 2007: 19) utilising a deep approach to learning (Prosser and Trigwell 1999). For this module, I define the tutor's duties as designing the module syllabus, preparing selected reading materials, organizing the learning activities and acting as observer and commentator in the Question & Answer section. This idea reflects Kiraly's (2000) social constructivist approach to translator education, which suggests

that “rather than teaching correct answers (truth) to my student, it is my pedagogical task to scaffold learning, provide substantial support for knowledge construction early in the course or programme, and gradually relinquish control over the learning environment to the students themselves” (2000:68). The interviews have provided me with much scope for reflection on the scholarship of learning and teaching at postgraduate level.

First of all, the above study supports the argument that students' learning processes are closely related to, and connected with, their intentions, motivation, and conceptions of learning. Furthermore, the context of learning also plays an important role in the complex learning system. For example, the demands of the task have a direct impact on learning motivation, and then affect the learning processes. When asked about reading time spent on academic papers, all of the interviewed students said that they spent most time on their own presentation papers, a moderate amount of time on the papers presented by their group members, and least time on papers presented by other groups. Incentivised by the presentation task as a performance in front of the whole class, a student usually tries his/her best in their reading to achieve a full understanding of the article to be analysed and presented by him/herself. In addition to this, in order to act as a good team member during group discussions, s/he also spares some time to read the articles that are due to be presented by other members of his/her group. Meanwhile, if his/her group does not have a presentation task, s/he spends very little time on reading even though s/he has been asked to read thoroughly all of the material every week.

Secondly, students' prior knowledge or background also plays an important role in the learning system. George's main weakness in this course is his scanty knowledge of translation theory; as he puts it:

My weakness lies in my knowledge background; I am not good at translation theories, and do not have lots of knowledge about theories putting forward by experts. So whenever I prepare the presentation, it is hard for me to jump out of the provided papers.

Such weakness, being a ‘threshold’ (cf. Meyer and Land 2003) in his process of learning, has hindered him from taking a deep approach towards his learning. Based on the interview data, I found that George seldom mentions critical thinking or creative ideas; however, he mentions frequently his improvement in presentation skills, which is precisely his main strength in this module. While Jane's strength lies in her solid knowledge of translation theories and linguistics, as she puts it:

As an English major student, I have gained some knowledge about theories of translation and linguistics, which is my strength in this module. When talking about reading, I can quickly get

good general understanding of the given materials, and that will facilitate my understanding of the given topic.

Having been equipped with prior knowledge on translation and linguistic theories, she is dissatisfied with just “memorizing information for assessments^①” and prefers to carry out research on translation theories and concepts. She demonstrated great initiative in her learning process, and her presentations were not limited to the reading materials provided.

According to Biggs and Tang (2007: 25), desirable student learning depends both on student-based factors — ability, appropriate prior knowledge, clearly accessible new knowledge — and on the teaching context, which includes teacher responsibility, informed decision making and good management. The present case study has provided me not only with deep understanding of the variations in student learning and relations among different sub-families in such a big and complex family of learning (Meyer 2011:1), but also with some implications for the teaching of this module.

1. Two students mentioned in their interviews that in the module guidelines, aspects such as tutors’ expectations for presentations and the task requirements, were not clearly spelled out at the beginning of the module. Their comments reminded me of the importance of the learning environment for learning and teaching activities, including the provision of clear learning goals and standards. The above feedback was very helpful for the teaching of this module and I will certainly provide students with much clearer module guidelines in the coming academic years.

2. The learning process is highly driven by learning motivation, which is related to the task demands and module requirements. In the present module, it is necessary to extend the discussion section to enable more students to get involved in the seminar. Driven by the requirement to participate in the discussions, students might be more willing to read the academic articles even when they are not asked to make presentations.

3. Discovering students’ weaknesses and strengths in relation to this particular module by means of a questionnaire at the beginning of this module could be helpful in assigning students to groups. Based on their educational backgrounds, tutors can put students with different strengths into each group, so that students can benefit from communicating with group members during group discussions.

4. The interviews also confirmed the validity of the original decision to include these teaching activities in this module, although they are not strictly a core part of it (they are not directly summatively assessed). Students found the task demands were appropriate, and the module content design clear and well systemized. Although demanding, the tasks were viewed as reasonable, something which

① A typical feature of the surface learning approach (Ramsden 1992: 46).

helped the students to improve their skills without affecting their self-confidence in their postgraduate study. They appreciated that the tutors could always give them appropriate support during seminars. More importantly, when asked about their learning outcomes, all of them had positive replies: apart from gaining knowledge about translation studies, they have been becoming more critical towards existing theories. What confirmed for me the validity of the module is the following statement about learning outcomes: "I now understood that learning is a reflective and a long-term process, not just short-term knowledge accumulation. The study towards MA degree is just a starting point for future lifelong learning." That means, what the student learned from this module is not just information and knowledge about translation, but a profound understanding of learning itself.

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Appendix: Interview questions

1. How do you understand learning as a postgraduate student? How do you understand research as a postgraduate student?
2. What are your main strengths and weaknesses in the MA graduate seminar class?
3. What do you expect of the MA graduate seminar module? (Or what is your desired learning outcome?)
4. In order to meet your expectations of this module, what did you do in the process of learning? For example. How did you make use of the reading materials provided? What about your independent research as well as collaborative research with team members? How did you prepare for your presentations? What about your reflections and revision after making your presentation?
5. In what ways did you find the above learning activities useful?
6. Could you please comment on the learning environment, content, task demands, and tutors' support for this particular module?
7. Could you please comment on your achievements and progress in this module so far?

Please answer the following questions about reading academic papers for this module.

8. What are your desired outcomes after reading the articles provided? (Or what are you trying to accomplish after reading?)
9. In what way do you read the materials provided? (Could you describe in detail your reading process: the article for your own presentation, the articles for other presenters in your group, and the articles when your group is not making presentation?) And what is your motivation to read these academic papers? (Or how far do you feel the need to read these papers?)
10. Could you always achieve your desired outcomes after reading those papers?

Thank you very much for attending the interview!

Teaching translation between English and Chinese to UG students learning Chinese as a foreign language

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Abstract

Translation between English and Chinese has received increasing attention in British academia. Proof can be found in the increasing number of universities across the UK offering translation between English and Chinese courses to students who study Chinese as a foreign language at both undergraduate and postgraduate level.

Unlike degree courses of translation studies that emphasize discussion about historical trends and theories in translation, translation between English and Chinese module provided to student studying Chinese as a foreign language has its own unique features, which are also differentiated from those market-oriented translation courses for some specific purposes that provide professional training sessions on certain subject areas.

Challenges in teaching and learning English and Chinese translation include the insufficient language abilities of students, lack of teaching and learning material, course design, teaching methods and assessment of translation works. This study identifies critical issues related to existing challenges in teaching and learning translation between English and Chinese. Then, possible solutions to these challenges are proposed in terms of providing some pedagogical implications to tutors who are teaching an identical module at the moment and to colleagues who are considering designing a translation module for students who study Chinese as a foreign language.

Key Words: Translation between English and Chinese, Undergraduate (UG) students, Chinese as a foreign language

1. Introduction

Translation between English and Chinese has received increasing attention in British academia. There is increasing number of universities across the UK offering translation between English and Chinese module to students who study Chinese as a foreign language at the undergraduate (UG) level.

This paper aims at investigating challenges and problems in this module, providing possible solutions to overcome these challenges and drawing up some pedagogical implications. The following questions will be discussed in this paper:

- Can translation be taught at the UG level?
- What can be taught?
- What are the procedures I adopted in my class?

2. Can translation be taught at the UG level?

The answer is yes, only if students are introduced to transfer competence and steered away from the novice's idea that word-for-word rendering of texts in the target language constitutes translation; if they are trained in good use of the dictionary and learn to handle the linguistic differences of the two languages involved.

There are some erroneous assumptions, as it is widely assumed by the general public that the ability to translate comes with knowledge of a second language. Translation is simple as knowing two languages well. In fact, neither knowing languages nor being efficiently bilingual is enough to become a translator (Gerding-Salas, 2000).

Translation theorists have been pointing this out, and yet many people believe and claim that knowing two or more languages is identical to knowing how to translate properly. We must banish this idea. Delisle (1980) states it clearly, "*Linguistic competence is a necessary condition, but not yet sufficient for the professional practice of translation.*" If the advanced knowledge of two languages is not enough to produce a good translator, then what is missing?

"The knowledge required for the process of translation is conventionally broken down into

linguistic knowledge or competence, subject knowledge and that elusive creature, translatorial competence.”

(Kaiser-Cook, 1994: 137)

An UG translation module would not only afford students beginning training in the area, but also the opportunity to deepen their knowledge of the two linguistic systems and to learn to bridge the gap between them.

3. What can be taught?

The features of UG translation course can be summarised as: It is unlike degree courses of translation studies that emphasize discussion about theories in translation. Instead of attempting to produce “instant” professional translators, the UG translation module is to discover potential students of translation. In addition, the UG translation module is also differentiated from those market-oriented translation courses for some specific purposes that provide professional training sessions on certain subject areas.

The aim of UG translation module is to raise students’ awareness of importance of training translators, not only in the acquisition and command of languages and translation strategies and procedures, but also in specific knowledge areas.

Students on this module are expected to deepen their knowledge of the two linguistic systems and to learn to bridge the gap between them; to be introduced to some basic principles of translation and have gained insight into them through practice; to gain awareness of the importance of subject expertise and understanding of the cultures of the two languages involved.

“Knowing these techniques and recognizing them as principles of transfer competence can help students make decisions when faced with translation problems, and in the professional world, help translators explain their choices when dealing with clients.”

Wakabayashi (2002: 3)

In the meanwhile, some very basic theories and techniques, such as a well-known outline of seven procedures (borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation) used in translation proposed by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet’s (2000: 85-92), could be introduced on the UG translation module.

Apart from those fundamental theories and basic techniques, translation competence could also be taught on this module. Competence refers to ‘*the ability to do something successfully or efficiently*’ (Oxford Dictionary Online, 2013), which suits the purpose of defining the act of performing the translation activity skillfully and productively. In linguistics, ‘competence’ is a speaker’s subconscious, intuitive knowledge of the rules of their language. It is often contrasted with performance.

There are three kinds of competence identified by Neubert (1994: 412), namely, language competence; subject competence; transfer competence. It is important to emphasize the necessity for sound language competence of both the SL and the TL, which is an essential condition, yet not the only one. Regarding the subject competence, UG students cannot be expected to have a wide range subject competence. Therefore, the texts need to be selected within the realms of general subject competence, then moving towards semi-technical texts (e.g. legal, medical, financial, technology, etc.). Transfer competence refers to “*the skill that distinguishes translators from people who are merely bilingual.*” (Wakabayashi, 2002: 1).

There is also an expanded version of basic competencies proposed by Wakabayashi (2002), namely, linguistic competence, contrasting differences, transfer competence, textual competence, terminological competence, quality control competence.

The quality of translation will depend on the quality of the translator, i.e. on her/his knowledge, skills, training, cultural background, expertise, and even mood! Newmark (1988) distinguishes some essential characteristics that any good translator should have:

- Reading comprehension ability in a foreign language
- Knowledge of the subject
- Sensitivity to language (both mother tongue and foreign language)

Competence to write the target language dexterously, clearly, economically and resourcefully

In addition, Tricás (1995) identifies intuition, or common sense as the most common of all senses; in other words, making use of that sixth sense, a combination of intelligence, sensitivity and intuition. This phenomenon works very well if handled cautiously:

“...the transfer process is a difficult and complex approach mechanism, one in which one must make use of all one’s intellectual capacity, intuition and skill.”

(Tricás, 1995)

The importance of cultural knowledge needs to be pointed out, as language cannot be divorced from its culture. Kaiser-Cook (1994: 138) pointed out, “*Translation is a process of conceptual restructuring within the conventions of the target culture.*”

Here are some examples I used in my class.

Example 1:

ST: 挥金如土

TT: Spending money like water

From the above example, it could be seen that change of imagery taking place in order to cater for the target culture.

Example 2:

ST: Greek gift

TT: 存心害人的礼物, 黄鼠狼给鸡拜年—不安好心 (来源于著名的“特洛伊战争”)

In order to achieve a good understanding of the source text, good dictionary skills are essential in translation; however, we very often take for granted that students already have them. Students need to be asked to examine all the entries of a word in a bilingual dictionary, as correct dictionary use can also help students with idiomatic expressions.

Training in dictionary use may take the form of asking the students to examine the entries in a good bilingual dictionary. In the case of “pay attention”, the example mentioned above, students would be asked to look up the word “pay”, note the number and variety of entries, identify the abbreviations, and select the entry that is most appropriate for the phrase they are trying to translate.

Correct dictionary use can also help students with idiomatic expressions. These combinations of two or more words, whose special meaning cannot generally be guessed from the isolated meanings of the individual words, are particularly challenging for students. They need training in how to deal with them as a whole, and practice in trying to find the key word in the expression, e.g., You are pulling my leg. (你在开我玩笑吗?), where students would identify “pull” and “leg” as key words.

4. What are the procedures I adopted in my class?

The following step-by-step procedures (stages may sometimes be sequential and alternated) are adopted in my seminar, which has proven quite effective in my classes in terms of motivating students and improving the quality of students' work.

i. **Selection of the Material:** According to defined objectives for translation practice, texts will be chosen by taking into account the degree of difficulty of the texts (semantic, cultural, stylistic, etc.), the topic (science and technology; social, economic and/or political topics; and literary or philosophical works), and so on.

ii. **Pre-translation Analysis:** After skim reading through the text, students should be able to iden-

tify the source, the norm, the type of text, the register, the style and the readership of the text selected.

iii. **Thorough Understanding of the ST:** The students should read the whole text at least twice: The first time reading will focus on general understanding about the topic and the context-determined meaning. The second reading must be a deep reading, paying attention to potential translation problems, for instance, underlining unknown terms and confronting potential translation difficulties in the text with suitable translation procedures.

iv. **Assigning Task and First Draft:** The teacher then divides the text into as many segments as students in the group. Depending on the degree of difficulty and the length of the text, each student is assigned a fair portion of the text. If the topic is familiar to the students, they do a preliminary translation, which will probably lack naturalness, since students tend to transfer SL units into translation in TL (Newmark, 1988). This first approach can often be made orally and suggested annotations may be written in the margins. If the topic is completely unknown to the students, they should consult complementary literature, should resort to various documentation sources, especially parallel texts (those which are similar in nature and style) in the language of the original. By doing this step, students will achieve a deeper understanding of the topic in SL.

v. **Second Draft:** Students are encouraged to write a second draft of their own translation, handling the most suitable translation strategies and procedures and being faithful in the transfer of ideas.

vi. **Sharing Translation and Feedback:** Each student/group reads out her/his own version of the translated text. Everybody could stop the reading at the end of a given sentence and make some comments. Students have an opportunity to defend their work against criticism right after feedback.

vii. **Discussing about Issues in Translation:** As Newmark (1988) states, “translation is for discussion” (Newmark, 1988). Students should then be encouraged to take notes and discuss the (in)convenience of the contributions and comments arising from this analytical reading of each one of the different versions proposed. As a metacognitive activity, the students, assisted by the teacher, analyze the translation strategies and procedures used, and discuss the reasons taken into account in the choice of each analyzed criterion: “The ability to discuss translations in an objective way is central to a translator’s competence” , (Kusssmaul, 1995).

viii. **Final Draft Submission:** The students hand in the their revised draft and the teacher gives formative evaluation and makes comments on the one hand, and analyzes failures and weaknesses in the process, on the other hand.

In seminar sessions of this module, I believe that the teacher plays a role of a facilitator when completing the translation task, while the transfer process is accomplished by the students. I suggest my students to search all information sources available, including the written forms, or any other sources, e.g. their own translation teacher, topic-centered expertise, native speakers, and even transla-

tion software. For this process to be efficiently carried out, the following minimum condition should be met. Translators need to understand the ST, to have wide general knowledge, to handle the vocabulary of the topic in the SL as well as in the TL and, last but not least, to write in their native language well (Orellana, 1994).

5. Conclusion

To sum up, I have examined translation as a skill which does not depend solely on the knowledge of two languages, but on transfer competence and other related competencies, and considered how to introduce translation techniques at the undergraduate level through dictionary training, which help to solve translation problems. I have pointed out the importance of subject competence and cultural knowledge.

Can translation be taught at the undergraduate level? If students are introduced to transfer competence and steered away from the novice's idea that word-for-word rendering of texts in the target language constitutes translation, if they are trained in good use of the dictionary and learn to handle the linguistic differences of their language pair, then translation can be taught at UG level to students. I defend the idea that an UG translation module opens up a challenging world for students, who learn Chinese as a foreign language. Once students have been introduced to fundamental principles of translation and have gained insight into them through practice that also improves their language skills in each language—native language and foreign language, once they gain awareness of the importance of subject expertise and cultural knowledge, it will then be up to the individual student to decide whether to improve linguistic proficiency, to gain cultural knowledge and expertise in a specific or technical area, or to continue postgraduate translation courses.

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