科技与中文教学

Journal of
Technology and
Chinese Language Teaching

二〇一三年六月第四卷第一期
Volume 4 Number 1, June 2013

Articles

Columns

Reviews

颜伟 (Yan, Wei)，*北京语言大学(Beijing Language and Culture University)*

Contacts

The Use of ICT in Supporting Distance Chinese Language Learning － Review of The Open University's Beginners' Chinese Course
(运用信息通讯技术支持远程汉语学习——英国开放大学初级汉语课程评述)

Qian Kan
(阚茜)
The Open University
(英国开放大学)
qian.kan@open.ac.uk

Abstract: Information communication technology (ICT), when used appropriately, can support language learning as well as enhance the learning experience. Although there is a lot of research on the role of technology in distance language learning, there is relatively little research on how it is used to support Chinese language teaching and learning at a distance. This paper reviews the role of technology in The Open University's Beginners' course in Chinese. It describes and discusses how and why various technologies are used to support teaching and learning in a context that mixes text and online self-study with attending online and face-to-face tutorials, with regard to the challenges of teaching and learning Chinese at a distance. The paper draws on data from a mixture of questionnaires together with telephone interviews, forum messages and routine statistics to review and evaluate students' learning experience. In addition, the challenges and limitations of the chosen technologies are considered. The aims of this paper are as follows: i) to offer a fresh perspective on the understanding of distance Chinese language learning and teaching; ii) to share our experiences in the successful application of technology in learning and teaching; and iii) to examine the relationship between the use of technology and learning and teaching.

摘要：教育信息科技应用得当时能够支持语言学习并使学习过程愉悦。虽然有大量的研究是有关教育科技在远程外语教学中的作用，不过，有关如何将教育信息科技用于协助远程中文教学的研究相对来说还不多。本文旨于回顾教育信息科技在英国开放大学远程初级中文课程中的作用，并深入探讨如何在远程自学加面对面以及在线课堂环境中应用不同的教育科技与工具。本文以问卷、电话访谈、在线论坛帖子与统计数字来检视评量学生的学习经验。此外，并进一步探讨所使用的信息科技的局限以及挑战。希望透过本文的研究能提供汉语教师以及语言行政人员三点心得: 其一，提供更进一步了解远程汉语教与

学的新视角；其二，分享英国开放大学于语言教与学方面的成功应用
经验；其三，探讨信息科技的应用与语言教学之间的关系。

Keywords: Beginners' Chinese, distance language learning, role of
technology

关键词：初级汉语，远程外语学习，科技之作用

1. Introduction

In the last fifteen years, the accelerating development in information and
communication technology (ICT), the availability of mobile devices and applications and
wide range of tools and software have changed the way the language is learnt (Kirkwood
& Price, 2006; Nicolson et al, 2011; Kukulska-Hulme, 2012). Confronted with ever
increasing range and variety of new technologies, course designers and teachers are faced
with pedagogical and technological choices in order to ensure that the technologies
enhance rather than diminish the learning experience and that they help to achieve
learning outcomes.

Research has demonstrated that students' study behaviour is primarily driven not
by media and technology, but educational purpose and pedagogy (Price & Kirkwood,
2008). Students will probably make more and better use of technology if they know
precisely *why* rather than just *how* they should use a particular technology in their
learning. Weasenforth at al (2005) holds similar view and point out that the success of
any instructional technology depends on 'the pedagogical uses of technology rather than
on the technology itself' (p.195). Blake (2008, 2009) addresses the important issue of
how technology can be effectively implemented in the service of language teaching and
learning in a reader-friendly and informative fashion.

By reviewing the use of technology in the Beginners' Chinese course, some of the
Open University's (OU[1]) distance language teaching and learning practices, as well as
important technological considerations that have been adopted in the design and delivery
of the course, are discussed with the emphasis on:

1) an analysis of the challenges of a particular course, students profile and their needs;
2) the importance of knowledge and awareness concerning the most up to date
   technologies; and
3) particular considerations of various technologies, such as whether they a) are
   appropriate for the demands of the task, context, and learning goals; b) provide
   something which is not available through other existing channels; c) engage students
   in learning; and d) improve the quality of teaching and provide students with an
   improved learning experience.

---

[1] The Open University is the largest open and distance learning university in the UK with more than
250,000 students (Over 71% of OU students work full or part-time during their studies).

2. Background

In response to the increasing demands in language learning through distance education, the Department of Languages at The Open University (UK) introduced beginners' Chinese to its curriculum in November 2009 when 467 students were enrolled at the start of the course. In November 2010, a further 344 students were enrolled. This paper describes and evaluates the first two cohorts of the course. The statistics reported here are mainly from the 2009 cohort, which consist of: i) routine statistics from the course website about usage and student enrollment data provided by the university; ii) two questionnaires at the at the end of the course, one survey focusing on study motivation[2] and one end-of-course survey[3] on all aspects of the course; iii) forum messages; and iv) telephone interviews with 15 students on the use of online forums..

2.1 Course model and structure

Beginners' Chinese was designed according to the blended learning model. Although definitions of blended learning and teaching vary (Heinze & Procter 2004; Oliver & Trigwell, 2005), the concept refers to an approach to 'provide the kind of flexibility required if learning opportunities are to match the demands created by the economic and social changes' (Nicolson et al. 2011. p.4). Using this model, the course is delivered using a mixture of print, audio and online materials, face-to-face tutorials and synchronous online tutorials using Elluminate (see 3.3). The teaching materials, divided into 36 sessions, are carefully developed by The Open University for distance learning[4]. The total duration of the course is 44 weeks including 4 revision weeks and 4 weeks' break (i.e. 36 weeks of study time corresponding to 36 sessions). Students are expected to spend approximately 7 hours per week on learning each session, including:

- attending tutorials[5] (0.5 hour as not every week has a tutorial);
- studying the print and audio course materials (4 hours);
- doing interactive online exercises (1-2 hours); and
- completing assignments (0.5 hour as not every week has an assignment).

Of 252 study hours (based on an average figure of 7 hours per week), only 21 hours are time-tabled tutorials (splitting between face-to-face and online) spread over 36 weeks[6].

Unlike campus-based language classes, our tutorials take place after the self-study has taken place, that is to say, tutorials are not there to teach new vocabulary and grammar points, but to consolidate what has been learnt. Our face-to-face tutorials mostly focus on developing the speaking skill and give students the opportunity to interact with the tutor and fellow students. The online tutorials normally cover some difficult key

---

[2] 86 students of the 2009 cohort completed the online questionnaire.

[3] 108 students of the 2009 cohort completed the online questionnaire.

[4] There are two main course books with two practice books (in print and pdf to download) and 4 accompanying CDs (OU, 2009, 2010)

[5] Both the face-to-face and online tutorials are optional.

[6] A typical face-to-face tutorial runs for 2 hours on a Saturday as students have to travel to attend the session; and a typical online tutorial is between 1 hour and 1.30 hours.

learning points and provide students with the opportunity to practice the key structures of the sessions covered. The teaching plans and slides for tutorials are provided to all the tutors by the course team. Tutors are free to adapt them to the needs of their group. A 'Tutor group' consists of 15 to 20 students. Some tutors only have one group whilst others may have more than one. Each tutor is responsible for teaching both face-to-face and online tutorials of a particular group as well as marking assignments of that group.

Beginners' Chinese is a Level 1 course worth 30 points, which students can study as a stand-alone course outside of a qualification or as part of a degree (e.g. as one of the options for BA in Modern Languages).The course teaches Mandarin Chinese in its standardized spoken modern form (Putonghua) and in simplified characters. The intended learning outcomes are comparable to A2 as defined by the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001). The assessment strategy for the two cohorts discussed here comprises a combination of six 'continuous assessments' (i.e. periodically throughout the course) and an end-of-course assessment (including a Reading/Writing paper and a Speaking paper). Students are advised to follow the Study Calendar (see Figure 1) which gives a broad outline of when to study each session, the dates by which assignments need to be submitted and when to revise or take a break. Students are also encouraged to use the online study planner (see 3.1 below) which acts as a weekly guide to the various course materials. However, it is their choice when to study, where to study, what to study or when to take a break according to their own ways of learning or life style and need, with the guidance of their tutor. This level of flexibility, however, is allowed only on the condition that students' assignments are submitted, according to the deadlines of the Study Calendar. Tutors provide detailed feedback for each assignment, commenting on the strengths and weaknesses as well as what they should do to progress. Students can then make necessary adjustment so as to meet the learning outcomes. The issues connected with providing a structure through the Study Calendar and study planner versus flexibility will be discussed in 3.1 below.

Study Calendar 2010-11
L197: Beginners' Chinese

Study week	Start date	Course Books and Practice Books	Tutorials*	Assignment number	Cut-off date
0	25 Oct	Preparatory week			
1	1 Nov	Book 1, Unit 1, Session 1			
2	8 Nov	Session 2			
3	15 Nov	Session 3			
4	22 Nov	Session 4			
5	29 Nov	Revision		TMA 1	2 Dec 10
6	6 Dec	Book 1, Unit 2, Session 5			
7	13 Dec	Session 6			
	20 Dec	Break (1 week)			
8	27 Dec	Session 7			
9	3 Jan	Session 8			
10	10 Jan	Revision		TMA 2	13 Jan 11
11	17 Jan	Book 1, Unit 3, Session 9			

Figure 1: An extract from the 2010 Study Calendar for OU's Beginners' Chinese showing the first 11 weeks[7].

[7] Students can download the whole Study calendar. Tutorials column is there for them to fill in their own tutorial dates.

2.2 Challenges in teaching and learning Chinese at a distance

In addition to the widely recognized challenges of learning Chinese at beginners' level (which include tones and character recognition and writing; see, for example, Hu, 2010; Liang & van Heuven, 2007), there are various additional difficulties of learning Chinese at a distance. These include: time constraints, as most students have a full-time or part-time job in addition to a variety of domestic responsibilities so time-management is essential (张伟远, 2008; Yan & McCormick, 2010; 阚茜, 2012); lack of physical and visual presence of tutors and fellow students (Hurd, 2005); a lack of interaction and speaking opportunities (Hurd, 2005); and the demands and frustrations of ICT such as installing Chinese font, converting between characters and pinyin, incompatibility between files, and learning to use other online tools and software (Kan & McCormick, 2012).

An additional challenge concerns the diversity of student population and motivation. Unlike campus-based courses where students are more homogeneous in regard to age, qualifications and study goals the characteristics of OU students can vary considerably. For example, ages range from under 25 to over 70, educational backgrounds (see Table 1) also differ; and motivation is largely driven by factors such as learning for pleasure and academic challenge (see Table 2).

Table 1: Beginners' Chinese Students Profile. *n*= 467
(Source: Students Statistics Service, IET, enrollment data 2009, The Open University, UK)

Qualifications	No formal qualifications	3%
	Less Than 2 A-Levels[8]	12%
	2+ A-Levels or Equivalent	21%
	HE Qualifications	37%
	Postgraduate Qualifications	25%
	Not Known	2%

Table 2: Top 5 Reasons for Studying Chinese.

For pleasure and interest	37.2%
As an intellectual challenge	18.6%
To assist me in my present or future work	15.1%
To be able to communicate when visiting a Chinese-speaking Country	11.6%
To be able to communicate with Chinese-speaking friends or family	9.3%

This student profile is similar to students learning other European languages at OU. In the following section, I shall discuss how various technologies have been used to meet some of the above challenges such as time-management; lack of tutor presence and interaction; lack of speaking opportunities as well as learning tones.

---

[8] A levels are studied typically between the ages of 16-18 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

3. Use of technology

All language courses at the OU are supported by the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE)[9], which plays a central role in the beginners' Chinese course. A Virtual Learning Environment has been defined as a 'computer-based (as opposed to physical) environment in which learning is supported, made possible or encouraged' (Twinisles.dev, 2003). The VLE for beginners' Chinese course provides the link between print, electronic, audio and online learning materials, online instructions on using language software as well as guiding students through their weeks of study. In this regard, it offers students a weekly study planner, links to an online conferencing tool, digital resources, assessment materials, interactive language activities, study tips, news, online forums, etc. This new learning environment encourages as much interaction as possible in the second language learning, which is the welcoming learning environment Garret (1991) envisaged for computer-assisted language learning (CALL) nearly two decades ago. Below, I shall discuss how VLE encourages such interaction through the use of the following four tools: study planner, online conferencing tool, interactive language practices and online discussion forums.

3.1 Online study planner – providing structure for learning

Distance learners 'need a teaching and learning framework that engenders a high level of motivation to help them stay on track during the learning process' (Garrido, 2005, p.185). The online study planner (see Figure 2 and Figure 3) provides such a structure to help students better manage their time. In the post-course survey, when asked to identify three factors that were most important for distance language learners in the light of their experience of the beginners' Chinese course, the most frequently cited were as follows: first, being well-organized; second, enthusiasm and motivation, and third; a willingness to communicate. Data from the interview and forum messages indicated the combination of flexibility and a certain degree of structure increased retention rates. One student said in the interview: "I've had various stabs at trying to learn Mandarin before but I've never got as far as I have on this course. I've been to some good evening and adult ed[ucation] classes but I personally just don't have the discipline to do homework and revision on my own so the OU approach of set exercises and a timetable really works for me".

---

[9] This uses Moodle as the software base.

Figure 2: An extract from the 2009 cohort course website of OU's Beginners' Chinese (at first weeks of the course) showing Study planner in the middle.

Figure 3: A Close-up of Week 3 Study planner from the 2010 cohort course website of OU's Beginners' Chinese.

The study planner not only offers a structure for learning so that it helps students better manage their time (the check boxes are provided for students to tick after they finish each task), but also they can interact and engage with the learning materials of that week because each link takes students to a different learning activity (see 3.3). As Figure 3 shows, each week starts with a plan for that week. For example, 'Plan for Session 3' takes students to a detailed listing of key learning points and things to do for that week. Because students' backgrounds, study goals and time commitment differ, some students only do the minimal work required whilst others might do everything listed in the

planner. For example, a 'minimalist' student may simply learn the key vocabulary, study the grammar points and do some activities in the print materials for each session. This may be due to work pressure or other commitment in life. If a student knows he is going to be busy in one month's time, he or she can plan ahead and study the sessions ahead of the time, and submit the next assignment before the cut-off date. At the other end of the spectrum, some students might do everything in the study planner. However, those that *seem* to do everything may not actually do everything. For example, students who were very good at character recognition tended to skip some reading exercises. Evidence for this was obtained from the course forum where these students shared their learning strategies and discussed how many activities they had completed. It is this combination of structure plus flexibility which helps students to stay on to the end of the course and achieve the learning outcomes.

3.2 Synchronous online conferencing tool - Elluminate

All the language courses at the OU have online tutorials using Elluminate[10], an online synchronous web conferencing tool. Elluminate is like a virtual classroom where a tutor and students in a 'Tutor group' meet at a timetabled slot in real time[11]. As previously mentioned, a student is allocated to a group with a tutor who runs face-to-face and Elluminate tutorials, and marks assignments. Physical location and time is variable and students can therefor join another tutor's face-to-face or online tutorial, but they must hand in their assignments to their own tutor. In addition to voice communication, there are visual tools like Text Chat and the Whiteboard where tutors can present the prepared teaching materials, be it text, images or video clips. Camera can be switched on if the tutor wishes to. Another particularly useful function of Elluminate for language learning is this: tutors can split a large group into pairs and send them to different virtual rooms with different activities preloaded on the Whiteboard so that they can conduct speaking practice in small groups. The Whiteboard allows students to manipulate tutor prepared slides so it is particularly suitable for language exercises such as dragging and dropping, filling in the blanks and re-ordering a sentence or paragraph. Tutors can also record a tutorial session with the consent of the group so that those students who missed the class can play the recording. This is rather like watching a video clip as it captures both the audio and the visual. A study by Stickler and Shi (2011) on the use of Elluminate in teaching Chinese reports the following main benefits of this tool: catering for feedback in different modes (audio and text); effective classroom management (tutors can preload tutorial materials); catering for different learner types (extrovert or shy, as a tutor can put them into different groups); less exposure for shy students; displaying characters and pinyin. However, there could be technical problems associated with the connection, audio quality, character editing on the Whiteboard etc. For such a tool to be successful and effective, it must be institutionally supported and both tutors and students need to be

---

[10] Lyceum, a conferencing tool developed in house, was introduced in 2002 (Hampel & Hauck 2004) but replaced by Elluminate for better audio quality and more sophisticated functionalities.
[11] Telephone tutorials are offered to students who do not have broadband access.

provided with appropriate training12. Teacher training is crucial in the use of new technology (Blake, 2008, ch.6)

In addition to using Elluminate for online tutorials to remedy the lack of tutor presence, another substantial benefit to students is that they can use it to practice speaking Chinese. Students are encouraged to organize meetings amongst themselves on Elluminate. As it is a web-based tool, students can access it at any time. On the course forum, there is much evidence that students organize such meetings. The tool has increased learners' opportunities to practice their spoken Chinese and it has also promoted the interaction between students.

3.3 Interactive online language exercises

To compensate for the lack of interaction between students and tutors, especially the relative absence of a Chinese-speaking environment in the UK, online language exercises are added to the Study planner in the VLE to help students revise and reinforce what they have learnt in a particular week so as to prepare them for the continuous and end-of-course assignments. They include speaking, listening, grammar and reading exercises. As spoken communication is a vital element in language learning, we have designed the online speaking practice, in part, to 'address the well-known drawback of learning a language at distance – the development and practice of oral skills' (Hurd, 2005, p.14). In each speaking exercise, students are given clear instructions as to what to do. For example, they may first hear a question, and then record themselves giving the answer using either verbal or visual prompts. They can then hear a sample recording with which to compare their own. The transcript of what they hear and the sample answer is accessible online. This is provided by the general facilities of the Moodle software, but specifically developed by OU to suit all of its language courses.

For the latter three skills, each practice session tends to include between 8 and 10 questions which are mostly multiple choice questions marked by computer (see Figure 4). They are interactive in the sense that students will get instant feedback about their performance[13]. For listening practice, students will see the transcript of the recording only after they have attempted all the questions and they are then encouraged to read the transcripts and listen to all the questions again. As character learning is one of the challenges in learning Chinese, the reading practice focuses on character recognition and reading comprehension.

---

[12] Elluminate is supported by OU's Helpdesk. The department provides drop-in training sessions for both tutors and students.
[13] Also known as iCMA (interactive computer-marked assignment) but they do not form part of the assessment.

Figure 4: An example of online reading exercise for Session 12

These online language exercises 'promote a degree of interaction with the audio-visual stimuli available within the course' (Garrido, 2005, p.184). They also put control into students' hands as they can decide which exercises to do, when to do them as well as taking as much time as they wish on a particular task. Routine statistics captured by VLE indicates that these online interactive materials were frequently accessed by students. Of the fifteen students interviewed, seven of them used most of the online materials. As the tasks range from easy to difficult, they suit both real beginners and false beginners who need more challenging tasks to keep them engaged with the learning. However, there are various limitations, which include the system being able to accept only one correct answer and the limited feedback on speaking.

3.4 Online discussion forums

Research has shown that one of the main factors in being a successful distance language learner relates to affective variables. Hurd (2005) points out that 'for the distance language learner, it is perhaps affective variables – beliefs, motivations and anxiety – that are of greater relevance [than other variables]'. Previous research shows that online forums are an ideal platform for peer support (Hammond, 2000) and for promoting learning and cohesion (Lamy & Goodfellow, 1999). For this reason, all the OU language courses have course-specific online forums. The challenges in learning Chinese at a distance mean that students need more support emotionally and academically.

For the 2009/2010 academic year group, there were three forums open to all students and tutors on the course: the course forum for discussing all course-related issues, the culture forum for students to share their reflections and opinions in Chinese-speaking cultures encountered in the course materials, and the café forum for arranging social activities and meetings. The most populated forum on Beginners' Chinese course was the course forum with 370 discussion threads and over 4,300 postings. Forum participation was voluntary and discussions were mostly in English. Kan and McCormick (2012) conducted a study on the 2009 cohort's course forum and the study shows that that online forums play a crucial role in building course cohesion and providing peer support as well as sharing learning strategies (especially strategies in learning characters).

The data from the motivation survey strongly supports this as the top three reasons for visiting the course forum were: i) bench-marking and being part of a learning community; ii) seeking support; and iii) giving support. Studies on the 2009 cohort's culture forum (Álvarez, 2011; Álvarez & Kan,2012) also indicate that this asynchronous text-based tool plays a very important role in supporting and contributing towards the learning of Chinese language as well as intercultural learning.

Although students' participation on the three forums is completely voluntary, the data collected in the study conducted by Kan and McCormick (2012) shows that 90.8% of students of 2009 cohort visited the forum (including both contributing and just reading) regularly or occasionally.

One of the bonus of online discussion forums is the immediate feedback the teaching staff can get as students discuss all course related issues including reporting the malfunction of some links and their difficulties and frustration with the technology so that the course team can respond in a timely fashion. Thanks to many useful suggestions by the 2009 and 2010 cohorts, many online language exercises have been updated, and the instructions on using many tools have been revised for the later cohorts.

4. Conclusion

Knowing student profile, study motivation and the challenges of learning Chinese at a distance were important in deciding appropriate technologies to be adopted for the course to help students achieve the learning outcomes and enhance their learning experience. The end-of-course survey was positive overall with 93.3% (the 2009 cohort) and 93.7 (the 2010 cohort) satisfied with the quality of the course; and 88.6% (the 2009 cohort) and 93.7% (the 2010 cohort) satisfied with the study experience. However, one of the challenges ahead of the Chinese team at OU is how best to integrate various learning resources to maximize learning outcomes without overloading students.

The main argument of this paper is that the design and delivery of a course must be decided by pedagogy and educational outcomes rather than by technology. In the meantime, we must bear in mind the impact of ever increasing new technologies on teaching and learning. When adopting a particular technology, considerations must be given to how the technology can meet the challenges and the demands of the task, context, and learning goals; if it has the added value; if it engages students in learning; and finally if it improves the quality of teaching and enhances the learning experience.

Further research needs to be done to understand more about students' attitude towards the new technologies, how they use them and their experience with them so that teachers and course designers can come up with better and more enjoyable courses.

References

Álvarez, I. (2011). Learning about Chinese-speaking cultures at a distance. In J. Fenoulhet & C. Ros i Solé (Eds.), *Mobility and Localisation in Language Learning. A View from Languages of the Wider World* (pp. 145-172). Oxford: Peter Lang.

Álvarez, I. and Kan, Q. (2012) Supporting intercultural learning for beginners' Chinese learners at The Open University in the UK. In Cortazzi & Jin (Eds), *Researching Intercultural Learning: investigations in language and education,* Palgrave Macmillan. 209–234.

Blake, R. J. (2008). Brave new digital classroom: Technology and foreign language learning. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Blake, R. J. (2009). The Use of Technology for Second Language Distance Learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93, Focus Issue, 822-835

Council of Europe. (2001). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Garrido, C. Course Design for the Distance Learner of Spanish: More Challenges than Meet the Eye. In Holmbergr, B., Shelly, M & White, C (Eds), Distance Education and Languages. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd, 2005, 178-194

Garrett, N. (1991). Technology in the service of language learning: Trends and issues. Modern Language Journal, 75, 74–101.

Hammond, M. (2000). Communication within on-line forums: the opportunities, the constraints and the value of a communicative approach. *Computers & Education, 35*(4), 251-262.

Hampel, R. and Hauck, M. (2004). Towards an effective use of audio conferencing in distance language courses. *Language Learning and Technology*, 8(1), 66–82.

Heinze, A., and Procter, C. (2004). Reflections on the use of blended learning, proceedings of the conference 'Education in a Changing Environment', Salford, 13-14 September 2004. Retrieved from http://www.ece.salford.ac.uk/proceedings/papers/ah_04.rtf

Hu, B (2010). The challenges of Chinese: a preliminary study of UK Learners' perceptions of difficulty. *Language Learning Journal*, 38, No.1, April 2010, 99-118.

Hurd, S. (2005). Autonomy and the Distance Language Learner. In Holmbergr, B., Shelley, M and White, C. (Eds), *Distance Education and Languages*. Multilingual Matters Ltd., 1-19.

Kan, Q. and McCormick, R. (2012). Building course cohesion: the use of online forums in distance Chinese language learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, DOI:10.1080/09588221.2012.695739

Kirkwood, A. and Price, L. (2006). Adaptation for a Changing Environment: Developing learning and teaching with information and communication technologies. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*. Vol 2, No. 2, 1-14.

Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2012). Language learning defined by time and place: A framework for next generation designs. In: Díaz-Vera, Javier E. (ed.). *Left to My Own Devices: Learner Autonomy and Mobile Assisted Language Learning. Innovation*

and Leadership in English Language Teaching, 6. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 1–13.

Lamy, M-N. and Goodfellow, R. (1999) Supporting Language Students' Interactions in Web-based Conferencing. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, Vol. 12, No. 5, 457-477.

Liang, J. and van Heuven, V.J. (2007). Chinese tone and intonation perceived by L1 and L2 listeners.   In Gussenhoven, C & Riad, T (Eds), *Tones and Tunes: Experimental studies in word and sentence prosody,* 27-62. Walter de Gruyter.

Nicolson, M., Murphy, L. and Southgate, M. (2011). Language Teaching in a Changing World: Introduction and Overview. In *Language Teaching in Blended Contexts*. (Eds) Nicolson, M., Murphy, L. and Southgate, M. Edinburgh: Dunedin Academic Press Ltd.

Oliver, M. and Trigwell, K. (2005). 'Can "blended learning" be redeemed?' *E-Learning*, Vol. 2, No. 1, 17-26.

OU. (2009). *L197 beginners' Chinese* (Book 1 and Practice Book 1). Milton Keynes: The Open University.

OU. (2010). *L197 beginners' Chinese* (Book 2 and Practice Book 2). Milton Keynes: The Open University.

Price, L., & Kirkwood, A. (2008). Technology in the United Kingdom's Higher Education Context. In Scott, Shelleyann and Dixon, Kathryn C. (eds.). *The Globalised University: Trends and Challenges in Teaching and Learning*. Perth: Black Swan Press, 83–113.

Stickler, U. and Shi, L. (2011) Learning to Speak Mandarin at a Distance. Presentation at the 16th World Congress of Applied Linguistics (AILA conference), Beijing, August 23-28 2011

Twinisles.dev. (2003). Learning and the impact of Technology. Accessed on 30 October 2012: http://www.twinisles.com/dev/research/learnit.htm

Yan, H. B. and McCormick, R. (2010). Rethinking time management in online learning: two cases supported by different strategies. Unpublished paper.

Weasenforth, D., Meloni, C. F. and Biesenbach-Lucas, S. (2005). Learner Autonomy and Course Management Software. In Holmbergr, B., Shelley, M and White, C. (Eds), *Distance Education and Languages*. Multilingual Matters Ltd., 195- 211.

阚茜. (2012). 从《步步高中文》到《第一步》- 远程汉语教材改编案例. 国际汉语. 2012 (2).

张伟远. (2008). 网上学习支持服务的方法和策略. 现代远程教育研究. 2008 年 5 期 (总 95 期)， 5-9.

Teaching Chinese to Indian Students: An Understanding
(教印度学生学汉语：一些认识)

Geeta Kochhar
(康婧)
Jawaharlal Nehru University
(尼赫鲁大学)
geeta@mail.jnu.ac.in

Abstract: The paper highlights the difficulties of learning Chinese language for Indian students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, while reemphasizing the point that Chinese language in itself is one of the toughest languages, especially in India where it has to be learned through another foreign language i.e. English. The paper hypothesizes that multilingual speakers of any community faces greater problems of learning new languages when the medium of teaching is not their mother tongue and when there is lack of target language environment with proper infrastructure. The study is based on a questionnaire circulated among 79 students between the age group of 18 to 30 learning Chinese as a major. Respondents belong to various regional and linguistic backgrounds, but residing and learning Chinese in Delhi. In addition, speech recording analysis and answer scripts analysis is done to identify practical problems faced by the students of Jawaharlal Nehru University. The study excludes those who acquired the language more than three years ago.

摘要：印度学生虽然有多种语言的背景，可是学汉语的时候有不少困难。汉语本身就是难以掌握的语言，不过，对印度学生来说，通过一个外语，即英语，掌握汉语是最大的难点。本论文认为，会说多种语言的群体如果不用母语来学外语而且也没有目的语言的环境，就难以掌握外语。本论文用尼赫鲁大学 79 个学生的实际考察来作分析。结果发现间接方法来教汉语是学生掌握不了汉语的最大原因。印度大学的汉语教材陈旧，当地教师的缺乏，以及缺少当地语言环境是其他的困境。先进技术的使用可以消除一些困难。

Keywords: Indian students, Chinese language learning, non-native language and multilingual environment, learning difficulties

关键词：印度学生，汉语学习，非母语多语言环境，学习难点

1. Introduction

Acquiring Chinese language skills in India is at its peak. Young school graduates as well as professionals are all trying to cash in on improved India-China relations. However, the centers for learning are not keeping pace with the amplified demand. The long established institutions are the prime locations for well formulated and intense Chinese learning courses, though some private and other grant-in-aid institutes have sprung up to fill the gap. The main hindrance to basic and advanced Chinese language skills, apart from the lack of highly qualified language teachers and native speakers, is the diversity of students and their demands. This paper highlights the difficulties of learning Chinese language for Indian students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, while reemphasizing the point that Chinese language in itself is one of the toughest languages to master, especially in India where it has to be learned through another foreign language i.e. English.[1] The paper hypothesizes that multilingual speaker of any community faces greater problems of learning new languages when the medium of teaching is not their mother tongue and when there is lack of target language environment with proper infrastructure.

To date, in India, there has been no field study to analyze and assess the problems of learning Chinese language, though there have been a few studies to understand the state of Chinese language and Chinese studies in a holistic manner.[2] Although some studies dwell on the challenges and problems of teaching Chinese language in India, they fall short of incorporating students' perspectives in their analysis as there is lack of fine grained qualitative data from students' perspective. This paper is an attempt to present a new perspective wherein my personal teaching and learning experience clubbed with students' response to a questionnaire forms the basis for an overall understanding of teaching Chinese language to multilingual speakers in India.

2. Methodology

The study uses a questionnaire (See Appendix II) circulated among 79 students learning Chinese belonging to varied regional and linguistic backgrounds but residing and learning Chinese language in Delhi. The survey basically includes graduate and post-graduate students of Chinese language (having Chinese as their major) between the age group of 18 to 30 (85% aged 18-24, 13% 25-30, and 2% above 30, See Chart 1). In addition, out of the total number of respondents, 18 Basic and Intermediate level students

---

[1] English language in this paper is regarded as a foreign language, though it is the official language in India. The reason being, among the members of larger Indian community, although English is a medium of formal interactions, it is still not the communicative language among a majority of Indians who prefer to use their local language/dialect. This results in poor, and at times very poor, level of competency. The subjects used in this paper as well do not possess high degree of proficiency and understanding of English level though most are college level educated students.

[2] See H.P. Ray (2004), Tan Chung (1999), Zhao Shouhui (1996).

along with 8 Advance level students were selected for recording speech while speaking Chinese language. Varied sounds are given to them on the basis of problems highlighted in response to the questionnaire and speech recordings analyzed to identify practical problems in pronunciation (See Chart 4). The respondents for speech recording are selected on the basis of representation of different regions of India ensuring a diversity of language backgrounds, though all belong to Jawaharlal Nehru University for which they cleared an entrance exam in English. In addition, few answer scripts of previous four years of the students belonging to graduate and under-graduate level of Jawaharlal Nehru University are used to analyze the practical problems of language learning, relating it with the responses to the questionnaire to form a cross corroboration. The entire methodology process does not include students who have acquired the language more than three years ago, but focus on those who form a part of the current high tide, whereby the motivation of learning Chinese to easily get jobs. The limitation of the survey is its limited area, though the representation is remarkable except in case of sound recordings.

3. Broader Understanding

Teaching of Chinese language in India began back in 1918 in Calcutta University, West Bengal. Due to shortage of students, the course had to be abandoned. Later, in 1937 with the setting up of Cheena-Bhavana (中国学院) in Viswa Bharti University also located in West Bengal, Chinese language teaching was formally institutionalized.[3] This was a joint effort of Gurudeva Rabindranath Tagore and Prof. Tan Yunshan. The setting up of Cheena-Bhavana was a "pledge to maintain the intercourse of culture and friendship" between the two nations and its people.[4] The prime objective envisaged by Prof Tan Yunshan was also to amalgamate the feelings of the people of both countries and to create peace among the nations. The Sino-Indian Cultural Society was as a major actor in promoting this vision. Later by the end of 1960s, although Delhi University and Jawaharlal Nehru University, now the prime locations of teaching Chinese besides Viswa Bharti University, started Chinese language courses, the learning of Chinese language in India was put on a backburner due to the downturn in China-India relations. With the normalization process since 90s, interest in Chinese language in India has been revived with greater thrust and vigour.

At present, there are a host of Universities and Institutes, which offer Chinese language courses as Certificate, Diploma or Degree courses in India. However, the major obstacle lies in the production of textbooks that can cater to the real needs of Indian students. This is in addition to the bottleneck of having adequate native teachers and a sound language environment. Quantitative feedback from students supporting the contention that lack of native speaking teachers is a significant problem. The survey shows, 53% of the respondents feel that the environment to teach Chinese in India has to be improved and 48% feel that their course books need to be improved (See Chart 2). The demand for a native Chinese teacher is resonating among both the teaching as well as

---

[3] Zhao Shouhui, p. 106.
[4] Rabindranath Tagore, Address at the Opening Ceremony of Visva-Bharati Cheena Bhavana, April 14, 1937 India and China cited in Tan Chung, *In the Footsteps of Xuanzang: Tan Yun-shan and India*, p. 29.

learning community. The survey reflects that 33% of the students seem to think that having a native teacher would have been better, while 25% of others are assertive to say that native Chinese teacher is definitely better to teach a foreign language. There are 28% more who think that probably a native Chinese teacher is better than local teacher. The maximum number of respondents, accounting for 39% of the total, relate the need for native Chinese teacher for creating a better environment of teaching Chinese, while 30% relate it for creating a better cultural environment and 29% for having a near perfect style of speech (See Chart 3). There were also individual respondents who believe that native Chinese teacher is better at higher levels and is good for boosting confidence level of students in speaking the language. A strong point made by a respondent is also that the native Chinese teacher is good only if he/she knows proper ways of teaching.

The discourse of having adequate and well-qualified teachers to teach Chinese in India is a focal point of building a strong base of Chinese language learning in India. Every year hundreds of students pass out as graduates in the language, but there is a whole dilemma of acquiring basic fluency of speech and knowledge, but lack of proficiency and accuracy. This is also for the reason that the standards for grading individual proficiency are not based on internationally acknowledged HSK (汉语水平考试 Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi) tests; meaning to date Indian education system does not accredit HSK evaluation system. Hence, the proficiencies acquired for Chinese language in India varies according to the institutes and universities, rather than any binding standardized system. This hinders the production of high caliber teachers at one level, and overall requirement of abilities of students at other.

4. Regional Variations and Articulation Issues

India is a unique multilingual and diverse society wherein a person from the northern belt finds the language spoken by the southerners as a foreign language and vice-versa. Same is the case among other parts of India. Having 452 languages including 22 official scheduled languages[5] and hundreds of dialects, people are born with a knack of acquiring different languages and dialects. In particular, English language though being a foreign language to this land, has been incorporated as one of the official languages in the Indian constitution. This has its pros and cons for people acquiring other foreign languages. The major advantage is that since childhood children are accustomed to acquiring different scripts, develop the ability to moderate speech, and memorize various language vocabularies. However, the worst drawback of such learning pedagogy is the limitation to a deeper understanding of the target language as the medium of teaching, in this case English, in itself is incomprehensible. This poses a grave concern for the future of high caliber Sinologues in India.

The survey incorporated 30% of students belonging to North India, 3% belonging to South India, 56% from East India, 3% from West India, and another 3% from Central parts of India along with five foreigners (accounting for 6%) including one Chinese

---

[5] "Languages of India", Ethnologue.

native born and brought up in India (See Chart 1). The reason for overwhelming majority of students belonging to Eastern part of India is attributed to: (a) Chinese language teaching in India started from Eastern part of India; (b) China-India links due to Buddhism relates in Eastern India; (c) Jawaharlal Nehru University in particular, from where majority of the respondents are selected, encourages students from all backward and lower strata of the society to avail higher education. This, however, does not influence the overall outcome of the result as the heterogeneity of the respondents is maintained and they are the representative group of learning Chinese language in India.

The mother tongue of 59% of the respondents is Hindi, while 41% has other languages as their mother tongue and only one (Overseas Chinese) having English as her mother tongue. In addition to this, 57% of the respondents know one, two or three Indian languages other than their mother tongue, while 27% of them at least know one foreign language besides English (See Chart 1). Although nurtured under such multilingual backgrounds, yet the majority of the respondents tilt towards having a combination of English and their mother tongue as a medium of teaching Chinese. English is an official medium of teaching in India for all levels of courses after primary education. It is also recognized as one of the more comprehensible languages for students belonging to varied linguistic backgrounds. Although the level of English language of students coming to JNU on an overall is not very high, yet 29% of the respondents feel that English can remain as the main medium of teaching. There are also 14% of those who feel that a combination of English and Chinese can be applied for an improvement of the target language; however, there are only 6% who agree to Chinese language as a direct medium of teaching the target language, emphasizing the point that it should apply at higher levels of language learning (See Chart 2).

5. Pronunciation Problems

Learning accurate ways of pronouncing the four tones of Chinese language remains a challenge for Indian learners even at a very advance stage of learning process. With regard to the articulation of sounds, a major difficulty lies in learning "ü" sound at the initial stages. However, the survey highlights the fact that a greater issue lies with articulating sounds such as "Zi", "Ci", "Ze", "Ce", "Zhi", "Chi," "S", "Sh", "Re", "Ri", "P", "F". The sound recording of the learners reflect the practical problems. Out of the total subjects whose voices are recorded, half have their mother tongue as Hindi, while the other half have other regional languages as their mother tongue. This applies to the basic and intermediate level learners as well as to the advance learners. The following practical problems are observed:

5.1 Unable to Differentiate an/ang

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 57% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 29% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "an" and "ang" sounds (See Chart 5). However, this problem is rectified by the time they reach advance levels of learning.

5.2 Unable to Differentiate en/eng

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 43% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India along with 14% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "en" and "eng" sounds (See Chart 5). However, this problem is also rectified by the time they reach advance levels of learning.

5.3 Unable to Differentiate Ze/Ce

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 43% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 14% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Ze" and "Ce" sounds; while 100% of Southerners face this difficulty (See Chart 5) . However, this problem also does not pose major issue at advance levels of learning.

5.4 Unable to Differentiate Zi/Ze

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 57% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 57% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Zi" and "Ze" sounds; while 100% of learners from Central, Western and Southern parts of India find it difficult to articulate. Even at the advance levels, 50% of learners from Northern parts and 25% from Eastern parts of India continue to have problems differentiating these sounds (See Chart 5).

5.5 Unable to Differentiate Zi/Ci

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 57% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 57% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Zi" and "Ci" sounds; while 100% of learners from Central and Western parts of India along with 50% from Southern find it difficult to articulate. Even at the advance levels, 50% of learners from Northern parts and 25% from Eastern parts of India continue to have problems differentiating these sounds (See Chart 5).

5.6 Unable to Differentiate Zhi/Chi

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 57% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 86% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Zhi" and "Chi" sounds; while 100% of learners from Central and Southern parts of India find it difficult to articulate. Even at the advance levels, 75% of learners from Eastern parts of India continue to have problems differentiating these sounds (See Chart 5).

5.7 Unable to Differentiate Re/Ri

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 14% learners belonging to Eastern parts of India and 29% belonging to Northern parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Re" and "Ri" sounds; while 100% of learners from Central and Southern parts of India find it difficult to articulate (See Chart 5). At the advance levels, however, half of the learners from Eastern and Northern parts of India continue to have problems differentiating these sounds.

5.8 Unable to Differentiate Pa/Fa

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 14% learners belonging each to Eastern parts and Northern parts of India along with 100% from Western and Central parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Pa" and "Fa" sounds. For 50% of those belong to Northern parts of India, the problem remains even at the advance level (See Chart 5).

5.9 Unable to Differentiate Ji/Qi

The sound analysis of basic and intermediate level learners show that 100% learners belonging Central parts of India cannot accurately differentiate the articulation of "Ji" and "Qi" sounds; while 50% of those belong to Northern parts of India have this problem even at the advance level (See Chart 5).

Other sound differentiation of u/iu, Ba/Pa, Di/Ti, Ji/Xi, Xi/Qi, Za/Ca, Zha/Cha, Xu/Yu are like the teething problems, but there are a few who face severe problems of differentiating Sa/Sha. 50% of those belonging to Northern parts of India have this problem even at advance level of learning (See Chart 5). Interestingly, most of the learners at advance levels do not show any of the sound differentiation and articulation problems when they have been trained in China for a year, implying that in a sound environment most of the problems are rectified.

6. Functional Challenges

Grammar of a language defines the rules and ways in which a properly constructed sentence can be used. Chinese grammar is largely different from the grammar of many of the Indian languages and hence, poses a different set of perceptional problems for many Indian learners. The survey found that learners feel they have a variety of problems, some of which are common with foreign learners of Chinese language. These range from "use of phrases", "use of compliments of direction", "placement of adjective and nouns", "word order", "active and passive voice sentences" to "use of measure words", "'ba' and 'le' constructions" etc. However, there is no denial of the fact that many of these problems in India stem not from the basic difficulty of Chinese language per se, but from the conceptions of grammar based on English language or their Regional

language (i.e. their Mother tongue). Hence, the sentences students make are literal translation of English or regional language structure, rather than having any understanding of Chinese structure, style, manner of speech. Few examples from intermediate and advance learners' examination copies are highlighted below to present the understanding of Indian learners.

6.1 English Grammar as a Concept

（i）	我明白了全事情。	(I understood everything)
（ii）	我想学习在屋里。	(I want to study in my room)
（iii）	我也要跟她去。	(I also want to go with her)
（iv）	今天我起床七点钟。	(Today I got up at 7 O'clock)

6.2 Regional Grammar as a Concept

（i）	以后，他没有别人说。	(After that he did not tell anyone)
（ii）	他的心里没有东西。	(He had nothing in his heart)
（iii）	我的生活也发生得多。	(Even in my life many things happened)

Problems also arise from the lack of deeper understanding of certain grammatical constructions. Below are some such examples.

6.2.1 The use of "dou" (都)

Many times students relate the meaning of "dou" to all or everything. This kind of perception carries on even at advance stages of learning. Therefore, they create sentences like:

（i）	我有什么困难都帮我。	(No matter what problem I have, everyone will help me)
（ii）	我不能讲都东西。	(I cannot tell everything)

6.2.2 The use of "le" (了)

Even at advance level of learning Chinese, the use of "le" remains a big headache. The only understanding that gets strongly embedded in their minds is the use of "le" for making a past tense of the sentence. The sentences thus formed are:

（i）	毛泽东是第一个中华人民共和国主席了。	(Mao Zedong was the first President of the PRC)
（ii）	农民的生活很痛苦了。	(Life of peasants were very tough)

6.2.3 The use of "duo" (多)

For many beginners "duo" fits all sense of "many". Hence, they produce sentences like:

（i）　多人民来看。(Many people come to see)

Of course, there are many other problems which arise due to lack of deeper understanding of Chinese language such as:

（i）　Not able to place "nian" (年), or "shi" (市), or "sheng" (生) whenever a year or city or province etc. is mentioned.
（ii）　Unable to understand the reduplicated use of similar meaning words to emphasize the sentence like "jiaqiang" (加强), "zengqiang" (增强) etc.
（iii）　The use "wei le" (为了) for every translation of English sentence which contains the word "for".
（iv）　The indiscriminate use of suffix "men" (们) for making plural words like 学生们.
（v）　Unable to distinguish the use of "hua" (化) and "xing" (性).
（vi）　Unable to distinguish the use of similar meaning words like "biancheng" (变成) and "gaicheng" (改成) both meaning "to become"; "jinxing" (进行) and "juxing" (举行) both meaning "to hold" etc.

7. Infrastructural Problems and Motivational Factors

Apart from the influence of their Regional languages or the influence of English in the learning process, problems also arise to the lack of infrastructure facilities including quality of teachers, audio-visual labs, multimedia labs, and adequate localized textbooks. There has been no major stress on learning Chinese grammar in India. Although the basic and intermediate level books have elaborate grammatical explanations and exercises after the main text, but very little practical emphasis is laid on making the students work for it. At times, students also claim that faculty members are themselves not very clear of certain structures and usages. This leaves a major space for learners to engage in active self-learning for higher standards of understanding. In fact, students who have been to China for a year find themselves capable of dealing with a majority of such mistakes.

One of the major obstacles of proficient and high caliber sociolinguists in India is the aim with which students opt for foreign languages in India. Very few have a sincere desire to do in-depth research on the target language. The high tide in demand for learning a foreign language is marked by the fact that job prospects, which have declined in other fields, have gained accelerated momentum in high money-making temporary jobs relating to foreign languages. This applies to the amplified demand for learning

Chinese language as well. 44% of the respondents chose Chinese for the job prospects linked to it; while 34% found Chinese language as a new interesting subject to learn. There were 6% who went along the lines of the advice given by their friends and 4% who simply wanted to acquire a degree or certificate. Individual respondents also cited reasons as "interest in learning foreign languages" and "a requirement due to their business links with China". It is thus that having an intermediate level of Chinese language is adequate for practical needs of the individuals. Unless there is a strong mechanism to motivate the students, the sincerity of learning does not get a boost, which is also reflected in the level one attains.

The survey included 56% of those who have intermediate level of Chinese language, while 28% have basic level and 16% have advance level. These levels are imparted on a daily basis with a majority (85%) having two to four hours of language classes every day. At the basic level, text books with audio-visual tools are used, while the textual base expands at intermediate levels. Most teaching/learning is dependent on textbook and on some basic audio. Even though audio-visual tools are a part of the curriculum, except basic audio listening, other tools such as multimedia and visual classes for movies/documentaries/serials do not have functional usage in the present Indian context. This greatly hinders the contextual learning of the students.

7.1 Self-learning as a strong tool

Self-learning to a great level helps improve the levels of Chinese, but the hours spend on self-learning are also significant. Besides, during the self-learning process, it is very important to find out what were the motivations of self-learning. A vast number of respondents (43%) claim to have two-to-four hours of self-learning in a day to improve their language skills. There are 25% of those who do self-learning for four-to-six hours, 24% do for one-to-two hours, and 8% engage in six-to-eight hours of self-learning (See Chart 6). Overlooking the exaggerated/modest figures projected by some due to a questionnaire form required by their teacher to be filled, it is not wrong to posit that on an average three-to-four hours a day is what students devote to self-learning. However, the crucial aspect lies in what is the focus of self-learning. In this regard many respondents have opted for multiple choices, with the greater number (51%) putting their energies to preparing for the next day class along with a remarkable number (28%) revising the things taught in the class. This leaves a handful of those (9%) who learn Chinese language beyond classroom focus and a visibly low (6%) interested in reading on China. Examination fear in our system is so embedded that the focus of all learning activities revolves around attaining higher grades. Though there are 15% of respondents who engage in an all-inclusive learning process, 10% of respondents relate learning the language to "preparation for examination".

Self-learning coupled with in-and-out classroom environment generates or pacifies the interest in a language. In the present case, Chinese language students' motivation is maintained even though the environment for learning the language is not adequate. 81% of the respondents feel that Chinese is an interesting language though it is not very easy to learn. 11% feel it is a very tough language, while 6% feel it is more

difficult than learning English language (See Chart 7). Tones form the root problem of learning Chinese language, as none of the Indian languages are tonal languages. 35% of the respondents find difficulty in attaining proficiency in tones, which is the base of Chinese language aptitude. 22% respondents seem to be handicapped due to writing abilities of characters, while 25% feel the ease in writing characters (See Chart 7). However my practical experience says, even if many speakers of Chinese language in India are able to attain some intermediate levels, their ability to write with correct Chinese characters lags far behind. There are 18% respondents who feel Chinese language is difficult in all aspects vis-à-vis character writing, tones, grammar, pronunciation of sounds etc.

7.2 Internet as a medium of Self-learning

In the paucity of Chinese source materials in libraries as well as limited availability of books in Chinese, an increasing number have found Internet quite useful tool for self-learning. 61% of the respondents access internet sites for improving their language abilities or chat with on-line Chinese friends to enhance communicative skills (See Chart 8). In India, online chat rooms and p-to-p internet telephone technology has filled in the gap of lack of proper language environment. The disadvantages of such informal course structure with lack of proper guidance are also taken care with the new technologies. Delivering lectures and providing course material to students without personal long hour interaction, which is evolving as a new system called "coursecasting" and creating a new "iClass revolution" through an online podcast, will sooner or later require Indian teachers to rethink the way teaching can be imparted. [6]The issue will become significant when individual attention and personalized teaching will become the need of the hour. [7] Every individual students needs differs and this individual based teaching looks into an individual's interest and evaluates each as one case. This is as yet not taken care in the present system whereby 25-30 students form one class, although university guidelines have highlighted this issue.

In view of the above problems of learning Chinese language, 53% acknowledge that group discussion in Chinese should form the basic means of imparting language (See Chart 7). The view seems to emanate from the fact that contextual use of words and the usage of expressions in Chinese language are beyond the capabilities of mastering in classroom teaching. 14% of the respondents propose extensive use of audio-visuals along with 15% proposing enhanced cultural activities to understand the culture of China (See Chart 7). The cultural aspect vis-à-vis language learning has often been highlighted as an integral part of any language learning, but in case of Chinese, it acts as a tool of attaining proficiency in morphology and lexicons. There are only 18% who think textbook teaching is an apt pedagogy, while 5% advocate an all-inclusive teaching style (See Chart 7).

---

[6] "iClass: A Professor In Your Pocket".

[7] iClass is an intelligent cognitive-based open learning system and environment, adapted to individual learners' needs. The understanding of personalization in iClass is "personalization through and with empowerment". For further information see, http://www.iclass.info/iclass01.asp (31-08-07).

8. Recommendation and Concluding Discussion

Chinese learning in India has major bottlenecks starting from inadequate basic teaching materials to lack of native teachers. However, a less emphasized problem lies in the diversity of linguistic backgrounds of Indian learners. Though multilingual speakers, these learners face a greater challenge due to the handicap of teaching not based on their mother tongue. In India, as Chinese language, a foreign language, is taught via another foreign language i.e. English, as the main medium, the ability to acquire in-depth knowledge of the target language becomes low. It is due to this that many respondents feel that a direct approach to teaching with native teachers is a better choice, provided native teachers use native languages as a medium of teaching. Otherwise, an environment of native culture along with native teachers should be created to fill in the gaps. Indian universities/institutes have been lackadaisical in initiating any MoUs with Chinese universities, which will propel student/faculty exchange programmes. This will not only expose the students to native environment, but will also provide regular orientation for the faculties. In addition, the enthusiasm to engage in deeper research of the language, literature and culture will be created among a larger number of students, which presently is in a state of intensive care.

Better infrastructure facilities are already in place in some places, which requires high caliber teachers to use it for classroom teaching. Technologies like video, multi-media labs etc. for learning of foreign languages should now be utilized for Chinese language in India with updated software, books and other related materials from China. If such technologies are used, problems of sounds like "Pa/Fa", "Sa/Sha", and "Re/Ri" can be easily rooted out at the very basic level itself, while the differences of proper articulation of sounds like "Zi/Ze", "Zi/Ci", "Zhi/Chi", "Ji/Qi" could be better explained and corrective speech therapies adopted. For this, an individualistic approach is essential, whereby the sounds that do not exist in native language/mother tongue is given special emphasis at the very basic level.

The present books seem to be grossly inadequate with 48% of the respondents feeling that present course books need to be improved. In an environment where a large number of speakers have Hindi as their mother tongue or are having close linkages with Hindi language (in the present survey 59% had their mother tongue as Hindi and another 12% having a sound knowledge of Hindi language), textbooks and dictionaries designed in Hindi language, if not in all major regional languages, will be a very useful tool.

Last but not the least, contextual learning and serious study of rhetoric need to be introduced at intermediate and higher levels. This should be coupled with cultural understanding to produce quality sociolinguists.

References

"Languages of India", Ethnologue, at
        http://www.ethnologue.com/show_country.asp?name=IN (accessed 16 February
        2010).

"iClass: A Professor In Your Pocket", *SparkNotes*, 28 August 2007, at
        http://mb.sparknotes.com/sparktalk.epl?t=337720 (accessed 28 August 2007).
Ray, H.P. (2004). "Pioneers of Chinese Studies in India", *China Report*, Vol. 40, No. 3.
Tan, Chung. (1999). *In the Footsteps of Xuanzang: Tan Yun-shan and India*, New Delhi:
        Indira Gandhi National Centre for the Arts.
Zhao, Shouhui. (1996). "Chinese Studies learning and teaching of Chinese in Cheena
        Bhavan" (赵守辉，印度国际大学中国学院的汉学研究与汉语教学)，
        Chinese Teaching in the World (世界汉语教学), 1(35), (pp. 106-107).

Appendix I: Charts Based on Survey & Sound Analysis

Chart1: Description of the Respondents

Chart 2: Indian Environment

Chart 3: Native Chinese Teacher

Chart 4: Basic Description of Sound Recording

Chart 5: Major Sound Problems of Respondents

Chart 6: Education level, focus and Reasons for Learning Chinese

Chart 7: Rating Chinese and Best Method to Teach

Chart 8: Sources of Self-learning and the Need Analysis
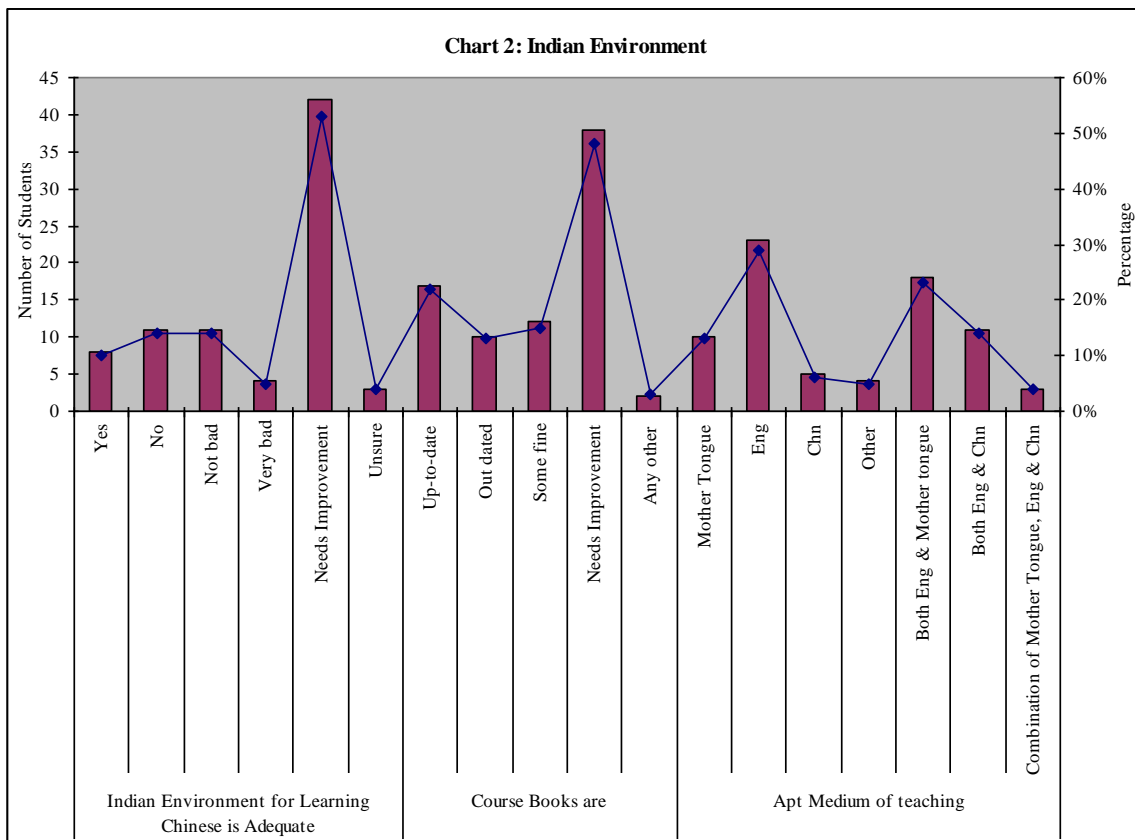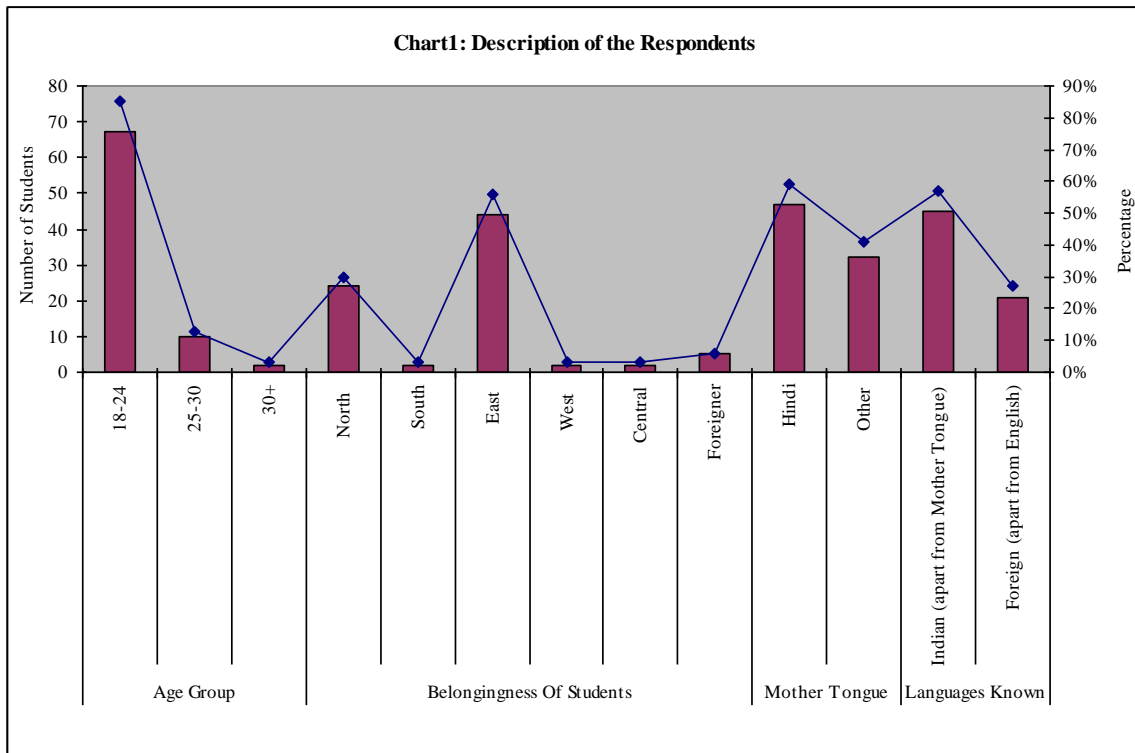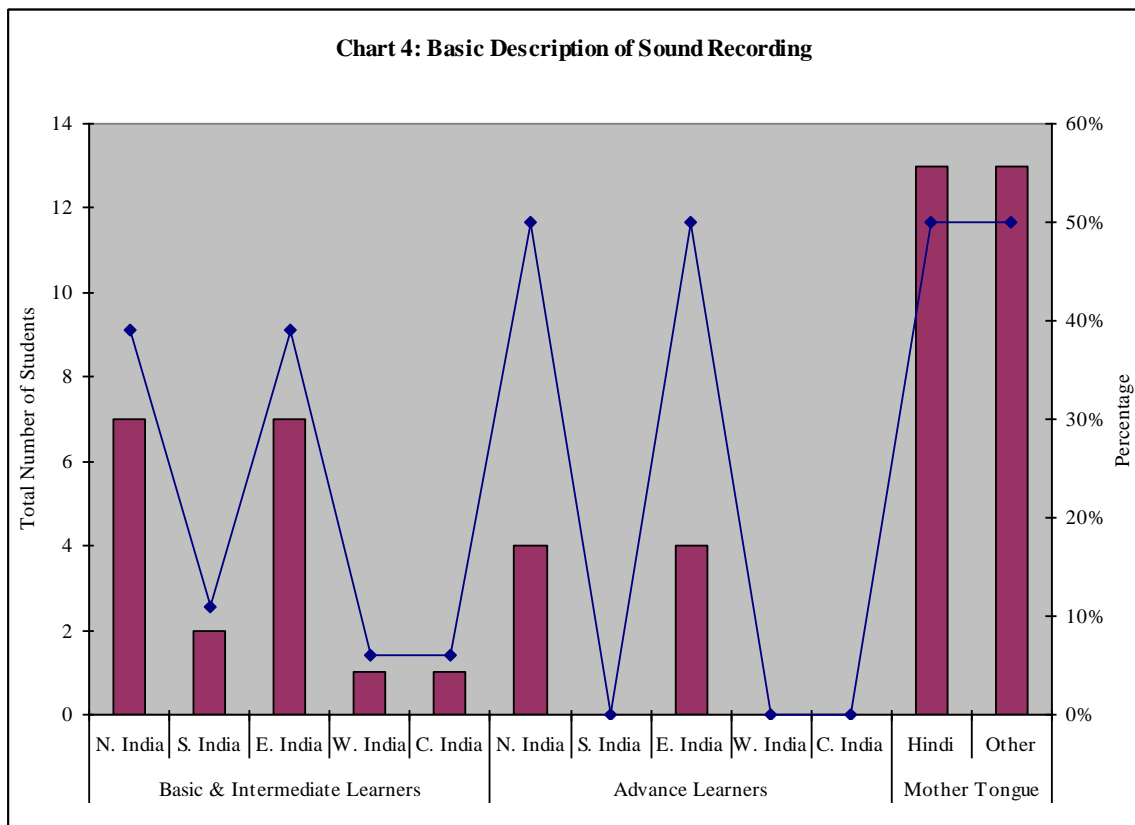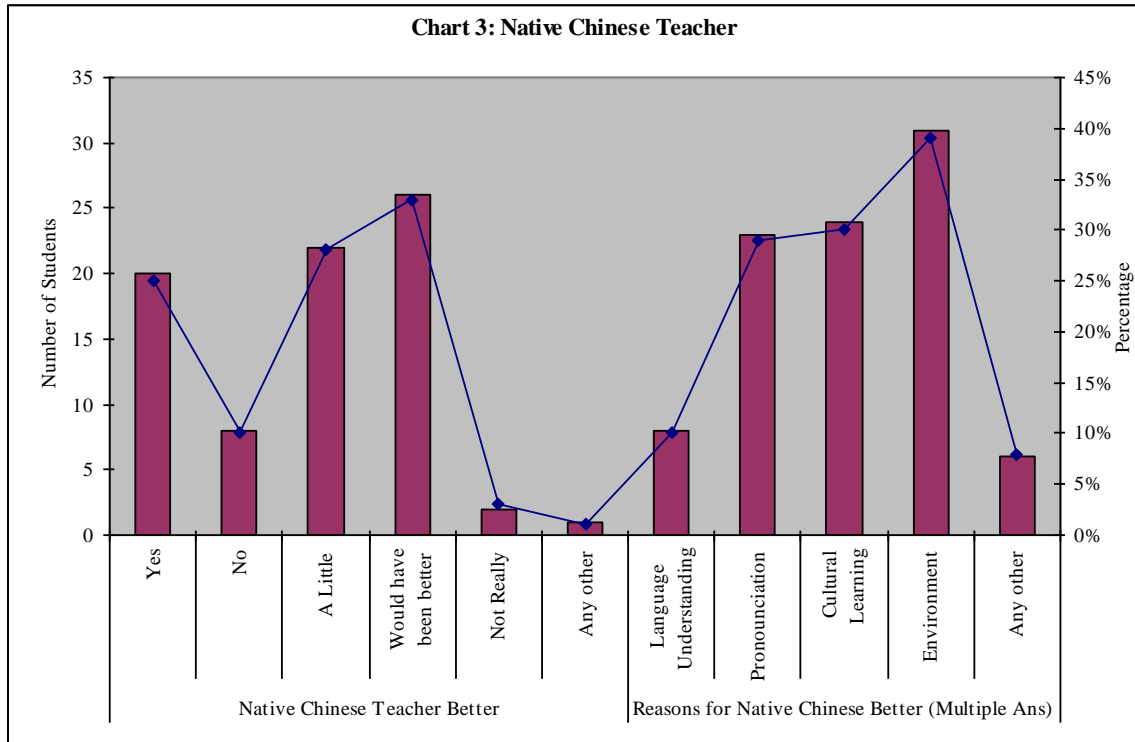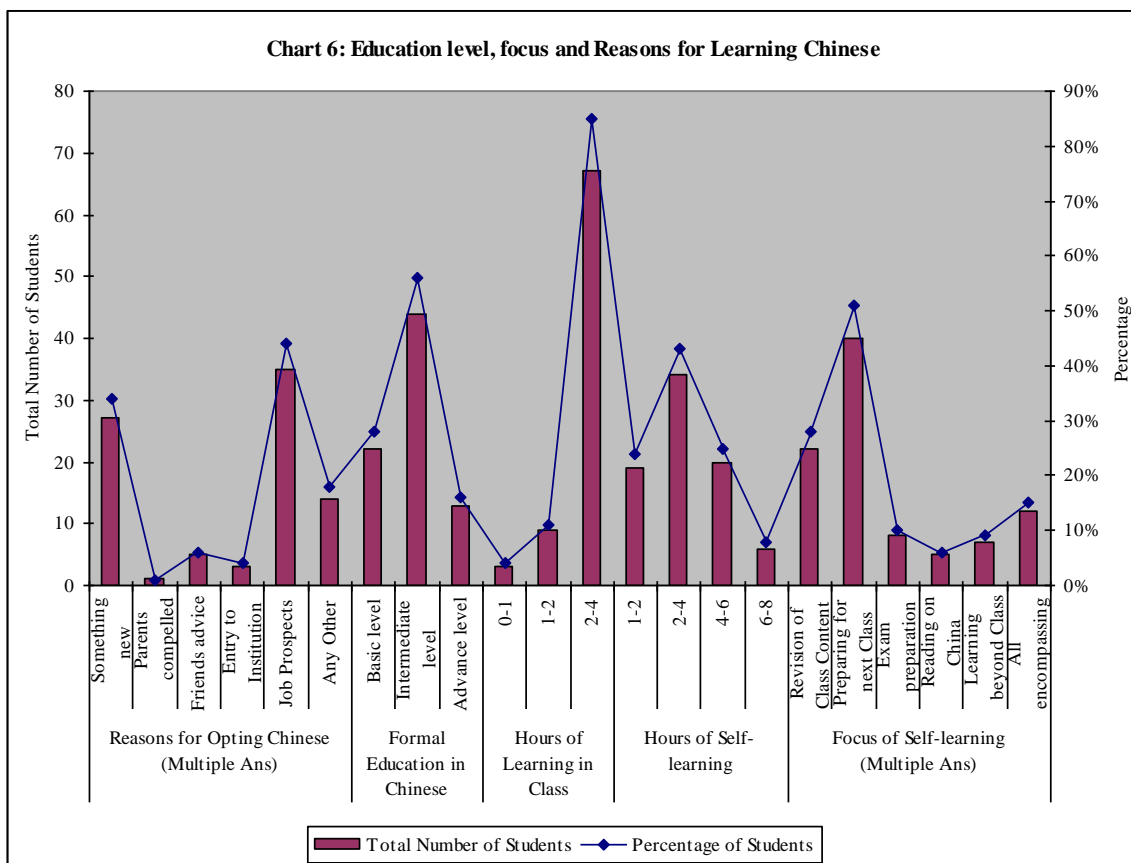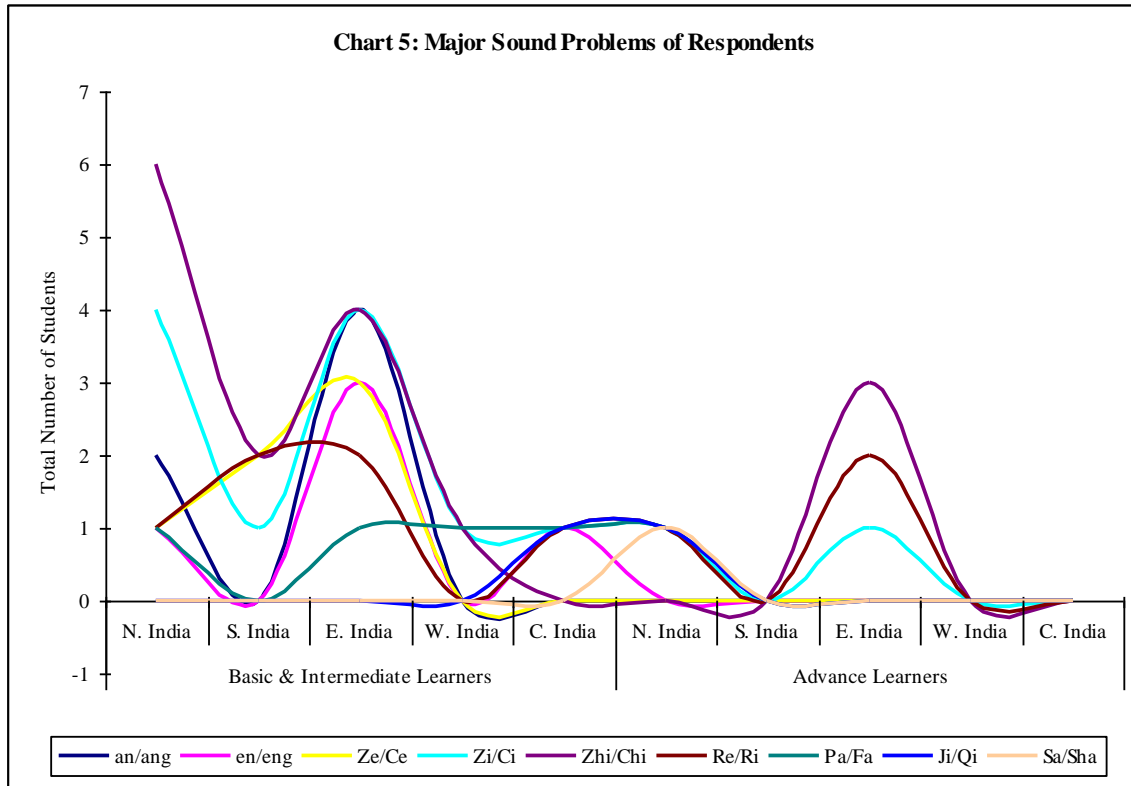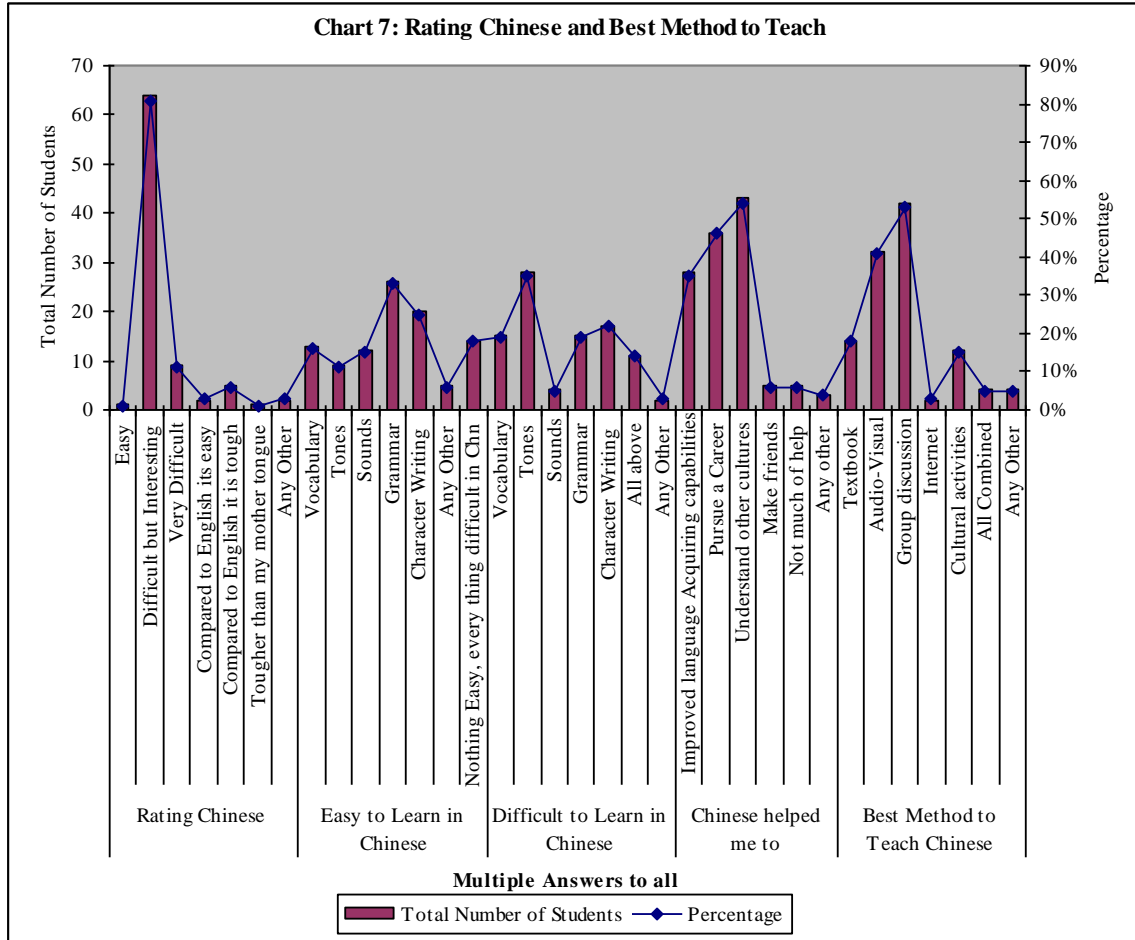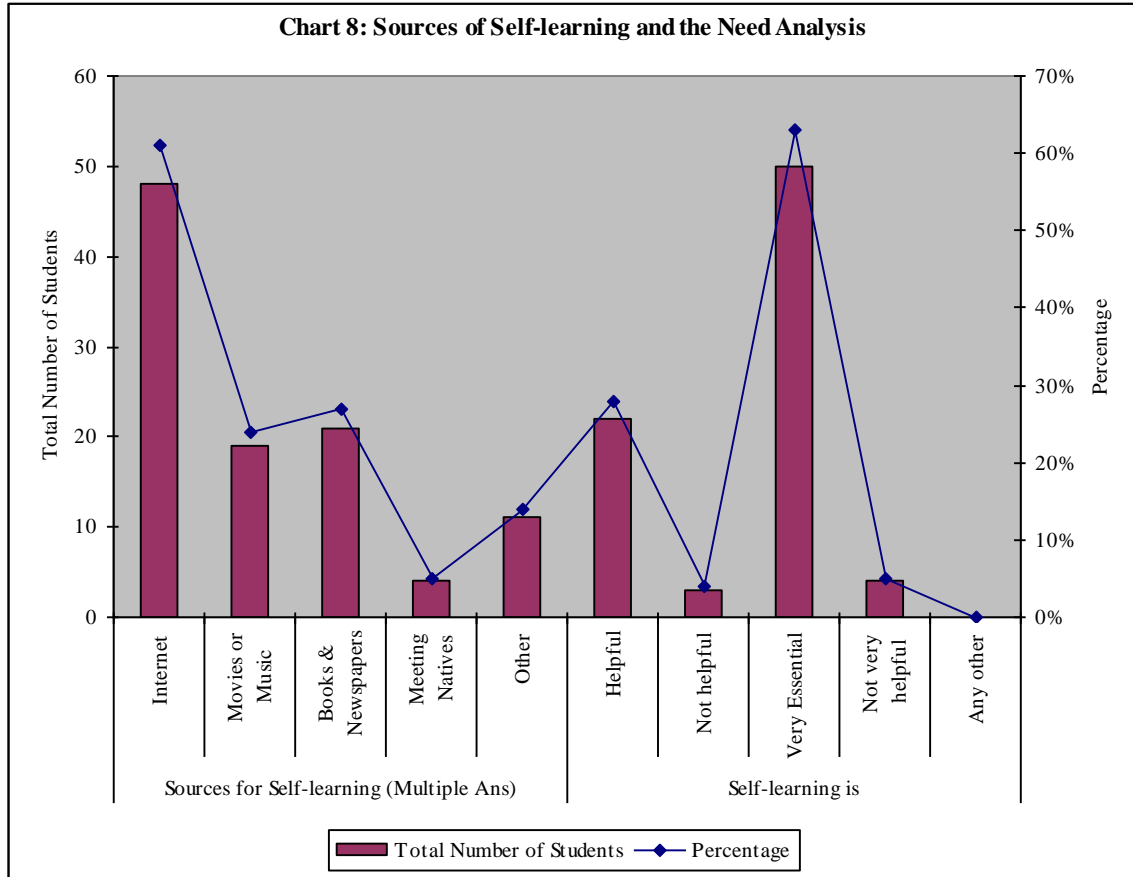
Appendix II: Questionnaire

1. What is your name?

2. What is your age?
           OR
3. What is your age group?
    (a) 18-25
    (b) 25-30
    (c) 30+

4. What is your E.mail ID (preferably gmail)?

5. Which part of India do you belong?

6. What is your mother tongue?

7. How many Indian languages do you know? (specify)

8. How many foreign languages you know? (specify)

9. How many years of Chinese have you formally studied?
    (a) 2
    (b) 3
    (c) 4
    (d) 5
    (e) 6

10. Where did you formally study Chinese language?
    (a) JNU
    (b) DU
    (c) Banaras Hindu University
    (d) Shanti Niketan
    (e) Bhartiya Vidya Bhawan
    (f) Any other (specify)

11. Why did you opt Chinese?
    (a) Something new
    (b) Parents compelled
    (c) Friends advice
    (d) Way to get in JNU
    (e) Bright job prospects
    (f) Any other reason (specify)

12. How you rate Chinese language?
    (a) Easy
    (b) Difficult but interesting
    (c) Very difficult
    (d) Compared to English its easy
    (e) Compared to English it is tough
    (f) Tougher than my mother tongue
    (g) Any other rating (specify)

13. What is easy in learning Chinese language?
    (a) Vocabulary
    (b) Tones
    (c) Sounds
    (d) Grammar
    (e) Character writing
    (f) Any other (specify)

14. What is difficult in learning Chinese language?
    (a) Vocabulary
    (b) Tones
    (c) Sounds
    (d) Grammar
    (e) Character writing
    (f) All above
    (g) Any other (specify)

15. What method you feel is best suited as a tool to teach Chinese language?
    (a) Textbook teaching
    (b) Audio-visual
    (c) Group discussion
    (d) Use of Internet
    (e) Cultural activities
    (f) Any other (specify)

16. How helpful you think are interactions with native Chinese in improving your Chinese language skills?
    (a) Helpful
    (b) Not helpful
    (c) Relatively helpful
    (d) Essential
    (e) Any other (specify)

17. Do you think there is adequate environment to teach Chinese in India?
    (a) Yes
    (b) No
    (c) Not bad

(d) Very bad
(e) Needs improvement
(f) Any other (specify)

18. How many hours in a day you spend on learning Chinese language in a classroom?
    (a) 1-2
    (b) 2-4
    (c) 4-6
    (d) 6-8
    (e) 8-10
    (f) Any other (specify)

19. How many hours in a day you spend on learning Chinese language on your own?
    (a) 1-2
    (b) 2-4
    (c) 4-6
    (d) 6-8
    (e) 8-10
    (f) Any other (specify)

20. In your home learning, you spend most time in?
    (a) Revising things taught in class
    (b) Preparing for class
    (c) Prepare for exams
    (d) Read on China
    (e) Learn beyond course material
    (f) All encompassing
    (g) Any other (specify)

21. Do you think not having a native Chinese teacher influences your learning?
    (a) Yes
    (b) No
    (c) A little
    (d) Would have been better
    (e) Not really
    (f) Any other (specify)

22. What specific difference you think a native Chinese teacher has on teaching Chinese language?
    (a) Understanding of the language is better
    (b) Pronunciation
    (c) Cultural learning would have been better
    (d) Would have created an environment
    (e) Any other (specify)

23. What sources you use to learn Chinese language beyond class?

24. How helpful is self learning in acquiring Chinese language?
   (a) Helpful
   (b) Not helpful
   (c) Very essential
   (d) Not very helpful
   (e) Any other (specify)

25. Are your present course structures adequate to teach Chinese?
   (a) Yes adequate
   (b) Not adequate
   (c) Already too tough
   (d) Its very easy
   (e) Not matching the time
   (f) Any other (specify)

26. You think your course books are
   (a) Up-to-date
   (b) Out dated
   (c) Some are fine
   (d) Needs improvement
   (e) Any other (specify)

27. What sounds you are never able to speak correctly due to influence of mother tongue?

28. What sounds you find easy to speak due to influence of your mother tongue?

29. What sounds you are able to speak better due to acquiring of other foreign languages (including English)?

30. What are the common mistakes you and your friends make while speaking Chinese sounds?

31. What are the common mistakes you and your friends make while in Chinese grammar?

32. What language you think should be the medium to teaching Chinese language?

33. Chinese learning has helped me:
    (a) Improve my language acquiring abilities
    (b) Pursue a career
    (c) In understanding other cultures
    (d) Make more friends
    (e) Not much of help
    (f) Any other (specify)

34. Any other suggestion/opinion?

汉语初学者否定句语调的起伏度分析
(Undulating Scale Analysis of Chinese Negative Intonation Produced by Beginning Learners)

刘艺
(Liu, Yi)
香港理工大学
(Hong Kong Polytechnic University)
yi.liu@polyu.edu.hk

摘要： 本文在对母语者和学习者的汉语否定句语调进行声学分析的基础上，从全调域、调群调域、语调起伏度、语调格局、不同性别的学习者和母语者的对比以及否定词在语调中的表现等诸多方面分析了母语者和学习者汉语否定句语调的差异性，探讨了初级汉语学习者汉语否定句语调的习得情况，并进一步提出了相应的教学策略，论文的结论可以为汉语语调教学提供参考。

Abstract: On the basis of acoustic analysis of Chinese negative sentences produced by elementary learners and native speakers, the paper aims to examine the differences between learners and native speakers in term of full range, sub-group range, intonation pattern, genders and features of negative word. The paper also studied the acquisition of Chinese intonation and further proposed teaching strategy. The findings of the paper can be taken as reference in Chinese intonation teaching.

关键词： 汉语否定句，语调格局，调群，起伏度，调域，声学分析，初学者

Keywords: Chinese negative sentences, intonation pattern, sub-group, pitch range, acoustic analysis, elementary learners

1. 引言

汉语是有声调的语言，其语调特征不同于非声调语言。以往学者大多从分析声调和语调的关系入手来探讨汉语的语调，赵元任(1933)曾用"小波加大浪"和"橡皮带效应"来比喻声调和语调的关系，此后吴宗济(1982)、沈炯(1985，1994)等对汉语的语调进行了多角度的分析。近十余年来林茂灿(2002)、曹剑芬(2002)、李爱军(2002)等对汉语语调的研究使人们对汉语语调的认识得到了深化。石锋(1999)提出语调格局的想法，他认为语调格局是指语句调型曲线的起伏格式及其所表现的各调群调域本身的宽窄和相互之间的位置关系。石锋、王萍和梁磊(2009) 在语调格局的框架下，

采用起伏度的计算方法，以定量的方法分析发音人的语调表现，实现了不同发音人和不同语句类型之间的可比性和可统计性，使语调研究更具有科学性。

由于汉语语调有别于非声调语言，涉及音高、音长和音强等变量，因此语调是外国人习得汉语的一大难点。迄今为止声调的习得已有了不少的研究，相比之下语调的分析则较少，如郭锦桴(1993)、朱川(1997)都讨论了对外汉语教学中的语调习得问题，刘艺(2009)分析了欧美学生汉语初学者的语句特征，石林等(2010)初步考察了美国学生掌握汉语语调的情况。目前汉语教学在世界范围内大规模展开，许多教学和习得研究的问题都值得我们做深入的研究。口语表达是语言表达的一种主要形式，而语调与口语表达密切相关，我们认为有必要分析和探讨外国学生的汉语语调习得问题，尤其是不同国别的学生汉语语调的习得特征以及语调习得的难点。语句通常分为陈述句、疑问句、感叹句等几类，否定句属于陈述句的一个类别，本文旨在通过对外国学生和母语者汉语否定句语调的声学量化分析，揭示两者之间的差异，本文的结论可以为教学第一线的教师提供科学的数据，以期改进教学方法，提高汉语教学的成效。

2. 研究方法和统计结果

2.1 语料来源和分析方法

汉语否定句主要有带否定词"不"和"没"的两类，本文考察外国学生使用汉语否定词"不"语句的语调习得情况。分析的语句全部来自于外国学生会话或口头报告表达中的真实语料，而非朗读的语句，学生来自加拿大、美国、芬兰、德国、法国、英国、瑞典、荷兰、澳大利亚、捷克、丹麦、挪威、俄罗斯、墨西哥，以前没有学过汉语，都是零起点的汉语初学者，在香港理工大学学习汉语的模式是结合操练的交际法，课堂的媒介语言是汉语和英语。由于初级水平的学生声调掌握得不够好，而语句中音节声调的偏误往往会对语调造成一定的影响，因此本文尽量选取听感上基本标准的语句。我们从口语语料库选取样本较多的五组否定语句，以每个语句为一个基本单位，逐一进行声学测算和统计。首先采用南开大学"桌上语音工作室"进行声学测算，每个字测量九个点的赫兹值(Hz)，输入 Execel 表格中，得出每个人音节音高的最大值和最小值，再按调群确定调群内的最大值、最小值和调域，并以语句为单位确定同一句型所有采样句的最大值、最小值和调域的均值。

赫兹值是音高的一种线性标度，半音的计算以对数为基础，是与人的听感相对应的(石锋等，2009)，半音是适于反映心理-声学的对应关系的语调研究单位(李爱军，2005)，将赫兹转换为半音的公式如下：

$$St = 12* \lg (f/fr) /\lg 2$$

(其中 f 表示需要转换的赫兹值，fr 表示参考频率，设为 64 赫兹)

采用百分比的归一化计算方法，可以过滤发音人调值高低和调域宽窄方面的差异，使不同发音人的实验结果具有可比性，本文采用石锋等(2009)以半音为依据的百分比计算公式：

$$Ki = 100* (Gi-Smin) / (Smax – Smin)$$

$$Kj = 100* (Gj-Smin) / (Smax – Smin)$$

$$Kr = Ki – Kj$$

(其中 Gi 为调群调域上线半音值，Gj 为下线半音值；Smax 为语句上线半音值，Smin 为语句下线半音值；Ki 为调群调域上线百分比，Kj 为调群调域下线百分比，Kr 就是调群调域的百分比数值。)

为了把不同年龄、性别的发音人、不同语气和口气类型的语句置于同一空间中对比，在调群调域的百分比数据的基础上可以算出句子语调的起伏度，语句起伏度用 Q 值表示，计算方法如下(石锋等，2009)：

$$Qx = Kx — K(x + 1)$$

(其中 x=1, 2, 3, ...是调群在语句中的位次序列数，K 是调群调域的相对百分比数值)

调群调域有上线和下线，将上线和下线相对数值相加的和除以 2 就能够得到调群调域中线的数值，讨论语调的起伏度时，应该分别计算上线、中线和下线的起伏度。依据以上公式我们可以得出语句调域(full range)，调群调域(sub-range)和语句起伏度。对数据的计算使用 Excel 程序完成并作出相应的统计图表。本文分析的五组语句均选自汉语教学口语语料库，分别是"他不忙"、"他也不说汉语"、"我不是老师"、"我不是中国人"、"我不知道京剧"，其中第一组有 31 句(女性 20 句，男性 11 句)，第二组有 19 句(女性 11 句，男性 8 句)，第三组有 18 句(女性 12 句，男性 6 句)，第四组有 16 句(女性 10 句，男性 6 句)，第五组有 26 句(女性 10 句，男性 16 句)，一共有 100 个否定句，母语者为五男五女共 10 个发音人。本文的研究目的是通过对比母语者和学习者的语调数据，发现两者之间的差异并且探讨学习者的习得难点，因此我们力求尽量多涵盖一些中介语语料，以计算均值的方法与母语者的数据进行量化比较，以揭示学习者汉语否定句语调的习得规律和习得难点。

调群是语调的构成部分，与句子的语法结构有着密切的关系，石锋等(2009)在分析汉语陈述句的语调时把语句分为三个调群，本文讨论的是带"不"的否定句，我们也将重点考察语句中否定词"不"的语调表现，因此将"不"单列为一个调群，而将动宾结构看成一个调群,采用三分法来切分五组中介语的语句,如"我不知道京剧"，均分为三个调群。石锋等(2009)所分析的语句均包含相同声调的组合，而我们分析的语句是来自于中介语语料库、包含不同声调组合的语句,有的调群只有一个音节，有的调群则可能包含若干音节，因此测量语调数据的做法是，以采样语句为单位，

首先分别测量每个音节的音高赫兹，每个音节测量九个点，然后将调群内所有音节的最高值和最低值作为该调群的最高值和最低值，在此基础上再进一步计算得到语句最高值和最低值的均值。下面依次讨论语调全调域、调群调域、语调起伏度、语调格局和否定结构的调群调域。我们在另一篇文章里分析了中介语陈述句的语调，本文的计算数据将与陈述句的数据做对比。

2.2 全调域

全调域(full range)是指语句中音高最高值和最低值的数据之差，我们先确定每个人语句的全调域，再以母语者和学习者两个类别分别计算出均值。假如以百分比来测算全调域，每个人的全调域均为百分之百，不具有比较的意义，因此全调域的计算以半音为单位，下面是母语者和学习者汉语否定句的全调域半音值：

母语者和学习者否定句全调域的比较

	语句 1	语句 2	语句 3	语句 4	语句 5	平均
学习者	8.6	10.5	7.8	8.0	7.7	8.5
母语者	9.4	12.5	10.6	11	14.0	11.5

从以上数据来看，母语者的调域介于 9.4 至 14.0 之间，学习者的调域介于 8.6 至 10.5 之间。母语者 5 个否定句的全调域均大于学习者，差距最小的是语句 1，差距为 0.8，差距最大的是语句 5，差异为 6.3，接近一半，母语者的全调域均值比学习者大 3 个半音。我们之前分析的陈述句的全调域母语者比学习者大 1.5 个半音，相比之下，学习者与母语者之间否定句全调域的差异大于陈述句。为了检验母语者和学习者数据的差异度，我们应用正态性检验、方差齐性检验和方差分析进行了统计计算，以下是得到的统计结果：

母语者和学习者否定句全调域的统计比较

Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验	P 值	母语者	0.05857		正态	
		学习者	0.8869		正态	
Bartlett 方差齐性检验		0.4249			齐性	
方差分析	误差类别	自由度	平方和	均方误	F 比	P 值
	处理	1	22.20	22.201	9.808	0.014
	误差	8	18.11	2.264		

方差分析的结果显示，Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验、Bartlett 方差齐性检验为正态、齐性，母语者和学习者的全调域方差分析 P 值为 0.014，显示在 0.05 水平上差异显著。我们将进一步分析母语者和学习者在调群调域和起伏度方面的差异，以探讨学习者对汉语否定句语调的习得情况。

2.2 调群调域

句子的语调通常可以分为若干部分，在语调的分析中一般把语调的构成成分称为调群，调群的划分与句子的语义以及语法结构有着密切的关系。本文将所分析的语句依据主、否定词、动宾结构分为三个调群，如"我不是中国人"等，分别标为首、中、末。在统计调群时，无论该调群有多少音节，都以其内部最大值与最小值的差作为该调群的调域值，再计算得到均值。本文的调群调域以百分比为单位，下表列出五组语句的调群调域：

母语者和学习者否定句调群调域的比较

		语句1	语句2	语句3	语句4	语句5	平均
百分比	C-首	22	15	10	24	18	17.8
	C-中	28	71	48	28	30	41
	C-末	93	26	81	98	74	74.4
	F-首	27	28	19	25	57	31.2
	F-中	34	63	57	24	31	41.8
	F-末	74	32	73	73	74	65.2

从句首、句中、句末三组调群数据的对比来看，无论是学习者，还是母语者都是句首调域最小，句中调域次之，句末调域最大。母语者句首调域和句中调域的均值分别是 17.8 和 41，学习者句首调域和句中调域的均值分别是 31.2 和 41.8，学习者的句首调域大于母语者，百分比数据显示，学习者的句首调域比母语者大 13.4%，句中调域学习者与母语者非常接近，而句末调域则是母语者大于学习者，母语者的句末调域为 74.4，学习者的句末调域为 65.2，母语者的句末调域比学习者大 9.2%。以上分析反映了学习者和母语者在调群调域上的不同表现，本文所分析的句末调域为动宾结构，其中包括宾语所处的位置，涉及到边界调的语调特征，表现为调域的扩大。用正态性检验、方差齐性检验和方差分析得到的统计结果如下：

母语者和学习者否定句句首调群调域的统计比较

Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验	P 值	母语者	0.866		正态	
		学习者	0.04186		正态	
Bartlett 方差齐性检验		0.08528			齐性	
方差分析	误差类别	自由度	平方和	均方误	F 比	P 值
	处理	1	448.9	448.9	3.571	0.0955
	误差	8	1005.6	125.7		

方差分析的结果显示，Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验、Bartlett 方差齐性检验为正态、齐性，母语者和学习者的句首调域 P 值为 0.0955，在 0.1 水平上差异显著，而句中和句末语调两者之间的差异不显著。石锋等（2009）发现在自然的话语中汉语句末调群的调域明显地扩展，以上分析表明学习者和母语者的调群调域模式一致，外国学习者能够掌握汉语调群调域的特征，但与母语者的句首调域和句末调域仍然存在着一些差距，尤其是句首调域差异显著。

2.3 起伏度

语调起伏度的计算以调群调域的百分比为基础，用 Q 值来表示，Q0 为句首调群的起伏度，Q1 为句中调群的起伏度，Q2 为句末调群的起伏度，Q 为全句的起伏度。调群调域有上线和下线，上线和下线的均值即中线（石锋等，2009）。调群百分比是经过归一化计算、具有可比性的量化单位，因此我们在统计调域百分比数据的基础上，以语句为单位，分别计算出母语者和学习者每个语句调群的上线、中线和下线，再算出均值。以下列出五组语句句首、句中和句末调群的上线、中线、下线以及全句的起伏度数据，其中居中和句末调群的负值表示音高上升，正值表示音高下降。下表列出句首、句中、句末调群以及全句的起伏度数据，我们将一一进行分析和讨论。

		语句 1	语句 2	语句 3	语句 4	语句 5	平均
Q0	C-上线	42	91	92	37	35	59.4
	C-中线	31	83.5	87	25	26	50.5
	C-下线	20	76	82	13	17	41.6
	F-上线	57	78	56	68	57	63.2
	F-中线	43.5	64	46.5	55.5	28.5	47.6
	F-下线	30	50	37	43	0	32
Q1	C-上线	-19	-4	32	-10	-59	-12
	C-中线	-16	24	51	-8	-53	-0.4
	C-下线	-13	52	70	16	-47	15.6
	F-上线	-22	-18	-19	-15	-20	-18.8
	F-中线	-18.5	-0.5	0	-15.5	-33	-13.5
	F-下线	-15	17	19	-16	-46	-8.2
Q2	C-上线	-32	69	-22	-53	20	-3.6
	C-中线	0.5	46.5	-5.5	-18	42	13.1
	C-下线	33	24	11	17	64	29.8
	F-上线	2	59	0	10	-3	13.6
	F-中线	22	43.5	8	34.5	18.5	25.3
	F-下线	42	28	16	59	40	37
Q	C-上线	-51	65	10	-63	-39	-15.6
	C-中线	-15.5	70.5	45.5	-26	-11	12.7
	C-下线	20	76	81	33	17	45.4
	F-上线	-20	41	-19	-5	-23	-5.2
	F-中线	3.5	43	8	19	-14.5	11.8
	F-下线	27	45	35	43	-6	28.8

以上数据显示，在句首调群中，因为是平均后的数值，而且有不同声调的字，所以没有达到调域的最上限，母语者和学习者的上线和中线极为接近，学习者的下线比母语者低 10%左右，句首调域学习者比母语者宽。句中调群调域即否定词"不"的调域，只有第三句包含"也不"两个音节，母语者和学习者的上、中线均为负值，表明其调域上升，而且学习者的上升幅度大于母语者，母语者的下线下降，而学习者的下线则为上升，由此可以看到母语者和学习者语调的差异，后面我们将专文讨论否定词的调域。在句末调群中，母语者和学习者的中、下线均为正值，其调域下降，但是母语者的上线为负值，表明其调域上线为上升，句末调群上线上升是边界调的特征之一，而学习者的上线则下降。从全句的起伏度数据来看，母语者和学习者的上线均为负值，表明全句的上线呈上升的特征，母语者比学习者高 10.4，母语者上

升的幅度大于学习者。语句中线和下线母语者和学习者均为正值，反映了语调呈现音高下降的特征，母语者中、下线的起伏度值分别为 12.7 和 45.4，学习者中、下线的起伏度值分别为 11.8 和 28.8，母语者的中、下线的起伏度比学习者多了 0.9 和 16.6，说明母语者语调音高的下降幅度大于学习者，其中下降幅度最明显的是语调下线。我们应用统计程序对句首、句中、句末和全句的起伏度进行了统计分析，结果显示 Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验、Bartlett 方差齐性检验为正态、齐性，而母语者和学习者的句首、句中、句末和全句的起伏度差异均不显著。

汉语陈述句音高下倾占主流，是无标记的，音高上升则是有标记的（石锋等，2009）。以上语调数值显示，多数数据是正值，表明下倾是语句的主要特征。跟母语者的汉语语句特征一样，汉语学习者的陈述句语调也呈现下降的特征。通过对调群调域和语句起伏度的对比分析，可以看到学习者和母语者之间存在着的差异：母语者的下降幅度大于学习者，其下降特征比学习者明显，句首调域学习者大于母语者，句中调群的下线母语者是下降，而学习者则是上升，在句末调群中，学习者的上线是下降，而母语者的上线则是上升的，以凸显边界调的特征。正态性检验、方差齐性检验和方差分析得到的统计结果显示，无论句首起伏度、句中起伏度、句末起伏度，还是全句起伏度，学习者和母语者都没有显著的差异。

2.4 语调格局

根据计算得到的调群上线、中线和下线起伏度值可以画出语句的语调格局，本文统计的是每个音节的音高值，因此绘制的语调格局图能够展现每个音节在语调中的音高特征和表现，调群的上、下线是采样句该调群内所有音节最大值和最小值的均值，下图反映的是学习者和母语者"他也不说汉语"的语调格局：
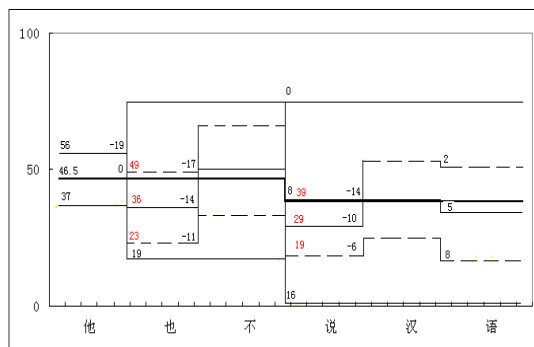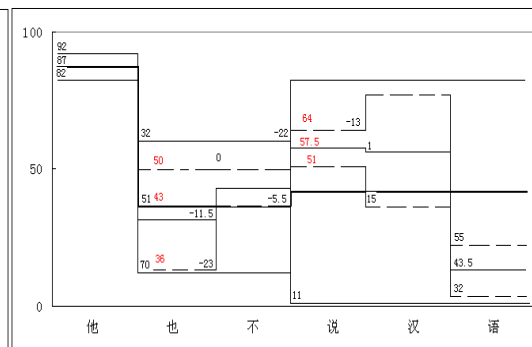
学习者语调格局图　　　　　　　　母语者语调格局图

学习者的语调格局显示，句首调群"他"调域最窄，音高居中，句中调群"也不"的上线最高，呈上升走势，句末调群"说汉语"的调域比句中调群略窄。母语者的语调格局显示，句首调群"他"调域最窄，音高最高，几乎达到了调域的最上限，句中调群"也不"的音高下降，但是调域逐渐变宽，句末调群"说汉语"的调域比句中调群宽，调域上线音高上升，覆盖了调域的大部分。学习者和母语者语调格局的比较显示，两者

的差异体现在两个层面，一是调群调域的音高，二是调群调域的宽窄，学习者和母语者在这两个层面都存在着差异性，在调群调域的宽窄上，母语者三个调群的调域差别很大，最大的调群调域在宾语"汉语"上，而学习者三个调群调域的差别不及母语者大，而且动词和宾语之间的调域差别也不太明显。在调群调域的上线音高关系上，学习者三个调群的音高呈现出中、升、降的关系，而母语者的调群调域则是高、降、升的格局。语句的起伏度分析，可以使我们看到具体语句中学习者和母语者之间语调上的相同性和差异性。语调格局的分析表明，语句中调群的音高与音节本身的字调有着密切的关系，我们在分析陈述句语调的论文中(刘艺，2012)讨论了一般陈述句语调的表现，本文探讨否定句的语调特征，下节将重点分析否定词"不"的语调表现。

2.5 不同性别学习者的调域分析

以上全调域、调群调域、起伏度和语调格局的分析依据的是学习者的均值，不同性别的学习者在习得汉语语调方面可能会有差异性，本节分析男女学习者习得汉语否定句语调的情况。由于受生理因素的影响，男女性别在音高上呈现出差别，我们将把不同的性别分开讨论，分别以女性母语者和女性学习者、男性母语者和男性学习者的语句全调域进行对比，采用 Anova 统计程序计算两者之间的差异性，统计结果如下：

	误差类别	自由度	平方和	均方误	F 比	P 值
男学生、男母语者	处理	1	7.22	7.22	12.448	0.01239
	误差	6	3.48	0.58		
女学生、女母语者	处理	1	10.58	10.58	22.551	0.003163
	误差	6	2.815	0.4692		

上表列出 Anova 统计计算得出的自由度、平方和、均方误、F 比和 P 值，数据显示女性母语者和女性学习者、男性母语者和男性学习者在语句全调域方面表现出明显的差异性，男学生和男母语者的差异度 P 值为 0.01239，在 0.05 水平上差异显著，女学生和女母语者的差异度 P 值为 0.003163，在 0.01 水平上差异显著。尽管不同性别的学习者和母语者之间都存在着明显差异性，相比较而言，女学生和女母语者之间的差异比男学生和男母语者之间的差异更为显著。

2.6 否定词"不"的语调表现

本节描述不同的字调在语调中的表现，涉及两组变量：字调域和音节音高上、下线。本文分析的 5 组语句中包含了"不忙"、"不说"、"不知道"各一次，"不是"两次，分别涉及到否定词后接阳平、否定词后接阴平和"不"的变调三种类型。我们分别测量、计算了母语者和学习者"不"音节的上、下线均值和调域，下表列出测量得到的相关数据，其中"不（是）"是计算后的均值：

	不（忙）		（也）不（说）		不（知道）		不（是）	
	调域	上--下	调域	上--下	调域	上--下	调域	上--下
母语者	71	95--24	14	50--36	30	94--64	28	54--26
学习者	43	78--35	32	66--34	46	77--46	29	83.5--54.5

以上数据显示：阴平音节前的否定词，母语者的调域均比学习者小，尽管都是前接上声字，但是因为"我"为句首调群，起点比句中音节"也"高，因此引致否定词的上线向上抬高，两组不同的前接上声、后接阴平的组合，母语者的调域位于两端，调域最大值为 95，最小值是 24，而学习者则趋中，调域最大值是 83.5，最小值为 35。阳平音节前的否定词，母语者的调域比学习者大接近一倍，母语者的上线达到了调域的上限。去声前否定词"不"变调的调域，母语者和学习者非常接近，但是母语者的上线在中域，而学习者的上线则在上半域。我们应用统计程序对否定词"不"的上、下线分别进行了统计分析，统计结果显示"不知道"和"不是"中"不"的上线 Wiconxon 秩和检验 P 值分别为 0.09015 和 0.09461，表明在 0.1 水平上学习者和母语者差异显著，以下是统计数据：

"不(知道)"调域上线	Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验	P 值	母语者	1.047e--06	非正态
			学习者	5.322e-05	非正态
	Bartlett 方差齐性检验		0.06011		齐性
	Wilcoxon 秩和检验		W 值		P 值
			141		0.09015（显著 0.1）

"不(是)"调域上线	Shapiro-Wilk 正态性检验	P 值	母语者	0.1154	正态
			学习者	0.0005773	非正态
	Bartlett 方差齐性检验		0.9607		齐性
	Wilcoxon 秩和检验		W 值		P 值
			49		0.09461（显著 0.1）

总括而言，学习者和母语者在否定词"不"的调域和上、下线三个方面均存在着一定的差距，以上统计数据显示学习者和母语者之间差异较大的是否定词"不"的上线，由此可见否定词"不"的上线是习得的难点。

3. 结论和讨论

本文从语句全调域、调群调域、起伏度、语调格局和否定词在语调中的表现五个方面考察了母语者和汉语学习者在语调方面的表现，通过对比发现，所有的语句母语者的全调域均比学习者大，均值大 3 个半音。我们在另一篇论文中分析了汉语初学者陈述句的语调表现，一般陈述句全调域母语者比学习者大 1.5 个半音，而否

定句母语者的全调域则比学习者大一倍，统计结果表明母语者和学习者全调域的差异显著。在调群调域方面，学习者和母语者都是句首调群最小，句中调群次之，句末调群最大，但是学习者的句首调群比母语者大 13.4%，句中调群很接近，句末调群比母语者小 9.2%，统计结果显示母语者和学习者句首调群的差异显著。句末调群与边界调有关，母语者表现为调群调域的扩大（石锋等，2009）。语调起伏度的数据显示，语调上线母语者和学习者均上升，但是母语者的升幅比学习者高 10%多，中线和下线母语者和学习者均下降，但是母语者下线的降幅大于学习者。下倾是汉语陈述句的语调特点，跟母语者一样，学习者的语调也呈下倾的走势，但下降的幅度不及母语者。此特征与一般陈述句具有相同点，但是学习者和母语者之间否定句下线降幅的差异比一般陈述句还要大，对比一般陈述句，还可以看到，母语者和学习者否定句语调上线升幅的差距也明显大于一般陈述句，从另一个角度解释了母语者和学习者否定句全调域的差距大于一般陈述句的现象。从调群内部的起伏度来看，在句首调群中，学习者和母语者之间的差别集中在调域和下线上，学习者的调域比母语者宽，而且学习者的下线比母语者低；在句中调群中，学习者和母语者上、中线均上升，学习者的上升幅度比母语者大，下线则是母语者下降，学习者上升；在句末调群中，母语者和学习者的中、下线均为正值，其调域下降，母语者的下降幅度比学习者小，上线学习者仍然下降，而母语者则是上升，句末调群与宾语的位置以及边界调有关，汉语陈述句边界调的特征之一是调群上线的上升（石锋等，2009）。

本文以语句为分析单位，每个语句均构成一种格局关系。语调格局的对比分析可以让我们清楚地看到学习者和母语者三个调群的相对音高和调域方面存在的差异性，以"他也不说汉语"为例，语调格局图显示，学习者三个调群的音高呈现出中、升、降的关系，而母语者的调群调域则是高、降、升的格局。句中调群主要涉及到否定词的语调表现，通过对不同组合结构语句的统计分析，我们发现学习者的习得在于否定词"不"的上线，而且母语者的语句调域由高到低占据了整个调域，学习者的语句调域则集中在调域的中部，相对较窄。不同性别的学习者和母语者全调域的 Anova 统计分析结果表明，男性母语者和男性学习者、女性母语者和女性学习者在语句全调域上存在着明显的差异，其中女性母语者和女性学习者之间的差别比男性母语者和男性学习者之间的差异更为显著。

通过与母语者语料的对比分析，我们探讨了学习者习得汉语带"不"的否定句语调的情况。从汉语语调习得的角度来看，本文得出以下结论，一是学习者否定句的全调域比母语者小，学习者与母语者否定句的调域差异比一般陈述句大一倍；二是从调群调域来看，句首调域学习者比母语者大，两者差异显著，而句末调域学习者则比母语者小，句末调群与边界调有关，母语者的上线上升，学习者则是下降，句末调群上线上升的特征学习者没有习得，边界调的上升是有标记的语言特征；三是否定词"不"的调域，调域上线是习得难点，学习者尚未掌握。

基于以上对于否定句语调的量化分析，我们认为口语表达以语句为单位，而语句是由不同声调的音节组合而成的，因此建议在汉语教学的初级阶段，不仅应该仅仅把重点放在声调的教学上，还需兼顾语调的习得，语调的教学可以采用感知法、

调域定位法、夸张法、模仿法等教学方法使学生从视觉上和感知上确定调域的上、下线。语调教学分为不同阶段循序渐进，有针对性地练习可以帮助外国学习者有效地学习汉语语调，在汉语教学的初级阶段，应先从动宾结构入手，设计不同声调组合的短语结构进行操练，而后在短语结构中增加否定词，针对学习者调域过窄的现象，有意识地提高语调上线；在学生初步掌握了动宾结构及其带否定词结构的语调后，再将短语扩展为各种声调组合的语句进行练习，其目的是使学生能够说出合乎汉语语调模式的、流畅自然的语句。总括而言，音节—词—短语—语句的声调语调教学模式是科学、有效的。此外借助于现代化科技手段，语调教学会更直观、科学，我们建议把中介语语调分析的数据和格局图储存起来建立教学资源库，在教学的过程中应用计算机声学教学软件将母语者和学习者的语调进行对比，这种对比法可以用于课堂教学和学生自学，能够让学生较为直观地观察到两者之间的差异，也可以把这些语调的教学资源放到 E-learning 上，强化汉语语调的对比教学，让学生在课堂教学以外，仍然能够通过网络资源进行自学，其目的是使学生尽快掌握汉语语调的调域，重构汉语的语调，强化外国学习者的汉语语调习得，提高语调教学的成效。

本文在对母语者和学习者的汉语否定句语调进行声学分析的基础上，从全调域、调群调域、语调起伏度、语调格局和否定词在语调中的表现等诸多方面分析了母语者和学习者的差异性，探讨了零起点的汉语学习者带否定词"不"语句语调的习得情况，并且与一般陈述句的分析结论进行了对比，进一步提出了相应的教学策略。关于不同国籍的学习者在语调上的差异表现我们将另文深入分析，除了本文所分析的起伏度变量，汉语语调还涉及停延率和其他变量，我们也将另文分析、讨论。

参考文献

曹剑芬. (2002). 汉语声调与语调的关系. 载中国社会科学院语言研究所《语音研究报告》.北京：中国社会科学院语言研究所语音研究室.

郭锦桴. (1993). 汉语声调语调阐要与探索. 北京：北京语言学院出版社.

李爱军. (2002). 普通话对话中韵律特征的声学表现. 中国语文, 6,525-535.

林茂灿. (2002). 普通话语句的韵律结构和基频(F0)高低线的构建. 当代语言学, 4,254-265.

刘艺. (2009). 欧美汉语初学者汉语语句的声学分析. 载张普、徐娟、宋继华编《数字化汉语教学专题研究 2009—新模式、新方法、新技术、新产品》. 清华大学出版社. 254-263.

刘艺.(2012). 汉语初学者陈述句语调的起伏度分析. 对外汉语研究第 8 辑,15-25. 北京：商务印书馆.

沈炯.(1985). 北京话声调的音域和语调. 载《北京语音实验录》.北京：北京大学出版社.

沈炯.(1994). 汉语语调构造和类型. 方言, 3,221-228。

石锋.(1999).汉语语调格局在不同语速中的表现. 载《中国语言学的新拓展》.香港：
　　　香港城市大学出版社.

石锋、王萍、梁磊. (2009). 汉语普通话陈述句语调的起伏度. 南开语言学刊第 2
期，4-13.

石林等. (2010). "洋腔洋调"—美国学生汉语语调分析.南开语音年报第 4 卷，39-43.

吴宗济. (1982). 普通话语句中的声调变化. 中国语文, 6, 439-450.

朱川. (1997). 外国学生汉语语音学习对策. 北京：语文出版社.

A Consciousness-Raising Approach to Pragmatics Teaching: Web-based Tasks for Training Study-Abroad Students (以网络任务型方式提高留学项目学生的语用意识)

Chunhong Teng   Fei Fei
(滕春红)   (费飞)
Michigan State University
(密歇根州立大学)
tengc@msu.edu   feifei@msu.edu

Abstract: This study examines whether web-based self-access materials developed with a pragmatics focus can help pre-study-abroad participants increase their pragmatic awareness in Chinese. Twenty-four students participated in the study and took pre- and post-tests. Half were pre-study-abroad participants that worked through the web-based pragmatics program while the remainder, non-study-abroad participants, did not. Prior to the study, both groups were given a pre-test to assess their pragmatic skills. The experimental group worked through a six-unit, web-based pragmatics program during a course of two months before they went abroad. At the end of two months, both groups took the post-test. The results showed that the experimental group scored significantly higher in the post-test than the control group. Although both groups of students improved on certain speech acts (request, appreciation, refusal, complaints), the experimental group outperformed the control group on almost every speech act category. The results suggest that the web-based pragmatics program could be used to aid students in the acquisition of Chinese pragmatic features and prepare them for their Chinese study-abroad program.

提要：本文针对学生是否能通过网络中文语用学习辅助教材来提高语用意识进行了实验研究。24名学生参加了此项研究， 完成了实验前、后的测试， 其中实验组的12名学生在赴华留学前两个月，自主完成了六个单元的在线学习课程；而控制组的12名学生则没有。在开始网络学习之前，两组学生都参加了实验前测试，两个月以后，又参加了实验后试。实验结果表明，尽管实验组和控制组的学生在语用意识上都有不同程度的进步，但实验组的后试分数远高于控制组的学生。此结果显示网络中文语用学习辅助教材有助于学生提高语用意识，进而为留学中国做好了一定准备。

Keywords: web-based program, Chinese pragmatics, speech acts, study-abroad program

关键词：网络学习教材，中文语用，语言行为，留学项目

1. Introduction

Pragmatics is the study that explores the ability of language users to match utterances with contexts in which they are appropriate (Bardovi-Harlig & Manhan-Taylor, 2003). In order to express their intended meaning successfully, language users must have knowledge of how, when, and with whom they are communicating, in addition to what they intend to convey. As an essential part of foreign language education, pragmatics competence requires students to develop the ability to use the target language to interact appropriately with others in a wide range of social contexts. However, foreign language educators and researchers have noted that even with a considerable amount of vocabulary and sufficient knowledge of the grammar in the target language, learners of a foreign language tend to have difficulty understanding the intended meaning of a speech act and fail in producing speech acts using appropriate language and strategies, often leading to serious pragmatic failure (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1996).

As language teachers, we are all aware that some Chinese pragmatic features are substantially different from those of English. For example, native Chinese speakers usually do not accept compliments readily when given. They either reject or deflect them to show their humbleness. Therefore, for language learners, the acquisition of Chinese requires the development of cultural as well as linguistic communicative competencies. Research has further demonstrated that certain Chinese pragmatic features are difficult to master for native English-speaking learners of Chinese (Ji, 2000; Kasper & Zhang, 1995; Ma, 1996; Yu, 2003; Sun, 2004). For instance, Hong (1997) found that request making in Chinese is hard for learners even after two years of Chinese instruction at college level in the United States. With an increasing number of students now choosing to study abroad in China, it is important that research provides empirical evidence on how pragmatics instruction in Chinese can be enhanced.

1.1 Background Information

The Chinese study-abroad program in China at the author's institution, first held in summer 2002, offers eight weeks of intensive language instruction and cultural exposure via tutorial activities and weekend excursions. Students have classroom instruction in the morning and one-on-one tutoring in the afternoon. Overall, the study-abroad program seeks to maximize exposure to the language environment to help students acquire Chinese proficiency, pragmatic competence and increase cultural awareness. However, students are not returning with upper-level (intermediate or higher) pragmatic competence. Thus, we felt a need to teach pragmatics explicitly to students to raise their awareness of Chinese pragmatic features prior to their departure and to investigate whether the teaching of pragmatics before studying abroad will facilitate greater competence.

For the working definition, pragmatic awareness is comparable to consciousness in both noticing and understanding the target language forms by the learners. This definition also includes two aspects of the pragmatic knowledge, namely, pragmatic forms and strategies. Language forms, also known as formulas in pragmatic research (usually in the form of contextualized and routinized chunks) correspond with pragmalinguistic norms (Kasper & Rose, 1999); while pragmatic strategies (for example, direct vs. indirect politeness strategies) mainly refer to sociopragmatic approaches, that is, when, why, and with whom to use the various forms in intercultural communication.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

In the recent decade, there have been a growing number of studies exploring how pragmatic instruction can help learners to be more pragmatically appropriate (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Winke & Teng, 2010). Such research has demonstrated that students benefit a great deal from instruction that includes strong pragmatic components. One way to foster the development of pragmatics is through studying abroad, which provides learners with the most direct pragmatic encounters and learning experiences. However, research has also indicated that short-term immersion programs cannot be assumed to create automatic cultural and language leaning (Wilkinson, 1998). It is necessary to provide pragmatic instruction on speech acts before students go abroad to help them maximize their study-abroad experience (Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi & Lassegard, 2002). In light of this need, language educators and researchers have developed various ways of teaching pragmatics. For example, Winke and Teng (2010) used "task-based tutorials" to help students learn Chinese pragmatics features in the study-abroad context. Roever (2004, 2006) proposed that web-based pragmatics programs represent psychological reality that is most similar to what learners would encounter in real-time communication (e.g., live or online chatting). Web-based self-access materials have been proven to be useful, especially in cases where there is not sufficient time for explicit pragmatic instruction in the classrooms (Sykes & Cohen, 2007). However, currently there is no web-based program specifically about Chinese pragmatics. In addition, no study has been conducted on the effect of such a web-based program with a focus on pragmatic instruction in foreign language settings where learners do not have many opportunities to interact with native speakers of the target language.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The current study explores the efficacy of using self-access materials in a web-based pragmatics program to raise students' Chinese pragmatic awareness, which is defined as learners' conscious and explicit knowledge to use appropriate language forms and strategies to realize different speech acts in contextualized situations.

The main interest of the study is to examine whether the web-based pragmatics program's intervention could be used as a supplement to enhance teaching of Chinese pragmatics. In addition, we are interested in exploring which pragmatic feature is most

likely to be taught successfully using a web-based program that we developed with a pragmatics focus.

2. Instructional Design of Web-based Pragmatics Program

The goal of designing the program is to draw students' attention to the differences in terms of pragmatic features between Chinese and English before they embark on a study-abroad program. We hope that by raising their awareness, students will have an enhanced ability to practice these features upon arrival in China while interacting with native speakers in authentic situations, observing and practicing different speech acts.

The web-based program was designed based on early research on Chinese pragmatics, which identify the differences in pragmatic formulas and strategies between Chinese and English. Such research studied the characteristics of Chinese speech acts, such as compliments, requests, refusals and responses to compliments (Chen, Ye & Zhang, 1995; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996; Ye, 1995; Zhang, 1995). The project was partially funded by Office of China Programs and Asian Studies Center at Michigan State University in the United States. Developed with technical assistance from the university Language Learning Center, and with the help of teaching assistants from the Chinese program, the researchers were responsible for developing the program content, which consists of six units with different themes, such as greetings and compliments, shopping, bargaining and dining out the Chinese way. These scenarios are representative of potential situations in which the learners may find themselves and require the learners to accomplish communicative acts, such as encounters with professors, university personnel, other students, friends, roommates, and service personnel. These themes and the web links of the six units in the program are listed in Appendix A. (Any potential user can choose his/her own login information and type it in for access.)

In the web-based program that we developed, there are 10 to 15 authentic pragmatic scenarios per unit (under each theme), which require the students to identify pragmatic formulas and use a variety of speech acts, such as greetings, compliments, responses to compliments, politeness strategies, requests, refusals, etc. Three exercise types are employed for the scenarios in each unit: multiple-choice tests (hereafter MCTs), drag-and-drop items, and discourse-completion tasks (hereafter DCTs). DCTs, often described as written oral plays, present a description of a situation (or a scenario) and ask the participant to respond. The instruction and the item prompts are written in English but the audio recordings are in Chinese. The test items are both in Chinese characters and Pinyin Romanization.

Below are examples of the MCT and DCT from Unit 3 and 4 of the web-based pragmatics program. The icon ▶ indicates that students can click and listen to the corresponding audio recordings. This icon 🔊 means that students can click and record their own answers and then play to hear their own voice.

An example of multiple-choice task:

You can't meet the deadline for a term paper and want to ask your professor for an extension. Which of the following is/are acceptable? (Note: There might be more than one answer for this situation. Choose all you think are appropriate.)

A ▶Lǎoshi, wǒ néng bù néng wǎn jǐtiān jiāo? 老师，我能不能晚几天交？
B ▶Lǎoshi, wǒ wǎn jǐtiān jiāo, xíng bù xíng? 老师，我晚几天交，行不行？
C ▶Lǎoshi, wǒ hái yào jǐtiān shíjiān cái néng xiě wán. 老师，我还要几天时间才能写完。
D ▶Lǎoshi, wǒ zhè jǐtiān bìng le. Wǒ hòutiān jiāo, xíng ma? 老师，我这几天病了。我后天交，行吗？

An example of sentence completion task:

Your roommate was talking loudly with his/her friends in the dorm. You had to study for tomorrow's quiz but you couldn't concentrate because of the noise. (Note: You can record your answers as many times as you feel comfortable. The instructor will only hear your last submitted recording.)

You: 🔊_____ xiǎo diǎnr shēng shuōhuà ma?
你们能小点声儿说话吗？
Your roommate: Zěnme la?
怎么啦？
You: 🔊_____.
Your roommate: Bù hǎo yì sì. Nà wǒmen chūqù shuō ba.
不好意思。 那我们出去说话吧。

As has been mentioned earlier, pragmatic awareness in the present study is defined as the learners' use of pragmatic formulas and strategies to realize different speech acts. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) pointed out that DCTs assess learners' ability to compute contextual factors and assemble relevant linguistic information. Items in both MCTs and DCTs direct learners' attention to use pragmatic formulas and strategies by asking them to engage with simulated dialogues in meaningful contexts. The program also offers students access to the audio recording of each scenario. Students can listen to choices, choose answers in the MCTs, and record their own answers orally in the DCTs rather than having to write down the answers. In addition to a vocabulary list, the web-based program also provides built-in feedback. Furthermore, linguistic and cultural notes will be displayed when students finish all the items in each unit to enhance their noticing of pragmatics features.

To sum up, the goal of the web-based program is to raise students' pragmatic awareness before embarking on a study-abroad program; while abroad we want them to practice those pragmatic features with like-aged native tutors. We hope that by raising

their awareness, students will have a clear focus to continue practicing these features while interacting with native speakers in authentic situations. Therefore, the current study seeks to find out whether the web-based pragmatics program could be used to help students in the acquisition of Chinese pragmatic features and prepare them for their Chinese study- abroad program.

3. Experimental design

3.1 Participants

The study was conducted with two groups of students. Twelve future study-abroad participants of first- and second-year Chinese at Michigan State University volunteered as an experimental group, which completed both pre- and post-tests as well as the web-based program. In addition to the twelve study-abroad students, twelve students who did not study abroad participated as a control group. Students ranged in age from 19 to 22 and had studied either one year or two years of college-level Chinese. First- and second-year students are equally numbered in the experimental and control groups.

3.2 Research questions

1. Is there any statistical significance between the experimental and control groups in the pre- and post-tests?

2. Specifically, what speech act category has been improved as a result of the web-based instructional intervention?

3. Can web-based self-access materials developed with a Chinese pragmatics focus increase pre-study-abroad participants' pragmatics awareness?

3.3 Method

Prior to the web-based pragmatic instruction, both groups were given a pre-test. The web-based pragmatics program was made available to the experimental group two months prior to their departure. In addition to their regular Chinese class workload, the participants in the experimental group were encouraged to work through the six units in the web-based pragmatics program during the course of the two months. The control group only attended their regular Chinese class and did not use the web-based program. It took participants approximately 30 minutes to an hour to complete each of the 6 units, for a total of 3-6 hours of self-access with the website. For the experimental group, the teacher regularly checked students' progress with the program and offered encouragement to finish it. At the conclusion of the study period, the experimental and control groups were given a post-test using another pragmatics test. The test was scored by two native speakers of Chinese using a rubric delineating a 4-point scale of 0 to 4. Scores were based on grammatical accuracy in terms of the pragmatic formulas being

used and pragmatic appropriateness in terms of pragmatic strategies being employed. After the completion of the program, participants took part in an email survey reviewing their experience.

3.4 Assessment tools

The pre- and post-tests were adapted from the items of a pragmatics test developed by Winke and Teng (2010). Participants were asked to finish the tests within 50-minute class time. Both pre- and post-tests consist of 12 scenarios as DCT. Test items in the pre-and post-tests are different though they focus on similar speech acts. The speech acts being tested include refusal, appreciation, complaint, bargaining, response to compliment and request. Specifically, the use of pragmatic formulas and strategies to realize different speech acts was the focus. Below are two sample test items from both the pre-and post-tests:

Instruction: First, read the description in English to understand each situation. Second, read the conversation in Chinese to complete each dialogue as appropriately as you can. To be appropriate, you might consider what a native speaker would say to address a particular situation. You can use Chinese characters, pinyin or both.

<u>**Situation 1:**</u> <u>Compliment on your Chinese skills (from the pre-test)</u>

A Chinese you just met tells you that your Chinese is very good. What do you say?

Chinese:	你是从哪儿来的？
	Nǐ shì cóng nǎr lái de？
You:	我是从美国来的。
	Wǒ shì cóng měiguó lái de。
Chinese:	真的啊？你的中文说得真好。
	Zhēn de ā？Nǐ de zhōngwén shuō de zhēn hǎo。
You:	＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

<u>**Situation 2:**</u> <u>Asking your professor for help (from the post-test)</u>

You go to your professor's office to ask a few questions regarding your homework. What would you say to your professor?

Your professor:	(On hearing a knock at the door) 请进。
You:	您好，老师。＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
	Nín hǎo，lǎo shī 。＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

When you are done asking, what would you say?

You:	＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4. Outcome

4.1 Research question 1: Is there any statistical significance between the experimental and control groups in the pre- and post-tests?

Mean scores on the pre- and post-test of both groups of participants were analyzed and compared. Although there is no significant difference between the two groups on the pre-test, the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the post-test. The results reveal evidence of learning outcomes. As both groups performed better on the post-test, the experimental group had significantly more gains than the control group.

4.2 Research question 2: Specifically, what speech act category has been improved as a result of the web-based instructional intervention?

We examined the mean scores on each test item of both groups of participants, and summarized the differences in terms of speech acts. In general, participants in the experimental group scored higher on almost every speech act category, except for bargaining, in the post-test than they did in the pre-test. Both groups of students' scores increased for speech acts of refusal, appreciation and complaint, but the experimental group outperformed the control group significantly on request.

4.3 Research question 3: Can web-based self-access materials developed with a Chinese pragmatics focus increase pre-study abroad participants' pragmatics awareness?

Written data collected from the post-test DCTs showed that learners' responses varied in terms of linguistic features, some of which are appropriate and some are less appropriate. When judging appropriateness of students' responses, we draw upon results from previous research on Chinese pragmatics as well as the two raters' judgments. Interestingly, learners who employed appropriate pragmatic strategies showed a higher accuracy rate in using pragmatic formulas. On the other hand, learners employing correct pragmatic formulas might not necessarily use appropriate pragmatic strategies to perform certain speech acts. For example, Chinese pragmatic formulas used for responses to compliments are unique in how the praised person shows extreme modesty by saying, "Please don't mention it." or "I don't deserve that." When bargaining, the Chinese speaker tends to show little or no interest in buying by saying, "That's too expensive. I don't want it."

Strategies involved in successful speech acts of refusals, complaints and requests are more complex. For example, in a scenario that requires participants to perform the speech act of refusal, almost all participants (both in the experimental and control groups) were able to use the pragmatic formula "I'm sorry" correctly in Chinese. However, a pragmatically appropriate way to express refusal in Chinese requires more than a pragmatic formula. The speaker needs to state the reason why he or she must refuse, followed by offering a future opportunity (a "sweetener") to reduce the directness and offensiveness of the refusal such as, "Can I join you next week?" However, a close

examination of the qualitative data reveals that the experimental group differed from the control group on the speech act of request. For example, there are two scenarios that require participants to employ the speech act of request in the post-test. One scenario is between two friends, and another is between a professor and a student. Although both scenarios ask for the speech act of request, the professor-student scenario is different from the one between friends because of the more formal relationship between professor and student. The request is also more face-threatening, which poses difficulty to the foreign language learners of Chinese. In this case, formulas such as "Can you write me a recommendation letter?" and "Please write me a recommendation letter." are both grammatically correct, but not pragmatically appropriate. For the speech act of request, Chinese speakers are likely to employ an indirect strategy as well as external modification strategy, including the grounder (giving a reason), thanking, sweetener (complimenting the hearer), apologizing and promise. DCT data, however, showed that no participants in the control group used this strategy while three participants in the experimental groups did, indicating that exposure to and practice with the similar scenarios in the web-based program helped participants gain awareness of the pragmatic differences between Chinese and English in terms of request.

5. Discussion

The post-test results reveal evidence of learning pragmatic features. Both groups performed better on the post-test, but the experimental group, with access and opportunities to practice through the web-based pragmatics program, had significantly greater gains than the control group. Furthermore, the results indicate that both groups of students' scores increased on refusal, appreciation, and complaint, although the experimental group outperformed the control group significantly on the speech act of request. Kasper and Rose (2001) note that adult learners can get a considerable amount of L2 pragmatic knowledge even without any instruction, which is because "some pragmatic knowledge is universal and may be transferred from learners' first language" (p. 4). For instance, a typical refusal strategy is comprised of an apology as an opener, an explanation of the situation and an offer of another opportunity to the interlocutor, that is, the "pragmatic formula＋reason statement＋sweetener" rule for the speech act of refusal which has been found not to be much different in English and Chinese. Also, English and Chinese do not seem to differ much when expressing appreciation or complaint. However, this is not the case for request. Hong (1997) noted that request making in Chinese is hard for learners who studied Chinese for two years at a college. Zhang and Yu (2009) examined the pragmatic function of making a request of both study-abroad and study-at-home students, and native Chinese speakers. They suggested that L2 learners' responses reflect their lack of awareness in the degree of directness – direct and indirect – through the use of request strategy and external modification strategy, which have been addressed in previous studies (Han, 2005; Rose, 2000; Zhang & Rue, 2008). Specifically, request strategy includes the direct strategy, the conventionally indirect strategy and hint; whereas the external modification strategy includes categories such as the grounder (giving a reason), thanking, sweetener (complimenting the hearer), apologizing and

promise. In other words, the realization of a successful request depends heavily on the relationship between interlocutors and requires not only pragmatic formulas, but also external modification strategy, which poses great difficulty to foreign language learners of Chinese.

In general, participants in the experimental group scored higher on almost every speech act category, except for bargaining, on the post-test than they did on the pre-test. There are several different reasons why the experimental group did not score higher on the post-test bargaining item. First, a close examination of experimental participants' written answers revealed that 3 out of 12 did not provide answers to the test item for bargaining on the post-test. They may have simply neglected to do so with the test time constraint. Also, those who did not answer all the items may have had comparatively lower language proficiency than others, and it may have taken them more time to answer as the speech acts are more complicated in Chinese as discussed earlier. Thus, the low overall performance of the experimental group on the post-test bargaining item is likely due to the lower participant response to the item.

6. Students' perception of the program

In order to explore the impact of the web-based program, we conducted an email survey with the experimental group. The data revealed several patterns and tendencies. In general, it can be concluded that learning through the program produced positive results and was well received by the participants. It is obvious that the intention of the program to raise students' pragmatic awareness was realized by many students. Examples (1) and (2) exemplify these responses:

(1) *Anyways, I refreshed my memory on the web-based exercises, and went through them again. Looking back, I really wish I would've paid more attention to them, they probably would've helped me out more when relating with the Chinese people every day in Tianjin. I think they do a really good job of teaching outside of the textbook (i.e. help you to learn how to relate to people in every day life, not so much just knowing how to say words).*

(2) *The web-based program was very useful. I remember using it a lot before we left for the trip and used the words to make flash cards and stuff and I like how the recording of the word is there, too. It also helped me to understand cultural differences, like when turning down an invitation and how to bargain and walk away.*

When asked, "what specific pragmatic features that you found most difficult?" One student commented:

I would say refusing someone's request is hardest just because I don't like to hurt someone's feelings and here in the U.S. if you say no twice, then

people [street peddler] get the hint but in China you're expected to say no and the people are very persistent, so then I feel bad. Also bargaining is hard because it seems so unfair since I could pay more money for it but they expect you to bargain so they jack up the price, so you don't really know what fair is.

Finally, students noted that learning through the program, although useful, is not enough without being fully immersed in the target language environment:

Even so, going through these web-based programs isn't really enough to prepare you for China. You have to live it, and learn it as you go. I would encourage your students to continue to use these programs as part of preparation to living, working, and studying in China, but under the understanding that there is no substitute for actually living in China.

7. Conclusion

The current study suggests that the web-based pragmatics program could be used as a supplement to teach pragmatics explicitly and to reinforce what has been taught in the classroom. The merit of the web-based program is that it provides both visual and audio support. As a consequence of the input enhancement, the students' pragmatic awareness level is raised, and the input is likely turned into intake successfully. The program is especially useful in delivering complex speech acts, such as request, which are not always addressed adequately in textbooks. This program could benefit study-abroad participants, as well as other students, in sharpening their awareness of the Chinese pragmatics features prior to departure.

The study findings suggest that the aforementioned web-based program facilitated significant gains in students' pragmatics awareness on the post-test. The question arises as to whether this pragmatics intervention solely contributed to such gains, which has been partially answered. However, due to the design of the current study and relatively small number of participants, it should be noted that individual variables, such as target language use outside of the classroom and different level of motivation, might also be attributed to the differences in learning outcomes. These variables are not adequately addressed in the current study. In fact, students being interviewed reported a range of variation in the ways they engaged with the program. Future research is needed with a more complex research design involving these individual variables.

Furthermore, the data collected from DCTs as in both pre- and post-tests are helpful to assess students' pragmatic awareness, but it may not be a true measure of what students can actually do with the knowledge in real-life encounters (Yamashita, 1996). Future studies may employ a combination of instruments, such as MCTs and role-plays, in addition to DCTs, to compensate for this gap and to gauge students' pragmatic awareness development. As to the rating rubrics for the pre- and post-tests, designed to measure the accuracy of the pragmatics forms and the appropriateness of the pragmatic

strategies, their validity also needs to be tested and restated by future studies. Given these limitations, the results of the study, as pointed out earlier, should be considered suggestive rather than conclusive. In spite of these limitations, the present research does serve its initial objective to make students aware of Chinese pragmatics features that are drastically different from those in English.

Originally intended to better prepare study abroad participants for their overseas experience, the web-based program may also benefit students who remain on their home campus. Such an online program may increase student awareness of Chinese pragmatic features regardless of their study abroad intentions. It may also be used to serve as a preparatory tool for students planning to study or travel in China.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). *Teaching pragmatics* [Online]. Washington DC: U.S. Department of State Office of English Language Programs. Available: http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/pragmatics.htm

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In L.F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning*, monograph series vol. 7 (pp. 21-39). Urbana-Campaign: Division of English as an Internal Language, University of Illinois.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 233-262.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. (Eds.) (2005). Interlanguage pragmatics: Exploring institutional talk. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Chen, X., Ye, L., & Zhang Y. (1995). Complimenting in Mandarin Chinese. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese as native and target language* (pp. 119-163). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press.

Han, S. (2005). *The interlangue pragmatic development of the speech act of request by Korean non-native speakers of English in an ESL setting.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.

Hartford, B., & Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). "At your earliest convenience": A study of written student requests to faculty. In L.F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning,* monograph series vol. 7 (pp. 55-69). Urbana-Campaign: division of English as an Internal Language, University of Illinois.

Hong, W. (1997). Sociopragmatics in language teaching: with example of Chinese requests. J*ournal of Chinese Language Teachers Association, 32*, 95-105.

Ji, S. (2000). "Face" and polite verbal behavior in Chinese culture. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*, 1059-1062.

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*, 145-148.

Kasper, G. (2001). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 33-60). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.). (1993). *Interlanguage pragmatics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 19*, 81-104.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2001). Pragmatics in language teaching. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 1-9). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G., & Zhang, Y. (1995). "It's good to be a bit Chinese": Foreign students' experience of Chinese pragmatics. In Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese as native and target language* (pp. 1-22). Honolulu, Hi: University of Hawai'i Press.

Liao, C., & Bresnahan, M. L. (1996). A contrastive pragmatic study on American English and Mandarin refusal strategies. *Language Sciences*, 703-727.

Ma, R. (1996). Saying "yes" for "no" and "no" for "yes": A Chinese rule. *Journal of Pragmatics, 25*, 257-266.

Paige, R. M., Cohen, A. D., Kappler, B., Chi, J. C., & Lassegard, J. P. (2002). *Maximizing study abroad: A students' guide to strategies for language and culture learning and use.* Minneapolis, MN: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.

Roever, C. 2004. *Assessing of second language pragmatics* [Online]. Available: http://www2.hawaii.edu/~roever/ilp-test.htm

Roever, C. (2006). Validation of a Web-based test of ESL pragmalinguistics. *Language Testing*, 229-256.

Rose, K. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*, 27-67.

Rose, K., & Kasper, G.(Eds.) (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sun, H. (2004). Opening moves in informal Chinese telephone conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics, 36*, 1429-1465.

Sykes, J. M., & Cohen, A.D. (2007, October). Online Learning of Spanish Pragmatics: What Learners Do, How They Do It, and What They Think. Presented at the 30th Annual Second Language Research Forum (SLRF 2007), Champaign-Urbana, IL.

Yamashita, S. (1996). *Six measures of JSL pragmatics.* (Technical Report #14) University of Hawai'i at Manoa: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

Wilkinson, S. (2002). The omnipresent classroom during summer study abroad: American students in conversation with their French hosts. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 157-173.

Winke, P., & Teng, C. (2010) Using task-based pragmatics tutorials while studying abroad in China. *Intercultural Pragmatics,* 2, 363–399.

Ye, Lei. (1995). Complimenting in Mandarin Chinese. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese as native and target language* (pp. 207-295). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press.

Yu, M. (2003). On the universality of face: Evidence from Chinese compliment response behavior. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 1679-1710.

Zhang, Y. (1995). Strategies in Chinese requesting. In G. Kasper (Ed.) *Pragmatics of Chinese as Native and Target Language* (pp. 23-68). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.

Zhang, Y., & Rue, R. (2008). *Request strategies*: *A comparative study in mandarin Chinese and Korean*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Zhang, D., & Yu, Y. (2009). Context of learning and requesting in Chinese as a second language: An exploratory study of students learning Chinese in study abroad and at home context. *Journal of Chinese Teachers Association, 43*, 73-92.

Appendix A

Themes and web links of the pragmatics program

(Note: Anyone can access the program by simply typing his or her name.)

Unit 1 Greetings & Compliments

http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=Mjg=

Unit 2 Shopping, Bargaining, & Dining Out the Chinese Way

http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=NTU=

Unit 3 Dorm Life, Telephone Manners, & Money

http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=NTY=

Unit 4 Study Life & Entertainment for Students in China
http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=NTc=

Unit 5 Home Life in China: Chinese Views on Family, Work, & Food
http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=NTg=

Unit 6 Daily life, Sports and Transportation in China
http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/viewWorksheet.php?ID=NTk=

For students' recording: http://clear.msu.edu/teaching/online/ria/worksheets/

平板电脑与中文教学[1]
(Tablets and Chinese Language Teaching and Learning)

刘士娟
(Liu, Shijuan)
宾州印第安纳大学
(Indiana University of Pennsylvania)
shijuanliu@hotmail.com

摘要：本文首先对平板电脑及其与智能手机的关系做了简单介绍，然后回顾了平板电脑近五十年的发展历史，接着介绍了各类平板电脑的主要特点。平板电脑按其使用的操作系统的不同可分为三类，使用苹果（Apple) iOS 操作系统的，使用谷歌(Google) Andriod 操作系统的，和使用微软(Microsoft) Windows 操作系统的。文章总结了平板电脑的优点和不足，分析了如何利用平板电脑进行中文教学及需注意的相关问题。平板电脑作为近几年受到普遍关注的新技术，其自身所具备的一些功能和第三方开发的一些有关应用程序可用来提高中文教学。然而需要注意的是平板电脑的作用并不能过分扩大，在运用过程中也要注意到其局限性。

Abstract: This article reviews the development history of the tablet technology, introduces its major characteristics, and discusses its implications for Chinese language teaching and learning. Tablets are categorized into three groups based on the operating systems used (i.e., Apple's iOS, Google's Andriod, and Microsoft's Windows). Some popular tablets are introduced (e.g., iPad, Samsung Galaxy, Amazon Kindle Fire, and Microsoft Surface). Strengths of the tablet technology include being highly mobile (light and convenient to carry around), intuitively interactive (screen multi-touch with fingers), and multi-functional (e.g., Internet browsing, text reading and writing, photo taking and editing, audio playing and recording, video watching and recording, seamlessly sharing and publishing). Weaknesses include its heavy reliance on Wi-Fi and the quality of applications (apps) developed by third parties. The facts that not all students have access to a tablet and that students own tablets of various platforms limit the instructional use of the technology in classrooms. Other constraints include lack of pedagogical guidelines and support. It is suggested that instructors should not overestimate the impact of the tablet technology on language teaching and learning.

---

[1] 本文的部分内容曾在 2013 年 6 月举行的第 11 届国际汉语教学学术研讨会上发表。

关键词：平板电脑，中文教学，苹果 iOS 系统，安卓系统

Keywords: Tablets, Chinese Language Teaching, iOS, Android

1. 平板电脑简介

　　平板电脑技术（Tablet Technology）集笔记本电脑，智能手机，早期平板电脑的特点于一体加上可下载的各式各样的应用程序（Applications or APPS）， 不仅仅被视为移动技术中的新的一个分支，并且其自身可视为独立的一种新技术（Johnson, Adams， Cummins，2012）。

　　平板电脑与智能手机(Smart phone) 之间存在紧密联系。如郝也和王伟华（2013）所述，智能手机和平板电脑作为新移动技术的代表，既互相补充又互相竞争。智能手机以通信为主，体积（包括屏幕尺寸）小。平板电脑的尺寸介于笔记本电脑和手机之间，功能较多，主要依靠于无线网络。但随着越来越多的跨界产品的出现，两者的界限变得越来越模糊。智能手机的屏幕尺寸越来越大，坚持 3.5 英寸屏多年的苹果(Apple)公司也推出了 4 英寸屏的 iPhone5，市场上 5.0 英寸及以上的产品更是屡见不鲜。而平板电脑的尺寸越来越小。平板电脑起初的屏幕尺寸在 9 英寸到 10 英寸，目前平板电脑屏幕尺寸下限则调整到了 7 英寸。另外，在功能上，智能手机在保证通信功能基础上，根据市场需求，不断丰富功能应用，GPS、Wi-Fi、照相、摄影等功能已成为智能手机的基本配置。而平板电脑厂商则开始将通信模块加入平板电脑产品中，市场上具备通信功能的平板电脑已经多达 70 余款。本文侧重讨论不具备通信功能，只能通过无线网络上网的平板电脑。

2. 平板电脑历史

　　提到平板电脑，很多人会立刻想到苹果公司 2010 年推出的 iPad。iPad 在 2010 和 2011 年风靡全球，一度供不应求。在其带动下，各大品牌公司及各类山寨公司也纷纷推出各式各样的平板电脑产品，以图在这个新战场上分一杯羹。然而，据文献显示，iPad 远非第一款平板电脑产品，其诞生也并非一蹴而就，而是建立在其他公司及自己之前有关产品经验和教训的基础上逐步发展起来的。

　　平板电脑的历史可追溯到上世纪六十年代。美国计算机学家 Alan Kay 提出的 Dynabook 的新型笔记本电脑的构想被视作最早平板电脑的雏形。尽管该构想因没有得到支持而未投入生产，但为后来设计人员提供了灵感。自七十年代以来，陆续有相关产品问世，比如 1989 年 9 月 GRiD Systems 制造的 GRiDPad，1991 年 Go Corporation 制造的 Momenta Pentop 等。这些产品在市场上没有取得较大成功，其原因包括手写识别率不符合用户的需求，携带不方便，及高居不下的价格等，比如 Momenta 重达 3.2 千克，价格高达 5000 美元。Palm Computing 公司在 1996 年推出

的掌上电脑 PalmPilot 较为成功。凭借着日历功能、玻璃触屏还有能和台式机同步的先进性能及相对合理的价位（约 300 美元左右），PalmPilot 受到了白领阶层特别是常出差的商业人士的欢迎。

1998 年日本富士通电脑公司发布了该公司第一款平板电脑产品——Stylistic 2300。该产品与之前其他产品一样使用触屏笔输入信息，但其最大的特点就是推出了当时最先进的彩色触屏。Stylistic 2300 运行的是微软 Windows 95 和 98 操作系统，采用了穿透式显示屏来减少光线反射，突破了掌上电脑显示屏在户外反光的难题。虽然拥有如此多的先进性能， 但由于打造这款设备的成本过于昂贵，使得售价高达 4485 美元，从而让很多商务人士望而却步。

2001 秋天比尔·盖茨（Bill Gates）在介绍微软 Windows XP Tablet PC 时预测该电脑在未来 5 年变得非常流行（Gralla, 2011）。尽管微软期望这类电脑具有传统电脑的强大功能, 但实际上人们发现它并不能完全代替台式或笔记本电脑。由于其定价接近于传统电脑却又未能代替传统电脑，所以微软在 2002 年推出的 Tablet PC 并不完全成功。而这之后，IBM 推出的 TinkPad (现在此系列依归联想)、富士通推出的 LifeBook、HP 推出的 TC 系列等平板机型也陆续充实市场，同样由于价格等问题，仅为高级商业用户购买。2012 年微软推出 Surface 运行 Windows 操作系统希望能够在平板电脑市场创造佳绩。

苹果公司自己设计平板电脑的历史可追溯这七十年代后期生产的 Apple Graphics Tablet。用户可以使用有线的铁质触屏笔在上面画图或者写字。但该产品不能移动，它只是 Apple II 计算机上的一个附件，从现在科技角度上讲，并不能称为平板电脑。1993 年推出的 Newton 比 Palm Computing 公司的 PalmPilot 还早，被称之为世界上第一款掌上电脑（PDA）。该产品具有触控屏幕、红外线、手写输入（甚至支持草写）等功能。使用的作业系统是 Newton OS，其手写识别功能为一大特点。苹果公司对其的正式名称为"MessagePad"，而"Newton"则是苹果公司对其所使用的操作系统的称呼（Newton OS）。不过 Newton 一词更受欢迎，因而泛指了机器本身与其软件。据说 Newton 一词暗指 Isaac Newton（伊萨克 牛顿）的苹果。该系列产品于 1997 年在 Steve Jobs（乔布斯）重返苹果后宣布停产。

Steve Jobs 在定位平板电脑时将它作为一种独特的电子产品，而非传统台式电脑或笔记本电脑的替代品。2010 年苹果推出的 iPad 标志着触屏平板电脑技术的真正成熟，也宣布简单易用而且价位合理的平板电脑时代的到来。 这款 9.7 英寸的设备外观简洁、大气，里面承载了大量的应用程序，价位从 500 美元起步，提供不同存储容量版本，且用户可以根据自己的实际情况在 Wi-Fi 和 3G 版本之间选择适合自己的 iPad。

3. 平板电脑种类

当前市场上平板电脑有很多款式，各种产品层出不穷，有人称之为平板电脑的井喷时代。除了流行的苹果公司生产的不同款式的 iPad 外，在国际上比较有名的还有三星 (Samsung) 公司生产的 Galaxy 系列，亚马逊 (Amazon) 生产的的 Kindle 系列产品，谷歌(Google) 2012 年生产的 Nexus, 微软 2012 年后半年推出的 Surface 等等。

在众多平板电脑产品中，按其操作系统的不同，可将平板电脑分为三类：（1）使用 iOS 操作系统，如苹果的 iPad 系列包括 2012 年生产的 iPad mini；（2）使用 Andriod 操作系统的，如三星的 Galaxy 系列产品，亚马逊的 Kindle Fire，谷歌的 Nexus；（3）使用 Windows 操作系统的，如微软的 Surface RT 和 Surface Pro。

3.1 使用 iOS 操作系统的平板电脑

苹果公司的平板电脑使用的是自己的操作系统 iOS。第一代 iPad 于 2010 年 4 月问世。现在在苹果公司网站上销售的有三种型号：iPad2 （2011 年 3 月推出），iPad with Retina Display （2012 年 10 月推出），及 iPad Mini （2012 年 10 月推出）。每种 iPad 都有两款，一款只用 Wi-Fi 上网，另一款既可用 Wi-Fi 又可用电话通讯网络上网。其主要功能包括（1）照片和视频拍摄；（2）上网，包括网上视频聊天；（3）视频和音频在线或离线收看收听；（4）使用专门针对 Apple iOS 系统开发的 Apps（应用程序)学习、娱乐。

这里值得特别介绍的是介于 iPhone 和 iPad 之间的 iPod Touch。第一代产品 iPod Classic 1st Gen 于 2001 年 10 月推出，之后又不断升级并陆续推出 iPod Mini, iPod Shuffle, iPod Nano 等系列。 iPod Touch 1G（第一代）在 iPhone 1G 问世的几个月后于 2007 年 9 月发布，截至目前（2013 年 6 月）iPod Touch 的最新产品是第五代（于 2012 年 10 月投入市场）。从一定程度上说，只能用 Wi-Fi 的 iPad 与 iPod Touch 在功能上并没有很大区别。iPad 的屏幕比 iPod Touch 的屏幕大, 所以在浏览网页，使用应用程序更方便，看图像动画时效果更好。iPad 的屏幕是 9.7 英寸，iPad Mini 的屏幕是 7.9 英寸， 而 iPod Touch 和 iPhone 只有 4 英寸，携带更方便 。

3.2 使用 Andriod 系统的平板电脑

使用 Andriod 系统的平板电脑占市场大多数。Andriod 操作系统基于 Linux, 具有较强开放性。Andriod 于 2005 年被 Google 购买，2008 年 9 月，谷歌正式发布了 Android 1.0 系统，2009 年 4 月，谷歌正式推出了基于 Android 1.5 的手机。从 Android 1.5 版本开始，谷歌开始将 Android 的版本以甜品的名字命名，按照 26 个字母顺序排序。从 Cupcake, Donut , Eclair , Froyo , Gingerbread, Honeycomb, 到 Ice Cream Sandwich 。2012 年 10 月 30 日，发布 Android 4.2 Jelly Bean。使用 Andriod 系统的有代表性的平板电脑有三星 Samsung Galaxy Tab 系列，亚马逊 Amazon Kindle Fire, 谷歌 Google Nexus 等。
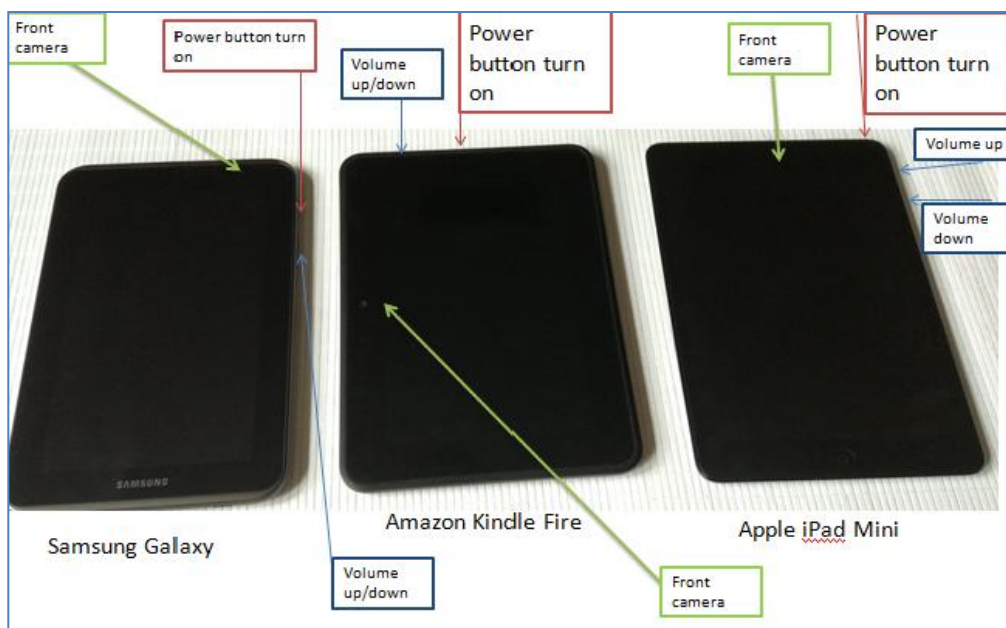
Samsung Galaxy

　　三星 Samsung　Galaxy 有多种类型，包括智能手机，仅支持 Wi-Fi 的平板电脑和既支持 Wi-Fi 又支持电话通讯网络的平板电脑。在仅用无线上网的产品中，七个是 Samsung Galaxy 自己的产品（截至 2013 年 1 月）。 这七款 Samsung Galaxy Tab 的大小不尽相同，其中四款的屏幕是 10.1 英寸，如 Samsung Galaxy Note (WI-FI) 10.1 等，另外三款的屏幕都是 7 英寸，分别是 Samsung Galaxy Tab 7.0 (Wi-Fi)，Galaxy Tab 2 7.9 (Wi-FI) 8GB, Galaxy Tab 7.0 Plus (Wi-Fi) 16 GB。三星平板电脑的功能与苹果的 iPod Touch 和 iPad 相似，同样具有可拍照片，摄像，网上视频聊天，上网浏览，视频音频在线离线收看收听等功能。但苹果的产品上仅预装有几个重要的应用程序，如照相(camera)、时钟(clock)、日历 (calendar)、通讯录 (contact) 等。用户需要其他 Apps 时，可从 iTunes 或 App Store 中下载。Samsung　Galaxy 的平板电脑上则通常预先装有很多合作方提供的应用程序 (Apps) 和工具(Widget)，比如 Samsung Galaxy Tab 7.0 (Wi-Fi) 上就装有 53 个。这些 APPS 中有些如苹果平板电脑上的一样是必须的，比如任务管理 (task manager), 照相 (camera) 程序。有些有用比如地图(maps)、闹钟(alarm)、图片编辑(photo editor)、视频制作(video maker)。有些则可有可无，对有些用户没有必要，如 Amazon Kindle, Google +, Yahoo Finance, Yahoo News, Netflix 等。有些甚至彼此重复，如 Email 和 Gmail, ChatOn 和 Messenger, Dual clock 和 World clock。 由于预先装的这些程序和工具过多，且都在同一层面，没有系统摆放，用户在使用时会觉得杂乱。

Amazon Kindle Fire

　　亚马逊的 Kindle 系列现在已经发展到第五代了。同苹果及三星生产的平板电脑相比，Kindle 的硬件功能较少。比如 iPad 和 Samsung Galaxy Tab 2 都有两个摄像头，既可以拍摄他人的照片和影像，又可以拍摄自己方便网上聊天，而 Kindle Fire 只有一个面对用户的摄像头，只能拍摄用户自己。Kindle 系列又被称为电子书阅读器（E-Reader)，其优势在于用户可以使用无线网络在互联网上特别是 Amazon 网站上购物、购买阅读电子书、报纸和杂志、观看收听网上的影视和音乐等。虽然 Kindle 不是世界上第一款电子书阅读器，但是 Kindle 却将电子书阅读器带进了主流社会。阅读电子书也成为了所有触屏平板电脑的主要功能之一。

　　2012 年 7 月，谷歌与台湾的华硕(Asus) 公司合作推出了自己的平板电脑即 Google Asus Nexus 7。Nexus 7 的外观上与三星的 Galaxy 及 iPad mini 类似。但和 Amazon 的 Kindle Fire 一样只有一个可自拍的摄像头，不能像三星和苹果的平板电脑一样进行照片、视频的拍摄。谷歌 Asus Nexus 7 的一个长处是非常方便使用 Google Play, Google Maps, Google Books 等谷歌自己提供的网上服务，如同使用苹果的平板电脑很方便使用苹果公司自己研发的 iTune 等产品一样。

　　在下面图片 1 和 2 中，作者将 Samsung Galaxy， Amazon Kindle Fire，和 iPad mini 三款平板电脑的正面和背面进行了比照。

图片 1 Samsung Galaxy Tab 2, Amazon Kindle Fire，iPad Mini 三款平板电脑的正面对照

图片 2 三款平面电脑的背面比较

3.3 使用 Windows 系统的平板电脑

　　微软公司一直在不断尝试基于 Windows 系统的平板电脑，尽管其征途并不平坦。1991 年，微软发布了"笔计算 Windows"，这是 Windows 3.1 的一个插件，使之能够接受"笔"输入的信息。多种设备采用了微软的软件，可以被认为当前平板电脑的先驱，尽管它们并不能感应手指的触摸。虽然 PenWindows 系统的平板电脑吸引了很多人的注意，但"笔计算"的热潮很快就过去了。2002 年，推出了基于

Windows XP 的平板电脑版本。这些产品还存在一个问题，它们对笔的整合非常肤浅。Windows 仍然是一个完全为键盘和鼠标设计的操作系统，很多功能难以用笔实现。第三方应用更是完全没有为笔优化。这些平板电脑在一些商务场合得到了应用，被当作可以站着用的 PC，但它们仍然是小众产品。微软在 2006 年再次向这一领域发起了挑战，和合作伙伴一起发起了"折纸计划"（Project Origami）。微软希望打造小型 PC，这种电脑的屏幕不但可以用笔点，也可以感应手触。这种"超便携 PC"依然很贵，并且在不用键盘的情况下，Windows 系统很难用。

2012 年 10 月微软推出的 Microsoft Surface 平板电脑有两个系列，一个是基于 Windows RT 操作系统的的 Surface RT，另一种是基于 Windows Pro 操作系统的 Surface Pro。与其他平板电脑相比，Microsoft Surface 的明显优势在于装有 Microsoft Office 可以更方便的在编辑处理文字，管理文件，以及备有 SD 和 USB 等移动设备插口可以随时特别是在无互联网的情况下方便地移动复制转移文件。基于 Windows RT 操作系统的的 Surface RT 使用的是与手机芯片类似的 ARM 芯片，价格相对便宜，但运行的程序也是基于 Windows RT 的 APPS，与运行在普通电脑上的 Windows 软件并不兼容。Surface Pro 运行的是 Windows 8, 与普通电脑兼容，具有强大功能，希望实现平板电脑和笔记本电脑二合一。据说是为那些既渴望优质轻薄笔记本的体验，又不愿舍弃平板电脑体验的人设计的（游寰臻，2013），因而售价也较高（1000 美元左右）。

4. 平板电脑的优缺点及其在中文教学中的应用

4.1 平板电脑的优点

如其他移动技术产品一样，平板电脑具有体积小，携带方便的优点。特别是尺寸较小的平板电脑如 iPad mini 和 Samsung Galaxy Tab 2 ，如之前的"随身听"便携式收录机一样，都可以一边走路（甚至跑步）一边收听（甚至收看），并且在等人，等车的少许闲暇时段也可打开使用，比笔记本电脑更方便。这一优点对外语学习很有帮助 （Godwin-Jones, 2006）。与算复杂的数学题，写思路需要连贯的文章不同，背单词短语、练习听力发音时不需要一定在安静的地方坐下来用整段时间学习，而是可以随时随地利用零碎时间学习。同其他移动技术产品相比，平板电脑还具有下列两个优点：

（1） 多功能性：平板电脑大多具有供网上浏览，文本阅读和写作，图片拍照和编辑，音频收听、录制并编辑，视频收看收听、录制并编辑等功能，此外还可极方便地（通常一键即可）将文件、图片、音频、视频与朋友分享或发布在互联网上。接近于智能手机的iPod Touch 也有上述众多的功能，只不过屏幕尺寸较小，在阅读文本时不太方便。但其携带更方便，特别是对拍照片、录制音频视频更实用。

多功能性这一特点对语言教学者很有帮助 （黄龙翔和陈之权， 2010）。比如学习者在周围环境看到想认识的字词时可以用随身带的小型平板电脑随时拍下来，

再用在线词典或已经下载下来的词典查看学习。一些语言课上，老师会让学生根据他们学过的内容编成自己的情景对话并用视频录下来与同学们分享。之前，学生做这类作业时，需要有个可以摄像的摄像机或照相机拍摄，而后用电脑编辑再放在网上。用智能手机或平板电脑，学生们则可以直接摄像，编辑，并很方便地通过互联网与他人分享。同样，老师可以通过视频或音频给学生的视频或音频作业提供反馈意见。

这里值得指出的是平板电脑款式不同，其多功能性也并不完全相同。比如如前所述，Amazon Kindle Fire 只有一个面对用户的摄像头，不便于照片拍摄及多媒体制作。

（2） 高互动性：虽然传统的笔记本电脑互动性也很强，但触屏式平板电脑的互动性更高。笔记本电脑通过手指敲击键盘或操作鼠标与屏幕上的文字、图像、视频、音频、动画等互动，而触屏式平板电脑则可用任何手指直接在屏幕上操作，甚至连手指都不用而只用自己的声音来和电脑互动。

对语言教学而言，这种互动性可使较枯燥的记单词、练习拼写等过程变得有趣。iPod Touch, iPad 和 Samsung Galaxy 都有很多帮助语言学习者学习的游戏，比如一些将图片和单词配对的游戏。使用者可以直接用手指（或在屏幕上拖动文字和图片。另外，就中文而言，平板电脑可以让学习者直接用手指在屏幕上练习写字，使汉字学习更简洁方便，并提高学习者的学习兴趣。

4.2 平板电脑在中文教学中的应用

平板电脑在中文教学的应用可分为两类：一是自身可供中文学习的功能，二是第三方开发的可供用户在平板电脑上下载使用的 APPS。下面对之分别阐述。

（1）自身可供中文学习的功能

自身的功能是指不需要用户安装就有的功能。如 iPad,和 Samsung Galaxy 都随机具备支持拍照片、录音、录像等功能的硬件和软件。在自身所带的功能中，就支持中文而言，苹果的 iPod Touch, iPad 的功能最多。除了具有前面所述平板电脑所有的携带方便、多功能、互动性强的优点外，苹果的产品 iPhone （iPhone 4S 和 iPhone 5), iPod Touch 5，iPad (iPad with Retina, 和 iPad mini) 上还有一个特殊的功能，就是 Siri ， 全称是 Speech Interpretation and Recognition Interface （可译作言语解释和认知界面）。

Siri 可以通过语音与使用者进行交流对话，智能性很高。Siri 可以将使用者的语音直接变成文字，并对其提出的问题给出语音及文字的回答。目前 Siri 支持英语、汉语、日语、西班牙语、法语、德语、意大利语等。Siri 是外语学习者很好的练习对话的伙伴。它可以将使用者所说的中文从语音转化成文字，并对所问问题同时用

语音和文字给出中文答案。比如下面图片一是 Siri 界面。下面图片二是 Siri 在听到问题 "明天天气冷不冷？" 后，作出的回答 "大约 10°，对我来说，太冷了。" Siri 在语音识别时与其他软件相比，效果不错，尽管仍不完美。但如果在周围及网上不方便找到可与自己随时随地练习中文的人的情况下，Siri 显然是个不错的练习会话备用对象。并且，其将语音转化成文字的功能，可帮助学习者提高正确发音的认识及汉字阅读能力。


图片 3   **Siri 的界面**
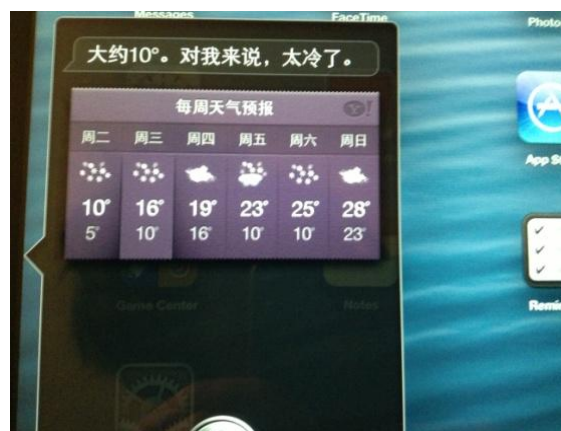
图片 4   **Siri 回答问题示例**

iPhone, iPod Touch, iPad 另外一个有助中文学习的自身功能是其支持三种中文输入方式。这三种中文方式是（1）软键盘输入；这一方式与在传统的台式或笔记本电脑上的汉字输入基本相同；（2）语音输入：使用者口说中文，电脑直接将语音转化成文字；这一输入法对只会认读汉字而不会手写的中文学习者很有帮助，同时可提高他们对自己汉字正确发音的意识。当然，从另一角度来看，不利于学习者对拼音的学习，因为这种

图片 5   **汉字手写输入示例**

输入法用不着拼音；（3） 汉字手写：用户可以直接在平板屏幕上用手指写汉字输入（如图片五所示）。这一输入法可以大大提高汉字学习者对手写汉字的兴趣，并提高其正确书写汉字的意识。如果使用者所写的汉字形状与原汉字相差较大，使用者会发现系统提供的供选择的汉字中，并没有自己想输入的汉字。另外，由于内置的汉字识别系统对汉字笔画的书写顺序有要求，当使用者书写汉字时笔画顺序与正确的顺序相差较大时，使用者也会发现系统提供的首选的几个汉字并不是其想输入的汉字。
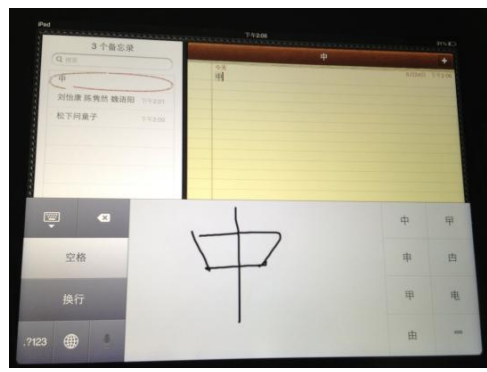
（2）帮助中文学习的 APPS

如今基于 Google Andriod 和苹果 iOS 操作系统开发的 APPS 数以千计，其中也有不少帮助中文学习的 APPS。笔者通过自己的观察及对下载的一些 APPS 试用后，总结出下面几点认识与同仁分享：（1）就目前来看，就中文语言学习而言，基于苹果 iOS 操作系统开发的 APPS 比 Google Andriod 的多；（2）一些 APPS 同时有基于 Andriod 和 iOS 的版本，比如一个叫 Chinese Writer 帮学习者练习汉字的 APP。另外，一些中英字词典的 APPS，其中一个非常值得推荐的是金山公司开发的 iciba；（3）基于 iOS 的 APPS 质量较高的比较多，可能是因为就目前为止，Andriod 对第三方开发的 APPS 准入的限制比较少，所以更容易出现良莠不齐；（4）虽然有一些 APPS 完全免费，但很多 APPS 则只对部分内容或部分功能的使用免费，而对全部内容或全部功能的使用收费。笔者个人认为这种运作方式比较合理。一些 APPS 不提供免费试用部分，用户购买前，只能通过 APPS 本身的介绍和一些评论来了解。在购买后，发现其使用不如预期，但已无法退还。另外，一些完全免费的 APPS，有的是项目资助，有的通过内嵌的广告来得到资金，这样不利用 APPS 开发的进一步发展。

Godwin-Jones (2011) 对基于语言学习的智能手机和平板电脑上的 APPS 进行了分析评论，预测基于 Google Andriod 的 APPS 由于其操作系统的开放性，在数量上会超过基于苹果 iOS 的 APPS，并且还介绍了一些可用来学习中文、法文、德文等的 APPS。林金锡和连育仁（2012 年）总结并介绍了众多 iPad 上对中文教学的 APPS。他们将这些 APPS 分成三大类：一般的应用程序（他们称之为软体），教学应用程序和其他。在教学应用程序下，又将各种 APPS 按其具体功用分成拼音、注音与发音，口语，字典与闪卡，动画故事，识字与写字，写作等八小类。在文章最后的附录中，他们提供了每个 APPS 下载的地址。详细请参看其文章。

4.3 平板电脑的不足与用于中文教学的局限性

从一方面看，平板电脑的优势在于可用无线网络（Wi-Fi）上网，获取网上资源，下载并离线使用应用程序（APPS)，下载并收看收听多媒体资料。而从另一方面看，其劣势也在于对无线网络的依赖性。在没有无线网络时，只能使用之前下载下来的 APPS 和多媒体资料。另外，平板电脑的很多功能也不能实现，如前面所述的苹果 iPad, iPod Touch 上的 Siri 功能，及自带语音输入功能，天气预报和地图功能等等。在中国电信业极为发达，通信费用较低，手机几乎人均一部，很多人有两部或以上，使用智能手机上网非常普遍和方便的情况下，仅能依赖 Wi-Fi 上网获取资讯与外界联系的平板电脑的局限性显得更加明显。这也是较大尺寸的智能手机在中国比只能利用 Wi-Fi 上网的平板电脑更流行的原因之一。

利用平板电脑进行中文教学的另一个局限性是对应用程序的依赖性。质量较高可用于中文教学的应用程序还不太多。如果需要付费的话，一般只能推荐给学生使用。如果要在课堂上使用，就面临谁付费的问题。因此目前对平板电脑的使用，大多仅限于学习者的自学或课后使用，即非正式学习（informal learning)使用，真正用于课堂，或与正式课堂教学结合的还很少（Goodwin, 2012)。这其中的另外一个

原因是在大多数情况下，并不能保证每个学生都有一部智能手机或平板电脑，除非是学校为学生购买或要求学生购买。

　　如果在有的学生自己没有任何新移动技术产品，并且在课后又无法在图书馆或其他地方方便借用的情况下，教师在课堂上做一些基于新技术产品的活动，或布置一些有关的作业，显然不太恰当。因为这样对这些没有新技术产品的学生不太公平，甚至会对他们心理上，特别是那些由于经济条件买不起这些产品的学生，产生消极影响。

　　另外，即使每个学生都拥有一部新移动技术产品，在多数情况下，学生拥有的这些产品并不相同，有的是苹果系列，如 iPad, iPod，或 iPhone 等，有的则拥有的是基于 Android 操作系统的三星或谷歌(如 Google Nexus) 等的产品。教师在设计课堂活动及有关作业时，应考虑到这些产品之间的差异。

　　此外，即使在最理想的情况下，即每个学生都有一台相同的新移动技术产品，教师也要认真考虑哪些活动适合于把这些产品在课堂上使用，哪些活动适合于将这些产品放在课前或课后用。Viberg 和 Gronlund （2012) 发现在运用新移动技术于语言教学的大部分研究中，大部分并没有充分运用到这些新技术的特长，特别是没有将之运用到学习者之间的合作与口语互动中。如何将新移动技术运用到教学中，使包括中文教学在内的语言教学更有效，还需要语言教学的研究者及实践者进一步探索、实践。

5. 小结

　　本文首先对平板电脑及其与智能手机的关系做了简单介绍，然后回顾了平板电脑近五十年的发展历史，接着介绍了各类平板电脑的主要特点。平板电脑按其使用的操作系统的不同可分为三类，使用苹果 iOS 操作系统的，使用谷歌 Andriod 操作系统的, 使用微软 Windows 操作系统的。文章总结了平板电脑的优点和不足，分析了如何利用平板电脑进行中文教学及需注意的相关问题。平板电脑作为近几年受到普遍关注的新技术，其自身所具备的一些功能和第三方开发的一些有关应用程序可用来帮助提高中文教学。然而需要注意的是平板电脑的作用并不能过分扩大，在运用过程中要注意到其局限性。

<div align="center">参考文献</div>

百度文库（2013). 平板电脑发展史. Retrieved from
　　http://wenku.baidu.com/view/2cb5ba4dc850ad02de80411e.html
郝也和王伟华（2013). 模糊的边界：智能手机与平板电脑的融合趋势.《人民邮电报》. Retrieved from http://www.c114.net/news/212/a740244.html

黄龙翔和陈之权 (2010). 流动科技为华语文学习开拓新方向.《华文学刊》. *8* (2), 69-84.

林金锡和连育仁 (2012). iPad 在中文教学中的应用.*Technology and Chinese Language Teaching, 3* (2), 47-63.

纳言 (2012). 微软平板电脑折腾史：多次失败终成苹果跟随者. 搜狐 IT. Retrieved from http://it.sohu.com/20120619/n346043107.shtml

泡泡网（2011). 踏着前人的足迹，平板电脑发展史简述.Retrieved from http://tech.huanqiu.com/digit/pc/news/2011-08/1885805.html

小熊在线网 (2011). 追随历史足迹 谈平板电脑忐忑发展史. Retrieved from http://fj.sina.com.cn/life/3c/nb/2011-04-19/170911553.html

游寰臻（2013）. Surface 系列产品全球扩张 能否让微软绝地反击？Retrieved from http://www.p5w.net/news/cjxw/201303/t20130318_68549.htm

Černuta, S. (2013). Tablet PC history. Retrieved from http://www.tabletpccomparison.net/blog/105-tablet-pc-history

Chinnery, G. M. (2006). Going to the MALL: Mobile assisted language learning. *Language Learning & Technology, 10* (1), 9–16.

Godwin-Jones, R. (1999). Mobile computing and language learning. *Language Learning & Technology, 2* (2), 7–11.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2011). Mobile apps for language learning. *Language Learning & Technology, 15* (2), 2-11.

Goodwin, K. (2012). *Use of Tablet technology in the classroom.* Retrieved from http://rde.nsw.edu.au/files/iPad_Evaluation_Sydney_Region_exec_sum.pdf

Gralla, P. (2011). *Microsoft released its first tablet 10 years ago. So why did Apple win with the iPad?* . Retrieved from http://blogs.computerworld.com/19251/microsoft_released_its_first_tablet_10_years_ago_so_why_did_apple_win_with_the_ipad

Honan, M. (2012). *Microsoft Surface RT: Microsoft dives deep to Surface a hit.* Retrieved from http://www.wired.com/reviews/2012/10/microsoft-surface

Johnson, L., Adams, S., and Cummins, M. (2012). The NMC Horizon Report: 2012 Higher Education Edition. Austin, Texas: *The New Media Consortium.* Retrieved from http://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/hr2012.pdf

Viberg, O. & Gronlund, A. (2012). *Mobile assisted language learning: A review.* Retrieved from http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-955/papers/paper_8.pdf

《对外汉语教育技术概论》书评
(Review of *Introduction to Educational Technologies*
for Teaching Chinese as A Foreign Language)

颜伟

(Yan, Wei)

北京语言大学

(Beijing Language and Culture University)

yanwei@blcu.edu.cn

    由北京语言大学对外汉语研究中心郑艳群教授编写的《对外汉语教育技术概论》是商务印书馆出版的"商务馆对外汉语专业本科系列教材"中的一部。这套教材总结以往的教材编写经验，集成多年来对外汉语教学成果，以课程在教学设计中的地位、性质、任务和作用为依据，规定课程基本内容划定教学范围，确立教学要求。同时密切关注语言学，特别是汉语语言学研究的最新进展，全面吸取汉语作为第二语言/外语教学研究的最新成果，着重体现语言规律、语言教学规律和语言学习规律。这套教材是中国内地三十年对外汉语教学事业发展的一个总结和集大成者。

    对外汉语教学作为一门新兴的交叉学科，它跟传统的语言学、教育学、心理学有着不可分割的关系，同时对外汉语教学的成型和发展，离不开作为工具学科的数学以及新兴的计算机科学、通讯工程科学、现代教育技术等学科。其中，现代教育技术是以多媒体计算机和互联网通讯技术为核心的信息技术应用于教育教学实践活动后，运用现代教育理论，通过对教学过程和资源的设计、开发、应用、管理和评价，以实现教学优化的理论与实践而逐渐形成的一门教育技术学科。现代教育技术理论的确立，不仅为对外汉语教育技术学这一学科提供了理论指导，而且为汉语教学创建了理想的教学环境。"工欲善其事，必先利其器"，运用现代教育理论和信息技术改造对外汉语的教学手段、教学方法和教学模式，是提升对外汉语教学的有效途径。在汉语国际教育蓬勃发展、信息技术领域日新月异的今天，《对外汉语教育技术概论》作为该系列教材中唯一一部介绍现代教育技术在对外汉语教学中的应用的著作，具有非常重要的意义。这是第一次把对外汉语教育技术学这一交叉学科作为一个独立的部分和学科建设的重要组成部分，正式纳入对外汉语教学专业教学体系，具有开创性意义。

全书共八章，另外包括一个教育技术相关术语中英文对照表、一个主要参考文献以及一份作者后记。主体内容可以分为四个部分：第一章总论为第一部分；第二章信息技术与对外汉语教学为第二部分；第三至第七章为第三部分；第八章汉语教师信息素养为第四部分。

第一部分为全书的导引，首先介绍了现代教育技术的发展现状及发展趋势，随后介绍了对外汉语教学应用现代教育技术的必要性和对外汉语教学应用现代教育技术的意义，最后简要介绍了包括广播电视教学时期、视听教学时期、计算机与多媒体和网络时期等几个时期对外汉语教学应用现代科技的发展简史，并列举出每一个时代的一些典型事件。

第二部分主要从信息技术角度概述了现代科技对汉语教学产生的影响。1.信息技术与汉语教学大纲制订及课程设置，包括为教学大纲的制订提供科学依据、为改进课程设置提供科学的依据和为教学设计提供帮助。2.信息技术与教学模式的创新，包括语料库驱动式对外汉语教学、多媒体驱动式对外汉语教学、网络技术为主流的汉语远程教学。3.信息技术与对外汉语教学课程整合，这是是现代教育技术的研究热点。最后从技术层面、教学功能侧面总结了信息技术应用于汉语教学的基本特征并介绍了汉语教学常用信息工具。

第三部分以汉语教学为主题，按应用于教学、研究和管理来布局。

第三章系统地介绍了对外汉语计算机辅助教学系统与课件设计。首先，简要介绍了计算机辅助教学基础知识，包括汉语计算机辅助教学系统的构成、计算机辅助教学系统的工作原理和教学作用以及汉语计算机辅助教学的理论基础及相关技术。其次介绍了汉语计算机辅助教学研究的主要内容，包括多媒体化和网络教学模式分析、汉语知识和言语技能计算机辅助教学方法、汉语计算机辅助教学的优越性和局限性以及影响汉语计算机辅助教学的相关因素。然后介绍了汉语计算机辅助教学课件设计与开发以及计算机辅助汉语测试。最后总结了未来汉语计算机辅助教学的发展趋势：多媒体化和网络化、智能化和虚拟现实化和多层次多样化。

第四章主要系统地介绍了声像技术和多媒体技术在汉语教学中的作用，介绍了语言实验室类型以及多媒体汉语课堂教学方法。以及作为引申，介绍了语音识别技术、汉字手写识别技术以及手持移动设备等其他信息技术和设备在汉语教学中的应用。另外，作者根据自己多年经验系统介绍了汉语教材和词典中多媒体技术的应用，这是本章的一个重要特色。

第五章计算机网络环境下的对外汉语教学，主要从汉语远程教学的基本情况、网络音频视频资源利用、汉语网络课程资源的组成和功能、网络环境下汉语学习者特征及教师素质以及虚拟现实技术和语言教学环境等五个方面系统介绍了现代远程教育。

第六章系统介绍了语料库技术在对外汉语教学中的应用。首先介绍了语料库语言学的形成和发展以及语料库建设、加工和检索的基础知识。然后系统地梳理了目

前汉语研究领域主要的语料库并进行了评价。最后介绍了应用语料库开展汉语教学研究的步骤和策略以及语料库技术在汉语教材编写及词典编纂等方面的重要作用。

第七章系统地介绍了数字化对外汉语教学资源建设与管理。首先提出了标准化和规范化、权威性和可靠性三个信息化资源建设的基本原则并详细介绍了文字素材、声音素材、图片素材、动画素材、视频素材的作用及采集加工，最后介绍了如何进行资源集成与资源管理。

第四部分提出了对外汉语教师信息素养这一全新概念，主要从信息素养的由来及意义、对外汉语教师信息素养的主要内容以及信息素养与教师教育等三个方面介绍了信息素养在面向全球化汉语教学形势下对对外汉语教师的影响。

通览全书，我们可以发现该书具有三个比较鲜明的特点：前瞻性、系统性和实用性。

当今，以计算机多媒体技术和信息技术为代表的科学技术正在飞速发展,成为现代高科技的标志，新的理论、技术和方法不断涌现。该书首先从信息技术的角度概述了现代科技在汉语教学中的应用，然后，力求全面地描绘教育技术与汉语教学的关系，阐述教育技术在汉语教学领域应用的方方面面。而一些不断涌现的新概念、新技术和新趋势，常常以脚注的形势标记在书中。在不久的将来这些将会成为研究的新热点，这是本书的一个重要特点--前瞻性。比如，该书对手持移动设备在汉语教学中的应用进行了合理的分析，而且预测到这也将是未来汉语教学的一个重要领域等等。另外，前瞻性还体现在善于捕捉信息社会发展的趋势，并结合对外汉语教学进行分析，提出了对外汉语教师信息素养的概念。信息素养作为传统人文素养在信息社会的拓展，越来越受到重视，被认为是人们在复杂的信息化社会生存和发展的一项关键技能，是继计算机素养、图书资料检索技能之后，信息社会教育及发展的重要基础。现代教育技术给教育领域带来的深刻变化表现在备课方式、授课方式、学习方式和科研方式等几个方面。现代化教学成功与否，在很大程度上取决于教师示范具备一定的信息素养。面向全球化汉语教学的形势需要未来教师具备信息素养。

系统性是指该书比较全面地反映了现代科技在汉语教学中应用的各个主要方面，并系统地勾勒出信息技术和对外汉语教学直接的关系网络，包括信息技术与汉语教学大纲制定及课程设置、教学模式的创新、对外汉语教学课程的整合等多方面的关系，立体呈现出对外汉语教育技术的全景。系统性更体现在该书对教育技术在对外汉语教学领域应用的方方面面都进行了详细阐述，包括计算机辅助教学系统、多媒体技术、网络环境与网络技术、语料库技术、数字化对外汉语教学资源等各个方面。

该书突出实用性，在阐述基本理论的同时，侧重展示现代信息技术在对外汉语教学不同领域的应用状况和方法，并结合具体案例进行说明。读者可以按照书上的提示进行操作,这为读者的教学和科研工作提供了强有力的理论和实践支持。例如，第四章"计算机多媒体技术与对外汉语教学"第五节"汉语教材和词典中多媒体技术的应用"就详细介绍了汉语教材中图片的示意功能和示意方法。这些内容可以直接应

用于对外汉语教学的实践。

　　本书作为商务印书馆出版的对外汉语专业本科系列教材中唯一一部介绍现代教育技术在对外汉语教学中的应用的著作，主要是为对外汉语专业本科生编写，同时也可供其他对外汉语教学工作者、研究者参考。它既是一部前瞻性、系统性很强的对外汉语教育技术的理论著作，同时也是一本足够支撑对外汉语教学各个领域教学实践和教学活动的可操作性很强的"案头书"。现代教育技术在对外汉语教学中的应用，是对外汉语教学和研究必须关注的内容，该书很好地完成了这一命题，具有开创意义。