

Papers Presented at the 2nd China-Canada TCSL Symposium

第二届中加汉语教学研讨会论文

Main Theme

“TCSL in the 21st Century: Innovations, Challenges, and Solutions”

“廿一世纪汉语教学的革新,挑战与对策”

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Forward:

1. Greeting from President of the Canadian TCSL Association

Dr. Robert S. Chen,

President of Canadian TCSL Association

My TCSL friends, the dual factors of continuing economic globalization and the rapid and sustainable growth of China's economy have spawned an intense worldwide interest in learning Chinese language. With currently 30 million Chinese learners, more than 2,300 universities, and an increasing number of primary and middle schools in over 100 countries around the world offering Chinese language courses, the Teaching of Chinese as a Second Language has inevitably become an international concern.

A testament to this phenomenon was the first World Chinese Conference, which was held in the Great Hall of People in Beijing on July 20, 2005. A vast assembly of 500 policy-makers, educators, scholars, and experts from 65 countries and regions were called together to speculate on the theme of "the Development of Chinese in a Multicultural World" and explore the topics of international demands, developmental trends, policies and strategies, as well as international cooperation in Chinese teaching. This conference was historically significant in that it had laid down a new milestone in the development of Teaching Chinese as a Second Language.

Undoubtedly, both the practical and potential value of Chinese as an important business language is ever increasing. Furthermore, promoting the Chinese traditional culture can be an excellent counterbalance to the negative homogenizing tendencies of cultural globalization. Cross-cultural understanding can also be a vital tool for enhancing international stability and sustainable economic growth, and to promote international cooperation for the benefit of all. Under its fundamental national policy of Multiculturalism, Canada is one of the first nations in the world to implement regulations and practices for the teaching of ethnic languages as second languages. The teaching and promotion of Chinese as a second language in Canada, and especially in BC, has been most successful. Chinese now ranks as the third most commonly spoken language in Canada, and Chinese culture has become an essential part of the mosaic of Canadian culture.

In order to promote the teaching and studying of Chinese language, to further develop the cultural mosaic, and to provide a platform for research, communication, exchange, and collaboration among the nation-wide community of Chinese teachers and scholars, Canadian Chinese language teachers and scholars have jointly incorporated the

Canadian TCSL Association, the Canadian National TCSL Database, and the Canadian TCSL Journal, offering online services free to all. These projects have been accomplished with great support from local communities and public institutes, as well as the Education Office of the Chinese Consulate-General in Vancouver and the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language of the People's Republic of China.

Today, on behalf of the Canadian TCSL Association, I would like to welcome you to the Second China-Canada TCSL Symposium to discuss and exchange views on the topic: "Innovations, Challenges, and Solutions of TCSL in the 21st Century". I would also like you to join me in extending our gratitude to everyone who has contributed to the improvement of TCSL in Canada.

Keynote Speech

2. The Prospects of the Confucius Institute

Dr. Tony Knowles

President and CEO, British Columbia Institute of Technology

Good morning everyone, I trust you had a pleasant afternoon and evening after the opening ceremonies yesterday. I'm very pleased that Minister Chan is going to take some time out of his schedule to stay and find out what BCIT has to say about the Confucius Institute. As Dr Chen indicated, we were in Beijing in July and it was a great honour to be in the Great Hall of the People to accept the plaque establishing the first Confucius Institute here in Canada. So I'm going to spend some time this morning talking about the Confucius Institute.

I think it's clear that China is emerging as one of the world's largest economies - I don't think there's any doubt about that. Anybody who has visited China in the last year or two can attest that there are construction cranes everywhere. I think that some 20 or 30 percent of the world's cranes are in China and I think another fundamental premise is that economic development depends on trade, particularly international trade. So if you follow that line of reasoning you say, okay, in order to have effective trading relationships, then you must understand the culture and hopefully the language of the country you are dealing with - particularly the culture. And, it is certain that China has recognized that the language they have is not necessarily one that a lot of people understand around the world and in order to do business they have to get more and more people to understand some Chinese language and some of the culture. They want to do it in a non-confrontational, and non-threatening way. This goes back to the teachings of Confucius and, hence, peaceful rise innovation; the concept of getting people to understand and participate, but in a non-threatening way, so that people don't think that someone's trying to take over everything but working towards partnering and working together.

Hence, the creation of the Confucius Institutes and, as indicated, the intent by 2010 is to have a hundred such institutes around the world. We in Canada have the first here at BCIT and I guess I'd like to spend a little time explaining why BCIT was chosen. We're very honoured to have been selected and I think there are some very specific reasons as to why that has happened. To do that, you'd have to understand what BCIT is and what we do.

BCIT, the British Columbia Institute of Technology, is a polytechnic institution. Now, in Canada, the word 'polytechnic' is not that well known. The last true polytechnic in Canada was actually Ryerson in Toronto, and they became a university in the middle 80s, so we at BCIT are the only polytechnic by legislation in Canada. That means we are not a college, we are not a university, we are not a university college; we are unique. We're different. We like it that way.

So what is a polytechnic? We have a lot of programs that are basically related to the engineering, business, health sciences, trades technologies, and we offer a full range of credentials for certificates through to applied master degrees. We have 18 undergraduate 4-year degrees and now we're starting to put on degree programs at the masters level. The other part of a polytechnic vision is that we actually engage in applied research. I need to explain that a little bit: applied research to us means doing research around solving problems for business and industry, as opposed to pure research that goes on in the universities. If you think of research in a university setting - and I know there are a number of people here who actually are doing research at the university level as a part of the Asian Studies Department or wherever you are in a particular university. Professors tend to drive the research in a university as a result of their interests, their skills, and their capabilities, and they apply for grants to do the research. We, at BCIT, respond to what business and industry would like us to do as opposed to being driven by the interests of the particular professor, so it's a little different approach. And then, we have exceptionally strong relationships with business and industry; we have all kinds of partnerships and arrangements with business and industry because at the end of the day, the only reason we exist is to train people so that they can be gainfully employed. We don't train people to go onto further education per se, although some do. Primarily, our role is to train people so they can go out and have good careers and get good jobs.

So, moving forward, you say, okay, that's very nice, BCIT is different from anything else - so where's the China connection? Well, we have a strong international presence in Asia, in fact, we have a very substantial international department and BCIT has chosen China as basically its fundamental area of major operation. It's been going on for several years. We have obviously seen China emerge through the 90s into 2000 to increase its openness towards the West and looking to the things that BCIT has, perhaps, to help them in terms of their economic development.

As you can see from the slide, since 1993 we've been involved in a number of CIDA projects to the tune of about 30 million dollars, and working with the Chinese Government. A lot of these are around economic development. Over the years we've trained probably about 2500 Chinese government officials and technical personnel in various things.

Now, the next one is something a little different - pipeline relationships and pipeline students, which is a different terminology from what you might have seen. We have a number of relationships with universities in China, and what we have established is an approach whereby the institution in China will take a two-year diploma program at BCIT

and deliver it over three years in both English and Chinese. The graduates get both a Chinese diploma and a BCIT diploma. Then they can have the choice of going out to work, or coming to BCIT to take one of our degree programs. So, we are concentrating on getting students coming to BCIT at the higher diploma degree level as opposed to the entry level in year one. There is a particular reason for that: almost every educational institute in Canada is looking for Year One students. At BCIT, it presents a problem for us. The programs that are of interest to students from China and other countries are also the ones that are of interest to people in BC. And, if you know BCIT very well, you know most of our programs are full with rather long waitlists. So students apply and, unfortunately, they get discouraged because they can't get in. So we have said we're not going to do that anymore; we're actually going to set up the structure so students come to BCIT later on and come to the degree programs which is really what they want in any event. So that's what this pipeline relationship is all about. It's a little different approach from almost any other institution in Canada.

We also spend a lot of time now talking about how we can teach people in educational institutions in China on how to deliver education in a polytechnic way. A polytechnic way means that you combine the lab and the theory into one program and they're all very much inter-related, as opposed to being separate. So if you think of mechanical technology, we are doing some theory, people going to the lab, working with equipment, more theory, back in the lab, back and forth. It's an integrated approach that requires you to do things very differently in terms of how you set up a curriculum and of course you must have a fairly significant amount of equipment to be able to do this. That's the approach we take and, in China, this has not been an approach widely used. The Chinese have been very good with the educational side and the academic side, but now they want to know how they can do this. In fact, in October we are getting 16 or 17 presidents from institutions in Liaoning Province who will spend a couple of weeks at BCIT learning about this and how they might use this in their institutions. As you can see from here, we've been authorized by the Chinese Government as an overseas training site.

So, we think we're ideally suited for a Confucius Institute. Just a few statistics on BCIT: we're the largest educational institution in BC by number of students, 55,000 (not by budget - UBC has us beaten on that one). And we have five major campuses in Vancouver: one in Burnaby; aerospace at YVR; marine campus in North Vancouver, on the NorthShore, and then two in the downtown area. One in particular I want to focus on this morning is the eight-storey business tower that is on the corner of Dunsmuir and Seymour in downtown Vancouver. We own that building, and that is where we do a lot of business and computer-related training; a lot of programs and courses specifically relating to the needs of the downtown core of Vancouver. This is where the Confucius Institute will be physically located. We have a very nice spot on the eighth floor - great view - and it's going to be set up in terms of having an office environment, a resource centre, and a number of classrooms, and so forth. That is where we are putting the Confucius Institute in terms of its physical location, so it will be very well centrally located in downtown Vancouver and, if you recall, one of the criteria around the Confucius Institute was that it

actually be in a business centre in a large city, because you want to make sure that the clientele are those that are able to come to you from business and industry and people involved in trade. So when you think about this - we're in downtown Vancouver, and B.C. of course is the gateway to Asia, and with the large number of people of Chinese heritage who are in the lower mainland - it all starts to make some sense.

So what will we be doing at the Confucius Institute? We're going to provide courses, resources, so that people who are in business already can learn about China, how to do business in China, and learn about the culture and the history. So they can learn how to interact. But we're not going to do the things that the universities are currently doing, that's not our role. Universities do some of this as well, but clearly Asian Studies departments in universities do many different things. A lot of the professors are engaged in research and looking at gaining better understanding of Chinese history, culture and politics and making all the connections. We don't see ourselves in that arena. Ours is a much more pragmatic approach in terms of delivering material that'll be of specific interest to people who want to engage with China. So, we will be inviting the university sector to talk to us about how they can connect with the Confucius Institute and, hopefully, it can become a living laboratory for professors to use in their research as one opportunity with the university sector. Clearly, we are not in the business of doing what is traditionally part of the university sector - that's not our intent. Similarly, we don't see ourselves doing things that the private sector is doing in terms of teaching basic English to students who are from China.. We think we can work with them as well. It's not that we're trying to get into that territory either. Fundamentally, we have a specific niche.

All this will be guided by a Board. We will have the advising board; this is traditional for BCIT. When we have a program area we always have a group of people who are very much engaged with the business and industry in the area. They come together and give us advice, periodically. I'm very pleased to tell you this morning that Dr. Chen has agreed to sit on our Board, which I think is great, because that provides a strong link into your organization which will help to promote and work with the different things that are going on in terms of teaching Chinese as a second language. Dr. Chen, welcome.

I'd like to move on now to talking about some of the specific things around the BCIT operation. This is a list of courses. I'll go through a couple of these and talk about them but, there are some things that you need to know about BCIT over and above just the courses. One of the things that we'll be establishing at the Confucius Institute is a resource centre. We're very much committed to using the latest technology in terms of delivering programming. We, as of this last June, embarked within BCIT proper on a 25 million-dollar five-year project called Technology Enabled Knowledge (TEK). The purpose of this is to make sure that the classrooms, the educational structure, the curriculum, and everything related, is making good use of, and taking advantage of, all the latest technologies. Part of this is hardware-related, software-related, making sure the classrooms are "smart classrooms," with all the latest equipment. Also, we have to teach our instructors how to use these new ways of teaching effectively. We have a very large department within BCIT;

there are 40-odd staff who do curriculum development using applications with WebCT and other things that are related to the various technologies. This is a very key cornerstone of how we will position the Confucius Institute. It will be looking at how we can use all the technologies to help with the delivery, over and above what might normally be just paper and pencil and chalk and chalkboard which have their place but we also think that there are other things that we need to do.

This first course has some Basic Chinese with some of the phraseology that you might run into in a very cursory way. Those of us who do business in China rely very heavily on people who can translate for us; Dr. Gu and Jenny Fu, colleagues who are here as well, for many years have provided that service, and that's part of doing business in China. Clearly, getting people to realize that you understand a little bit is important but you don't have to understand it all, because there are people who can help you, and as long as you choose the right people, you're okay.

And then of course you have Business Chinese Fundamentals. There may be several levels of this kind of program, and you get into some of the culture issues, not the least of which I guess is learning that the most dreaded word of the Chinese language is called "ganbei" When you go for a dinner in China there is a particular ritual, and certainly it is very different from how we conduct dinners here in North America, so you're learning those kinds of things needed to be working with the Chinese. These are the kinds of things that I think people need to know. We've already had a lot of interest from a couple of companies that have said, we need to do this in China, but can you maybe help 10 or 12 of my employees understand some of the basics and what they might expect. They've never been there; what can they expect when they step off the plane and so forth? One thing they can expect is a very warm and sincere welcome in China. I've been there 13 or 14 times now, and I must say it's a pleasure to go, because Chinese people are very, very warm and friendly and sincere, so that's a great start.

And of course we talk about trade. All that's being done by the Government in China, in my opinion, is being done for a very specific reason. That is "value added" going down the road, which is to increase trade and open up markets, which then benefits the companies back in China, allowing them to expand and grow; all that trickles back into the China economy, which then helps to provide the kinds of service that perhaps some of the Chinese people at the moment don't enjoy. That's the purpose of the Confucius Institute from our perspective.

Then of course you have the tourist aspect. There are a lot of people who say, maybe I'd like to go out and take a two-week tour of China, go see the Great Wall, the Forbidden City, all the things that I've heard about, and I have an opportunity to go. We can help them understand a little bit what they can expect as a tourist. Obviously there are students at BCIT and the other educational institutions around the province who might want to take one or two of these courses so they can gain awareness. When someone takes a course at BCIT there's a credential that comes out of it, something to say you've taken the course

and, hopefully, some of these courses can be used to gain credit at other institutions - we'll have to work through that. That may or may not happen but that's certainly what we're aiming for, that some of these courses would be available for credit purposes at other institutions because B.C. likes to do that, likes to make sure that students who take a course at one institution can apply for credit at another. B.C. is the best province in Canada for that kind of activity.

You can see that we're working through a number of very applied, very pragmatic course structures here. There will also be a test centre for the Chinese Proficiency Test, the HSK, and other things.

That kind of gives you an oversight of BCIT, and why we think that the Confucius Institute is an excellent fit with BCIT. This may be a little different from some of the Confucius Institutes that are being established elsewhere in the world and that's good because then it'll provide some comparison for the people who fund these institutes to look and say what's working, what isn't, and where we're getting the benefit, and where we're not. Clearly, we're going to invite input from you, the members of the community, as to what you would like to see. These courses will be of varying length, they could be offered during the day, the evening, the weekend. If you think of part of this as a part-time studies operation, then it'll be similar to that kind of structure. Most of these will have some tuition attached, and that will be reflected with the length and the type of course, and so on. At this point, I will stop talking and open up to questions and answers.

Keynote Speech

3. Demographic Change and the Challenges it brings for TCSL Instructors

Prof. Richard King

Director, Centre for Asia-Pacific Initiatives, University of Victoria

Director, Chinese Studies, University of Victoria

In this presentation, I will attempt to outline the changes in the composition of the student body in classes for both the Chinese language and Chinese literature that have taken place in the almost twenty years that I have been at the University of Victoria, and the ways in which we have responded to those changes. I also wish to pose some questions to our colleagues here today, so that we can share the teaching strategies that the experience of teaching the language and culture of China in Canada (for many of us, on the Canadian West Coast) has forced us to develop. I will ask the following:

1. How are we to establish criteria for differentiating categories of native speakers of the Chinese language?
2. Are the materials available to us for language instruction, including those developed under the sponsorship and leadership of the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, suited to our needs, or are there recommendations we should be making to our colleagues from China for the development of future materials?
3. Does the Canadian language classroom need to function differently when the students in it are from Chinese backgrounds?
4. How can we profit from the ethnic and cultural diversity of the student body in classes on Chinese literature and other aspects of Chinese culture?

First, a brief summary of my own personal history of teaching Chinese studies over a period of more than thirty years, from which I hope to derive a more general picture of the way that our profession has grown up in a changing world.

When I began teaching Chinese in 1973, on graduation from the University of Cambridge, I joined a team of teachers who were developing new teaching materials suited for both undergraduate instruction and the training of diplomats and other professionals preparing

work in China. The Chinese Language Project at the University was led by the former head of the British military's Chinese language training centre in Hong Kong, and the former senior teacher at that centre. The materials we prepared were intended to replace the series of textbooks written by John DeFrancis which I had studied as an undergraduate, and which, we felt, were largely inaccessible to the students who studied them; at that time, as I understand it, no consideration was given to using the teaching materials then coming from China, which were felt (with some justification) to be poorly designed and, given that the Cultural Revolution had still not run its course, excessively influenced by the political vocabulary of the day. The assumption made by the teachers at the Chinese Language Project, and by everyone writing textbooks for Chinese at that time, was that the student would be learning from scratch, coming to the first class with no knowledge of the tonal nature of the Chinese language or anything but the most rudimentary idea of the writing system; I had certainly begun my study of Chinese in the late 1960s in such a state of ignorance.

That generation of British students had, almost without exception, no background in Chinese. I suspect the situation may have been somewhat different in Canada, with established Chinese communities in the major cities; however, when I began to teach my first beginners Mandarin class at York University in Toronto in 1982, students with a background in the Chinese language, either Chinese Canadian or students from Malaysia and Singapore who had graduated from an English- or Malay language school system, were still in the minority. At York, I also found myself teaching multiple classes of Mandarin for Cantonese speakers, my first experience of teaching these students and coming to terms with their very different needs as language learners. Initially, at least, these two groups, the absolute beginners and the native speakers of Southern forms of the Chinese language, were quite distinct; after a couple of years, however, it was clear that there were students at the University wishing to study the Chinese language (often at the insistence of their parents) who had grown up in Chinese-speaking families in the Toronto area or moved to Canada as children, who could not easily be placed in classes either with the absolute beginners or with the native speakers, most of whom had completed high-school in Hong Kong. The beginners' class moved too slowly for them, and left them bored and their class-mates intimidated by the speed with which they mastered grammar and learned characters; but they were not able to keep up with the native speakers' classes, which were conducted entirely in Chinese and involved quite lengthy written and oral presentations. For these students, I introduced a new course, which essentially took half the time to teach a first year text-book (Colloquial Chinese by David Pollard and P.C. T'ung) as was being taken by the beginners' class. I only had the opportunity to offer this course once before I left York, but I became aware that a different kind of language teaching material was needed that the one I was using, one that would place greater emphasis on the sounds of the language in the initial stages, and would deal with subject-matter of greater interest to the students.

When I arrived at the University of Victoria in 1986, I found a situation similar to the one that had existed at York four years earlier: a clear separation between beginners and the

fully literate native-speaker group. In the two decades since then, we have seen the same kind of demographic shift that our colleagues across the province, and in the major cities of central Canada, will themselves have witnessed: an increase in immigration to Canada from Hong Kong, some of it precipitated by the signing of the Joint Declaration on the future of the then colony and now Special Administrative Region in 1984 and the run-up to the return of Hong Kong to Chinese sovereignty, and an accompanying increase of immigration from Taiwan, and the People's Republic, with a dramatic surge in 1989, when the Canadian government offered permanent residence to all Chinese citizens in Canada at the time of the tragic events of June 4. The children of these new immigrants, many of who settled close to where we are meeting today, ranged from infants to those who had completed high-school; many have since entered the university system, and their numbers go a long way to explaining the increase in the university-age cohort in British Columbia at a time when universities in other provinces are concerned at a decrease in qualified applicants. Many of them are interested in taking courses in Chinese studies, both language courses and those in literature, history, and culture, and they have brought new challenges and opportunities to those of us who teach in these areas. Some of these students have gone on to take major degrees in our Department of Pacific and Asian Studies; a larger number have added a minor degree in Chinese Studies to a major in another discipline.

The programme that we have in place to accommodate the varying levels of competence that students bring to Chinese language classes is the result of pioneering work done over a number of years by my colleague Karen Tang, and I would like to acknowledge the leadership role that she has played in offering an appropriate level of instruction to students from a very wide range of language competence.

We continue to offer a twelve-unit (corresponding to twenty-four units at UBC and most Lower Mainland colleges) language programme to students who enter the system as beginners. For many years we used Liu Xun's series of Practical Chinese Readers; in the 1990s we switched to the Chinese Primer produced in Princeton by Zhou Zhiping and his colleagues, a text that is still preferred by one of our teachers for its advocacy of full characters; and in recent years we have taught the first three of these courses using textbooks commissioned by the National Office of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language and compiled by a group of colleagues at Fudan University in Shanghai, led by the exceptional teacher and scholar of pedagogy, Wu Zhongwei. A number of us at both the Universities of Victoria and British Columbia were involved in the creative process that produced the books, and had the opportunity to work with, and learn from, Dr. Wu when he was a visitor at our research centre last year; Sun Ying, my colleague at the University of Victoria and the principal instructor of Chinese at Camosun College in Victoria, will be talking about this set of textbooks when the conference proper begins. Demand for courses from these "non-native" language learners has remained remarkably stable over the last two decades: each September, we begin two sections of twenty-five students each of our first introductory course, and in recent years we have had sufficient demand to offer an additional section in our summer programme. At the other extreme, the course

offered first by Hsiao Hsin-yi and taught by Karen Tang since Dr. Hsiao's retirement, offers students with the equivalent of a high-school education in a Chinese-language school system the chance to study either the novel Hongloumeng or a selection of recent Chinese films in a class conducted entirely in Chinese; demand for the course has been consistently high, with sections offered in both the September to April school year and summer school being considerably over-subscribed.

The increase in students studying Chinese has largely been in the two new courses devised by Karen Tang for those students who do not fit into the two categories of beginner and fully literate native speaker; that is, those students from native-speaking backgrounds who have been largely educated in an English-language school system, either here in Canada or in Asia. We have a one-semester 1.5 unit course for those with quite limited levels of literacy, which focuses both on the sounds of the language (since most of these students are fluent in forms of the Chinese language other than standard Mandarin/ putonghua) and in developing reading and writing skills, and a second course that follows on from it, intended to bring students to a level where they can take the advanced courses for native speakers. In addition to being offered in Victoria, these courses have also been offered for a number of years in a college in Hong Kong, under Karen Tang's supervision. In previous years, we have filled classes for both of these courses in both winter and summer sessions in Victoria, though there have recently been indications that changes in the composition of the Chinese community in British Columbia may result in fewer students coming to us as speakers of non-standard forms of the language with a degree of reading comprehension, and more coming in as beginners after an education that does not include any formal instruction in the Chinese language. With the course offerings I have described above, a student coming to the University can begin his or her study of the Chinese language at one of four levels, depending on the degree of previous exposure to, and facility with, the Chinese language.

All of the above leads to the first question that I raised in my introduction: How are we to establish criteria for differentiating categories of native speakers of the Chinese language? What constitutes native-speaking ability? And is there some way that we can standardize our evaluation of students entering our programme or transferring from other institutions? Most of you will be aware of the variables: we have students born in Canada and raised in Chinese-speaking families, but educated entirely in English, who reply in English to questions posed to them in Chinese by their parents and grandparents; others who came to Canada at any point between kindergarten and grade 12, or whose education in Southeast Asia was only partly in Chinese, who may feel more or less able to read and write in their mother tongue. At what point are we to classify these groups as native speakers? Are students who have taken Mandarin in the BC school system at grade 11 or 12 ready to enter classes for either native or non-native speakers at the intermediate level, or should they start from the beginning again?

Our experience to date is that it is extremely difficult for us to make a proper evaluation without first meeting the student and talking to him or her. This raises a number of

problems, of course: it makes it difficult for a student new to the University to select the appropriate course while registering for classes, something that most students do before arriving in Victoria; it is labour-intensive for instructors; and students may be asked to change classes once the term has begun and their level of facility with the language has become evident, something that may result in timetabling conflicts. Standardizing criteria is a real challenge when students come to us with such a variety of language backgrounds, and it is hard to see how we can devise systems that will transfer from one university to another, or from a college to a university. I have no solutions to these problems, and only hope that as we share our experiences and practice, we can find ways to cooperate.

The second question that I raised had to do with the kinds of teaching materials we use, particularly for those students with some native-speaking experience: are the materials available to us for language instruction, including those developed under the sponsorship and leadership of the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, suited to our needs, or are there recommendations we should be making to our colleagues from China for the development of future materials? In recent years, new language teaching materials have become available to us from China, thanks in considerable part to the sponsorship of National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language: in addition to the textbook series produced by Wu Zhongwei and his colleagues, there is the updated version of the Practical Chinese Readers compiled under the leadership of Liu Xun, both of which are clearly designed for the language learner beginning from scratch, with instruction in phonetics and elementary grammar that is far superior to that in previous textbooks, including the early Practical Chinese Readers. Few authors have devised textbooks which are designed, both in terms of their content and their pedagogy, for the needs of the partial native speaker; one who has attempted this is Zhou Zhiping, whose series of textbooks published by Princeton University includes one entitled *Oh, China!*, the narrative of which concerns the relations between an American Chinese student and her family as she takes college courses in Chinese. I would hope to see materials produced in China to meet the needs of this particular, and reasonably substantial, group; rather than dealing with life in North America, their narratives should be set in China and address contemporary issues (education, employment, entertainment, family and societal relations, the environment etc.), and include discussion of the particular challenges that overseas Chinese have in studying, travelling and finding their place in Chinese society. That way, they could be used in the UK and Australasia as well as in North America, and appeal to the widest possible market. If the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language was looking for advisors and collaborators for such a project, I am convinced they could find ideally qualified teachers in this gathering today. This is a project which I think would be of real value to many of us at the university and college level, and possibly in the high-school system as well.

The third question I raised at the beginning of this talk is one that has been considered by teachers of English as a Second Language in Canada who work in schools whose pupils are predominantly Asian, and also by our colleagues engaged in the teaching of Japanese at Canadian universities: does the Canadian language classroom need to function

differently when the students in are from Chinese backgrounds, or, I should add, from other parts of Asia? We are all familiar enough with the traditional Chinese classroom, with it stern and authoritative teacher demanding extensive memorization and the writing of impossible numbers of new Chinese characters every week from absolutely obedient (and occasionally terrified) students; many of us who learned Chinese in Western universities did it from teachers who replicated the traditional Chinese classroom in Europe or North America. More recently, the tendency has been to move to the more common interactive North American classroom, with its focus on the learner rather than the teacher. But is this necessarily better for the student? Would students of an Asian, or Asian-Canadian, background benefit from a more traditional and structured learning environment? In attempting to answer this question, I draw here from a paper on language instruction presented to a conference at the University of Victoria and published by my Centre in a conference volume entitled *Changing Japanese Identities in Multicultural Canada*. In the paper, titled "What is a Japanese Classroom Really Like?" the author, Tom Whalley, looks at a series of categories for understanding classroom culture, in which the opposing poles in each case appear to fit preconceptions of North American and Asian pedagogical practise. These include:

1. Preference for informal vs. formal communication
2. Preference for independent vs. dependent learning
3. Preference for participatory learning vs. passive learning, and
4. Preference for energetic vs. calm learning.

In a survey of Japanese students studying English in Vancouver, Whalley found that his students agreed that their perceptions of Japanese education was that the second category in each of the above cases was the preferred option in Japan. In stating their own preferences, an overwhelming majority maintained that they also preferred a system of "formal communication" in which teacher and student maintain traditional roles; however, in the other categories, the student respondents were more or less evenly divided between those who preferred what were perceived to be the traditional Japanese values (dependent, passive, calm learning) and what they understood to be North American values (independent, participatory, energetic learning). While it would be dangerous to read too much into this single survey, it does suggest that the replication in North America of the traditional Chinese classroom, with its authoritative and venerated teacher, may have been as much for the benefit of the instructor as the student. My own feeling is that, in teaching Chinese as with other languages, a good-humoured, interactive, learner-centred approach makes for a good classroom experience for all concerned; but there is much to be gained in a more traditional rigor as it applies to homework, and the correct mastery of tones and stroke-order.

The final question I posed goes outside the language classroom in which most of us work

to the broader world of Chinese studies. Though most of my teaching has been of the Chinese language, my research area is actually in modern literature; I teach classes in traditional fiction (focussing on seventeenth century works such as Feng Menglong's Sanyan stories and the Shuihuzhuan), in early twentieth century literature and culture (from the late Qing novel through the May Fourth period to the popular and literary culture of the republican period), and the literature of the People's Republic, including a new offering on a single author or topic. The student body includes students of Chinese ethnicity born in Canada, Hong Kong and Taiwan, as well as Canadian students (with or without a background in Chinese studies) and a number of students from Japan, a mix that I find very satisfying and interesting to teach. The stereotypes of Asian students – that they are reticent to express opinions that might differ from their teachers or might lead to their classmates laughing at them, and that they are especially reluctant to discuss any work that deals with sex – largely proved not to be the case. The most recent course I taught on Chinese literature focussed on the writing of the contemporary short-story writer and novels Yu Hua, who is celebrated for the brutality of his narratives and his unflinching descriptions of the worst that people can do to each other. Students read almost all of the short stories by Yu Hua that had been translated into English, and the novels *Huozhe* (To Live) and *Xu Sanguan maixue ji* (Chronicle of a Blood Merchant). What the Chinese students were able to provide was a sensitivity to the family system that Yu Hua so trenchantly deconstructs in his fiction, and a reading based on the Chinese texts that often differed from the understanding that other students derived from the translations. Most were untroubled by the violence of the stories. More importantly for present purposes, most were comfortable with the discussion of the texts that went on in the classroom. I believe that, though the teacher has a responsibility to respect the students and ensure that they do not suffer embarrassment or humiliation by reason of their ethnicity (or for that matter, their gender or sexual orientation), all students can profit from the traditions of the North American classroom.

I have offered what I believe are important questions for those of us who teach the current generation of students, with their diverse backgrounds, in both language and literature classes. I hope to learn from your responses and thoughts on these questions.

Keynote Speeches

4. 从中文语言的特征谈古典诗词的美感

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我这是第一次参加汉语教学的会议。我的普通话讲的不错，但是我没有教汉语的经验。当陈山木博士要我来作专题演讲的时候，我说我不知道要讲什么，我没有这方面的体会和经验。他说你是教诗词的，可以讲一讲语言跟诗词有关的地方。所以我就想了一个题目，就是从我们中文语言的特征谈古典诗歌的美感。

刚才有个星岛日报的记者来采访我，他说我们中文的语言特征是什么？中文所具有的其他语言所没有的语言特征是什么呢？就是单音、独体。我们是一个声音，是东、西、南、北、春、夏、秋、冬，都是单音，所占据的空间是一个 space，一个方块字。以“花”来说，是一个声音，占一个 space，而英文是 flower，发音不是一个音节。这个词法文是 fleurs，也不是单音的。日文说 hana，是两个假名。他们都不是用一个声音拼起来的。而我们中文是单音独体的。这样的语言特征造成了特殊的美感，也就是说，虽然是单音，可是每一个音可以有四个不同的声调。普通话里说一声、二声、三声和四声。

我说比如 yan 第一声是平声。在中国古代把第一声叫做阴平，把第二声叫做阳平，然后我们有上声有去声还有入声。yan(1), yan(2), yan(3)... 第三声我们念上(3)声，不念上(4)声。北方的普通话里面没有入声字，只有南方省份里有入声字。如入声字一般说起来它是有 PTK 的收尾。象我的姓“叶”，普通话来说就是第四声 ye(4)，但这个字的本声在古代不是去声，而是入声。它有一个 ptk 的结尾。所以我的姓在普通话的拼音是 ye，可是在广东话里，它是 yip。北方普通话里边没有入声。

还有一点应该注意的就是，英文当它的性质变动的时候是加 ED 或者 ING 来分别。比如说 I learn English(我学英文)。这个 learn 是动词。当我们说 English learning is very difficult，加上 ing，这个动词就变成名词了。我们还可以有一种变化，我们把它加上 ed。原来我在美国教书的时候，他们有一个组织，一个 Association，叫做 American Learned Society，“learned”是有学问的人，有变动。我们中文字是单音、独体，你不能加 ing，也不能加 ed。但是我们在读音上是有变化的。我常常觉得很奇怪，就是现在很多的人他在发音的时候不注重这一点。比如我们说“这条鱼很新鲜”，我们说“这件事鲜为人知”这个“鲜”字不念 xian(1)，而念 xian(3)，是稀少的意思。

一个变化最多的字是数学的“数”字。我们说“数数”，同样的一个字，前面的一个字是动词，是 counting，后面一个字是名词：number。同样的一个字，写出来是同样一个字，是单音独体的方块字。我们的语言在词性变化的时候不能加 ing 也不能加 ed。“数”count 是动词，“数”number 是名词。还有的时候我们可以把这个字念成 shuo (4)，如“数见”：我跟这个人数见，这是一个 adverb，是说我跟这个人屡次见到。其实这个字还有一个念法，在中国四书的《孟子》里边，是在《孟子》的“梁惠王篇”里有这么一句话：“数罟不入 wu(三点水旁右边是一个“夸”字)池，这个时候“数”字就念 cu(4)，是个 adjective，是“繁”的意思，织得很密的网不下在那个深水的水池子里去，因为这样的话你把鱼网一捞就把小鱼苗都捞上来了，那就妨害了鱼的繁殖了，所以这里的“数”念 cu(4)。

这就是这个语言的特征，它是单音，是独体，不能够象拼音的文字加 ed 或者 ing。可是当它的词性变化的时候，可以不在形状上改变，而是在声音上改变。不同的词性时有不同的读音。可以念 shu(4)，可以念 shu(3)，可以念 shuo(4)，也可以念 cu(4)。

还有我发现这个大陆上很多人念得很奇怪，我们说如果有了丧事，婚丧喜庆，这个“丧”字是名词，念 sang(1)。如果你把一个东西丢掉了，是丧失了，这个“丧”字念 sang(4)，丧失了什么东西，sang(1) 是名词，sang(4) 是动词。可是有一次我看中国的历史剧，办丧事的时候，他们都不说办 sang(1) 事，都说办 sang(4) 事，哪有办 sang(4) 事的呢？电视连续剧广播的字幕上写的就是“丧”，这个字可以念 sang(4)，但这个“丧”如果是名词，就应该念 sang(1)。这也是中国文字的一个特征。

另外，还有一个语言的特征是，就是西方的 grammar 是很仔细很详细的，一定有主词，有动词有受式。而且做为人，有第一人称地二人称第三人称，有少数(似应为“单数”)的有多数的。但是我们中文没有这种少数多数的分别。在中文的语言里，由于它没有这种清楚的文法结构可以分析，所以有时候就出现了一种多义性 Plural certification and multiple meaning。比如杜甫有两句诗说“感时花溅泪，恨别鸟惊心”。因为杜甫是生在安史之乱战乱流离的年代。他说我感慨时事的时候“花溅泪”。因为文法不细腻，所以我就发现大家讲这句诗翻译这句诗时，比如翻译中就有很多不同的译法。说我感慨时事，所以花上 on the flower 溅了我的泪点，我的眼泪滴在花上了。所以花溅了我的泪。还有人翻译说。我感慨时事的时候，这个花自己流下泪 The flowers are crying with the petals falling down。花瓣都掉下来了，所以是花都流下泪来，于是就有了不同解释的可能。因为这个语言没有那么清晰，所以这种 Plural certification and multiple meaning，他有时候会造成一种 ambiguity。你到底怎么讲呢？是我的泪溅在花上了呢，还是花瓣飞下来像花流了泪了呢？就有了一种 ambiguity。这种现象在诗歌里有的时候是不能避免的。你不能把两个解释同时都保留。但是这两个解释都是 possible，都是可能的。有的时候造成混乱，但它也造成了诗歌的丰富。说我的泪既溅在花上，花瓣的纷落也像是流泪。就使得这首诗有了更丰富的美感，有了这样的可能性。

另外还有，这个语言是单音、独体的，我们就容易做成对偶。清代有个李笠翁做的有一个韵对。他说

天对地；雨对风；大陆对长空；

山花对海树；赤日对苍穹；

雷隐隐；雾蒙蒙；

日下对天中；风高秋月白；雨霁晚霞红；

牛女二星河左右；参商两耀斗西东。

形容词对形容词，名词对名词。“陆”是个名词，“大”是形容词；“空”是名词，“长”是形容词。

大陆对长空，赤日对苍穹。

“赤”是个形容词，是色彩，“苍”也是形容词，也是色彩。

“雷隐隐”，是两个叠字；“雾蒙蒙”，也是两个叠字。“日下”对“天中”，“日”跟“天”都是大自然，“下”、“中”都是方位；

风高秋月白；雨霁晚霞红。

大家注意到没有，我没有念风高秋月白(bai(2))，我念的是风高秋月白(bo) 雨霁晚霞红。这就是对偶的另外一个特色。它除了名词对名词，动词对动词，形容词对形容词，颜色对颜色，这种种的性质相对以外，它的平仄要相反，就是说，上一句是平声，下一句就变成仄声。“天”是平声，“地”是仄声。“天”对“地”，平仄要相反。“雨”是第三声，是仄声，“风”是平声。词性要相同，平仄要相反。

天跟地都是 singular word，很容易对。但现在，风高秋月白；雨霁晚霞红。

“风”、“雨”都是大自然的现像，“霁”是晴了，“高”是风在高处在推。一个形容风，一个形容雨。“秋月”中“月”是大自然现像，“霞”是大自然现像，“秋”是形容月的，“晚”是形容霞的。“红”是形容晚霞的颜色，“白”是形容秋月的月光的那种凄冷的颜色。

如果按照第一声第二声是平声，第三声第四声是仄声，这句诗是

平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平，

那么现在，红是平，所以上面的白，就必须是仄声。但是在诗里边声调就不好听了。在座的刚才我发现我差不多三十年前在南开教的同学，还有在复旦听过我讲课的同学，我这个人八十多岁教课差不多六十年，他们那里头就有听过我课的人。所以说叶老师您说普通话，我们知道您是北方人，您念起诗来我们就不知道您是哪的人，您的声音是什么声音哪？

我的声音是不正确的入声字。因为我是北方人，我说叶，就念 ye(4)，而不是 yip。我不会念广东话，不会发广东话的声音。所以我在教诗的时候，因为诗除了它的意义所表现的诗中

的美感、境界以外，诗中还有一个 rhythm。刚才有一个记者访问我，我说英文的诗中有一个 rhythm，我们中文的诗中也有一个 rhythm。例如英文的 beautiful，它有很多个音节，有轻重音，是重音在前还是重音在后，它有一个尾音。我们中文就是单音，如红，没有了；花，没有了。单字的时候，单字没有一个 rhythm，在形成一句的时候，就要结成一定的 rhythm，也就是平仄相对。这岂不是太麻烦。其实并不是古代人在做诗的时候要故意制造这个麻烦。

我们诗歌格律的形成是因为我们语言的特质， It's naturally formed, 不是 Force it to be like that。是因为语言的这个特质自然形成了这样一个 form。平仄相对格律，有人说这个诗歌格律太麻烦了。大陆的王力教授写的一本诗词格律学，写了这么厚一本书。我的学生说我们越看越觉得复杂，越看越不敢做诗。这个太复杂了。这么厚一本书讲诗词格律。我说我给你一个最简单的 form。你只要记两个格式， the basic forms, 最基本的两个格式。我把它分为 A、B 两式：

A 式：平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

B 式：仄仄平平仄

平平仄仄平

A 式的头两个字是平声， B 式的头两个字是仄声。你就记住这两个最短的，但是诗，我们中国最短的诗是绝句，最少它有四句。你要知道，如果头两个字是平声，我们管这叫平起，是从平声开始的，而且主要是第二个字是平声。第一个字是不重要的。因为中国诗除了平仄以外还有个 rhythm，就是节奏，节奏是二、二、一：

平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

第二个字要停一下。这个停顿的地方的平仄是重要的，第一个字的开始不要停顿，第一个字如果不合格律没有关系，你可以变成仄平平仄仄，你或者变成平仄平平仄，没有关系。古代做诗的人常常说“一、三、五不论”，就是说第一、三个字(如果是七言诗就加上第五个字)不是停顿的地方，第二、四、个字(如果是七言诗就加上第六个字)是停顿的地方。

绝句至少是四句诗，你把刚才的 A 式和 B 式 combined together(结合在一起)。所以如果五言绝句是平起，就是

平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

仄仄平平仄

平平仄仄平

你这儿还没有字，也没有意思，也没有感情，也没有风景，只要按平仄念这个格律，就已经有了诗意了。

如果你不作平起的五言绝句，如果你要作仄起的五言绝句，那也没有关系，你只要把 A 式 B 式颠倒过来，变成 B、A，就是

仄仄平平仄

平平仄仄平

平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

你看，诗才有几个字，诗有七个字。七个字也很简单，如果是七个字，就是在五言前边加两个字。五个字前边加两个字就是七个字。一定是加在前边，不能加在后边。你把仄起的前面加两个字就是加两个平声，在平起的前面就是加两个仄声。

A 式的五言的平起平坐，变成七言，就加两个仄声，就变成

仄仄平平平仄仄

平平仄仄仄平平

五言的仄起，前面就加两个平声：

平平仄仄平平仄

仄仄平平仄仄平

七言绝句就是把七言 A 式和 B 式加在一起，你念念看：

仄仄平平平仄仄

平平仄仄仄平平

平平仄仄平平仄

仄仄平平仄仄平

所以对偶很简单，你只要记住一个 A 式一个 B 式，一切变化就都在里面了。怎见得？我们以诗为证。给大家举了几首诗作为例证。第一首诗是大家都熟悉的。我这个人大家都说是“人

之患在好为人师”，我教过幼稚园的小朋友唐诗，我教他们背这首唐诗。这是幼稚园的小朋友都熟悉的王之涣的“登鹳雀楼”。鹳雀楼在山西，是个很有名的楼，现在不知道还在不在，什么样子，我没有去看过。

白日依山尽，

黄河入海流。

欲穷千里目，

更上一层楼。

那个“白”字，你发现，刚才在李笠翁的韵对中我念

风高秋月白，我念 bo。我现在不一定要念 bo 了。我只念 bai(2)。为什么？因为它是第一个字。第一个字的平仄读音不重要，按规矩我们把这个入声字念成平声没有关系。我们就念它第一声。

据说鹳雀楼所在的地方，如果你看古代的地理图，这个山上是东边可以看到黄河入海的。所以太阳是从西边沉没。而黄河流向东方。你向西一看，是红日依山尽，白就代表亮的意思，很光明的太阳，已经斜到山边快要沉没了，可是你向东一看，黄河奔腾入海，“君不见，黄河之水天上来，奔流到海不复回。”黄河入海流，你因为站在楼上，所以看得远。如果你想看得更远，欲穷千里目，穷是尽头的意思，你要想看到千里之远，就更上一层楼。你就再上一层楼，就看得更远了。这是这首诗的意思，它的平仄呢？

仄仄平平仄

平平仄仄平

仄平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

这就是诗歌的格律性。

七言的我们也举了一个例证：李太白的“峨嵋山月歌”。我不知道为什么大家现在都写成女字边的“娥”，其实应该是虫字边的“蛾”。是说飞蛾前面有两个触角，说女人的眉毛很长的样子，而且有个出处。出于中国古代《诗经》，形容女人的美丽。现在的人都写成女字边，

峨嵋山月半轮秋，

影入平羌江水流。

夜发清溪向三峡，

思君不见下渝州。

你可能注意到我不念夜发(fa(1))，FA(1) 是平声，这个字是入声字。这个字按诗的格律是念入声。本来应该是

仄仄平平仄仄仄，应该是“三峡向”，这个叫拗句，转了个圈。

所以诗里边有基本的平仄格式，它有一点变化。首先，第一个字是不重要的，其次，中间有一个拗句，转了个圈。本应该是平平仄，变成了仄平平。

思君不见下渝州

(平平仄仄仄平平)

通过诗歌的例证可以得到两个结论，第一，它的第一个字是可以通用的，其次，有的时候可以有拗句，比如本来是平平仄，变成了仄平平。总之基本的格式是

平平平仄仄

仄仄仄平平

仄仄平平仄

平平仄仄平

但有的时候并非如此，象李白的“玉阶怨”

玉阶生白露，

夜久侵罗袜。

却下水晶帘，

玲珑望秋月。

基本上不对的地方在哪里？一般的诗不管是平起还是仄起，第二句和第四句要押韵，Rhyme。Most time 押韵时它是平声字，平 tone。可是现在你看它不是，

玉阶生白露，

夜久侵罗袜。

却下水晶帘，

玲珑望秋月。

这个“露”是个去声字，这个“裊”字也要请教一下广东人怎么读。“望秋月”也是。总而言之，这里押的是入声韵。本来一般诗的格律，第二句第四句都是押韵是平声，这个不是合乎 A 式跟 B 式。这个是绝句里的例外的情况。不合乎 A 式 B 式的格律有两种可能。一个叫古绝句，因为中国古代古老的时候，还没有平仄的格律。古诗是不讲平仄的。还有一个就是越古的诗，从汉朝以来到魏晋南北朝，有一些个诗是可以配合音乐去歌唱的，叫做乐府诗。这一类的诗有时不遵守诗的格律。“玉阶怨”是古诗还是乐府呢？形式上它跟古诗没有分别，它是不分别平仄的，也没有押平声的韵。可是它不属于古诗的 category，因为从诗名看，它应该是乐府诗。

除了中国的语言特征，单音、独体、声调平仄、和对偶，除了这些个以外，诗歌当然是由语言组成的。可是诗歌除了语言的 formed(形式) 以外，更重要的还是诗歌内容的一种境界。今天我们不讲，我们讲的是语言的特征。那里边有很多微妙的变化。你要了解这诗人的背景，诗人的时代。诗歌的语言里边还有一个该注意的是 allusion (典故)。她有很多的 allusion 在里边。象李商隐的“寄远”：

女亘娥捣药无时已，

玉女投壶未肯休。

何日桑田俱变了，

不教伊水向东流。

这里边有很多的 allusion (典故)。女亘娥大家都知道这是天上的嫦娥。李商隐的诗里边常常讲到嫦娥。如

嫦娥应悔偷灵药，碧海青天夜夜行。(“嫦娥”)

青女素娥俱耐冷，月中霜里斗婵娟。(“霜月”)

同样一个月亮，有的时候他管它叫嫦娥，有的时候叫女亘娥，有的时候叫素娥。为什么？诗歌里边要表现的感情的意境不同，所以他给她加上一个不同的形容字，表示一种不同的情调。

“嫦娥应悔偷灵药”这儿是注重原来的那个神话传说。那个是嫦娥，这里的女亘娥是要跟底下的“玉女”做对比。要很 FEMINISM，要很女性化，所以用“女亘娥”，有个女字边。他要使它女性化起来。

“女亘娥捣药无时已”，诗人用典故把它混合了。神话上传说嫦娥偷吃了不死药，月亮上有个小兔给她捣药，所以“捣药无时已”。她如果追求一个理想，要长生不老，就要不断地努力追求，所以捣药从来没有停止。“已”是 end, never.

“玉女”是另外一个 allusion。中国古代另一个神话中说天上有一个玉女，常常跟天上的玉皇大帝两个人做一种赌博的游戏。做什么赌博的游戏？现在我们很多小孩子常做这样一个游戏，你拿一个 container，你把它放在地上，你拿一个东西往里丢。丢进去你就赢了，丢不进去你就输了。所以在天上，above the Heaven 他们也有这种游戏。玉女就跟玉皇大帝两个人赌博，玉女投壶，一直在比赛。

可是在李商隐以嫦娥的神话，虽然他用了这个神话，但是他的主旨不是在这个神话。他的用意是说美丽的人有一个美丽的理想，要一直追求下去，从来不会放弃。嫦娥是一个美丽的女子，她一直在捣药，她从来不肯停止，玉女是女神仙，她一直在投壶也不肯放弃。一个美丽的人有美好的理想，不停止地追求，在这种追求之下，如果我们世界上每一个人都有美好的愿望，让世界没有罪恶，没有战争，都是美好的，每个人都祈祷，每个人都追求，有一天全世界都改变了，“何日桑田俱变了”，哪一天你真的把世界都“俱变了”，把桑田跟沧海都改变了。我们神话上说东海有的时候海水都干了，变成桑田，有的时候有海水就变成沧海。沧海桑田的改变，有这种美好理想的人，有这种不停的追求，哪一天你真的你的追求在世界上实现了，那些罪恶、战争、痛苦都没有了，“何日桑田俱变了，不教伊水向东流。”伊水是中国河南的一条河流，伊水就不向东流了。水不东流，人生就没有长恨，一切罪恶、痛苦都弥补了。这就是李商隐的诗，它用了很多的典故。

Paper Presentation

5. 科技时代汉字简化的商榷

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文字是记录语言的符号，虽然在汉字发展演变过程中有简化也有繁化，但是，从汉字发展史看，简化是主导倾向。“简化字”是相对“繁体字”而言的，是由中国政府根据汉字的特点和规律、采用同音代替、声旁代替以及按照“约定俗成”的原则从同一字的诸多异体中确定为群众接受的字体；以国家发布的字表形式“明文规定”的，不同于在民间流行的简体字。自二十世纪五十年代中国大规模推行简化字以来，“人们学习汉字所需要的时间大大缩减了，”然而，随着科技的发展，尤其是计算机的普及使用，随着手写的减少计算机输入的增加简化字比繁体字省时省力的书写优势似乎不那么明显了。不但改革开放以来，随着港澳台与大陆的往来，繁体字的使用又多了起来，学术界有的学者还提出了“识繁写简”的主张。有的甚至公开提出恢复繁体字，把繁体字作为规范汉字的观点。这又引发了新的时期对简繁体字的争论。然而，由于历史和现实的原因完全放弃简化字、恢复繁体字的提议是不切实际的，汉字还是要坚持简化的方向。但在此同时也要正确对待繁简字并存的现实，培养精通双字的人才。

关键词 简化字 繁体字 计算机 识繁 古籍 整理

“简化字”是对“繁体字”而言，由中国政府根据汉字的特点和规律、采用同音代替、声旁代替以及按照“约定俗成”的原则从同一字的诸多异体中确定为群众接受的字体；是以国家发布的字表形式“明文规定”的，具有“正体字”的法定地位，不同于在民间流行的简体字(1)。1956年1月28日，国务院全体会议通过《关于公布〈汉字简化方案〉的决议》，随之就公布了《汉字简化方案》。《汉字简化方案》有简化字515个和简化偏旁54个。1964年5月，文字改革委员会根据国务院的批示编辑并出版了《简化字总表》，收简化字2236个。1986年10月10日，国家语委根据国务院的决定重新发表《简化字总表》，对个别简化字做了调整，收简化字2235个(2)。

简化字的历史与现状

文字是记录语言的符号，在汉字发展演变过程中有简化也有繁化，但是，从汉字发展史看，简化是主导倾向(1)。这也是人类的天性使然——好简恶繁，趋易避难。所以，简化就成为汉字发展演变最基本的规律(3)。一部汉字演变史实际上就是一部汉字简化的历史。

汉字在甲、金、篆、隶、楷演变的诸阶段，都有异体字存在，其中笔画少的可以说就是当时

的“简化字”，笔画多的也就是“繁体字”了。本世纪初，中国著名音韵学家劳乃宣就曾有“中国文字奥博，字多至于数万，通儒不能变识”的述论，并编拟《简字谱录》提倡汉字改革。国民政府教育部早在1935年8月24日正式公布《第一批简体字表》在全国统一使用。该表共收324个简体字。这个字表影响了中国、日本、马来西亚、新加坡等整个“汉字文化圈”。1946年，日本在二战刚刚结束的新败之后，即正式公布了《当用汉字表》，大量汉字被简化。新加坡和马来西亚最终也于1976、1977年全盘采用汉字“发源地”中国的简化字。

由此可见在汉字发展的每一时期，被淘汰的往往是笔画多的，保留下来的是笔画简单的，这正是汉字由繁趋简的基本规律的具体表现。

自二十世纪五十年代中国大规模推行简化字以来，“人们学习汉字所需要的时间大大缩减了，不但扫盲速度加快，平均每个儿童识字的时间也大约节省了一年。”⁽⁴⁾

然而，随着科技的发展，尤其是计算机的普及使用，随着手写的减少计算机输入的增加简化字比繁体字省时省力的书写优势似乎不那么明显了。原来，《简化字总表》（1986年新版）中的2235个简化字，平均每字10.3画，而相对应的繁体字，平均每字16画，简化字比繁体字省三分之一强⁽⁵⁾。现在就汉字输入方法来讲，繁体字的输入方法不一定复杂过简体字的输入方法，如仓颉输入法最多不会超过五画（五次敲击键盘）就可以打出一个字，在速度上不低于简体输入法。而且改革开放以来，随着港澳台同胞和海外华人、华侨回祖国大陆投资，繁体字被带回了大陆，学术界有的学者还提出了“识繁写简”的主张。有的甚至公开提出恢复繁体字，把繁体字作为规范汉字的观点。这又引发了新的时期对简繁体字的争论。

汉字简化的方向不能变

大陆12亿人中47岁以下的（大约共有七八亿人）已经成功地使用简化字40余年，证明是相当完善，切实可行的。港澳台在民间，正如新加坡文字学家谢世涯所说，是“简化字大行其道，甚至还出现在印刷品上”。70年代以后，台湾确立了两套用字标准：一是印刷正字《常用国字标准字体表》，收字4808个；二是手写规范《标准行书范本》，收字1580个左右⁽⁶⁾。

万波在2001年所作的香港与新加坡大专学生繁简字认读能力调查表明香港大学生的简体字认读能力与新加坡大学生的繁体字认读能力相等，这说明“从简识繁”并不比“从繁识简”困难，而“从繁识简”也并不比“从简识繁”优越。从1500常用字范围内新加坡学生的繁体字认读率比香港大学生的简体字认读率高的情况来看，反而有可能是“从简识繁”比“从繁识简”优越。由此看来，就其他使用中文地区的文化交流来说，使用简体字不会比使用繁体字感到不便，但在减轻学生的学习负担方面，好处则是明显的⁽⁷⁾。简化字便于学习，易于掌握，书写方便，对历史和文化的继承与发展起了积极的促进作用，其意义是非常深远的⁽⁸⁾。因此，在今天，不管出于什么理由，完全放弃简化字、恢复繁体字的提议都是不切实际的⁽⁹⁾。

正识简繁并存，汉字识繁不容忽视

国家先后发布了《简化汉字总表》、《现代汉语常用字表》、《现代汉语通用字表》以及《出版物汉字使用规定》、《标点符号用法》等一系列行政法规和技术标准,为全社会的汉字规范应用提供了依据。这些文件、措施的制定和推行,无疑对繁体字的泛滥和不规范用字的蔓延起到了较好的约束作用。

然而,“历史上,繁体字曾经作为规范汉字在中国流传和使用了两千多年。繁体汉字在我国的历史文献、古代典籍及文化读物中都曾占据统治地位并发挥重要作用。1956年,我国公布了《简化汉字方案》,建立了现代汉字的体系,从那时开始,简化汉字才逐渐取代繁体汉字而成为记录现代汉语的规范字体。但是,在此后相当长的时间里,汉字使用领域中仍然保留着繁简并存的局面。除为数不多的古代近代以及现代文学作品的繁体读本继续流行外,不少从小认惯、写惯繁体字的老一辈学者都对繁体字抱有难以割舍的感情,在他们的日常用字中始终无法摆脱繁体字的影响。这是繁体字客观存在的社会因素之一。”

2000年正式公布的《中华人民共和国国家通用语言文字法》中第十七条明确规定:“本章有关规定中,有下列情形的,可以保留或使用繁体字、异体字:(一)文物古迹;(二)姓氏中的异体字;(三)书法、篆刻等艺术作品;(四)题词和招牌的手书字;(五)出版、教学、研究中需要使用的;(六)经国务院有关部门批准的特殊情况。”⁽¹⁰⁾这说明国家允许在一定的范围内继续使用繁体字。内地同港、澳、台等地区经济文化联系越来越密切,人员接触越来越频繁,信息交流越来越广泛,繁体字和简化字之间的互相渗透、互相影响也就必然越来越深入。这是不以人们的意志为转移的事实。对此,明智的做法是承认繁体字在汉字发展中的作用和地位⁽¹¹⁾,在坚持汉字简化的方向不能改变的前提下“识繁”。

首先,“识繁”是继承弘扬祖国优秀传统文化的需要。它是中华民族文化的灿烂结晶,是中华民族文化的重要载体。不“识繁”不仅看不懂古代的文献书籍,甚至也看不懂50年代中期以前的中国所有文献书籍。坚持汉字简化的方向不能改变,中国并不意味着废除繁体字。早在1993年,许多专家学者就提出,“凡是进大学读书的必须懂得繁体字,必须能够阅读繁体字。”对“学历史,古文学,哲学史等以及做传统文化工作的要做到“又能识繁又能用繁。”否则中国源远流长的,博大精深的传统文化就会后继无人。

其次,“识繁”是时代的需要。当今大陆接触港澳台和海外华侨报刊书籍的机会增多,而这些地区使用的仍是繁体字。为了了解他们,扩大同他们的交流和合作,就必须“识繁”。其实至今我们仍生活在繁简字并存的文化环境里,因此提倡“识繁”也是理所应当的。在“识繁写简”这一方面台湾是做得比较好的⁽¹²⁾。

计算机整理古籍中简繁字的处理与使用

所谓古籍,一般是指1911年及其以前在中国书写或者印刷的汉语文书籍,以及1912年及其以后在中国或国外产生的用繁体字及中国古典装订形式(线装、经折装、蝴蝶装等)的汉语文书籍⁽¹³⁾。它是中华民族传统文化的主要载体,是沟通古今的桥梁。中国的古籍文献由于年代久远,用繁体字记录是其区别于现代文献的显著特点,当然有时也会用到一些简体字。因此为保存古籍原貌而强调古籍整理一律使用繁体字,或为普及利用而强调古籍整理必须使用简化字,均有失偏颇。“整理、出版古籍以繁体字为主,尤其是较权威的版本。”对专家学者以

及直接使用古文献的资料的学科,要求典籍尽可能保留本来面貌,以保证资料的科学价值。对欲深造者,以学习研究为目的,应多接触繁体字整理本;以阅读欣赏为目的,可用现代规范汉字本,即简化字本。对初学者,则以普及为目的,一律使用现代规范汉字本(14)。

正如上面所提到的古籍过去是用线装、经折装、蝴蝶装的承载形式。随着当今科学技术的发展,象其它领域一样计算机也自然而然地被引入了古籍整理的领域。然而,由于简繁体字目前的现状,利用计算机整理古籍如若单独使用某一种字体,必然会导致文献交流上的障碍。因此,整理古籍、建设古籍书目数据库时,若从便于现代读者检索、普及利用的角度出发,古籍书目数据库应该使用简化字;若从保存古籍原貌、有利于资源共享的角度出发,古籍书目数据库应该使用繁体字。这就是为什么许多学者认为宜采取二者兼顾的方法,也就是采用简化字著录并在记录的主要款目中加上繁体字著录(15)。1987年1月国家颁布了《GB3792.7-87古籍著录规则》,使古籍编目从著录项目的设置、排列顺序和著录用标识符号三个方面直接与《国际标准书目著录》(ISBD)原则接轨,为中国古籍进入中外文献书目信息交流体系创造了条件,1995年12月出版的《中国机读目录格式手册》和1996年2月中华人民共和国文化部发布的行业标准(WH/T0503-96中国机读目录格式),则进一步推进了中国书目数据库的规范和统一,预示着文献信息网络时代的到来。《中国文献编目规则》明确指出:“著录汉字古籍应使用规范的繁体汉字。虽然利用简化字建设古籍书目数据库有很多好处,如:编目人员不必过多考虑字体,不用担心字库中找不到要用的字;对于那些阅读繁体字有困难的读者来说,识别容易,检索容易,便于普及利用;著录时简单快捷,不必去字库中翻找繁体字,节省不少时间。但是“著录时使用简化字,与港台、海外相应的文献数据库冲突,不利于古籍的中外交流,也不利于资源共享。古籍的全文数据库如“中华古籍”、“中央研究院汉籍电子文献(旧称瀚典)”,其内容全部用繁体字输入,与书目数据库的简化字录入相矛盾。所以,笔者认为古籍书目数据库即使采用简化字著录,也需要在重要款目中加上繁体字著录。”(17)在简繁字的收入方面,有的专家建议按不同层次设置三个字库,分别为提高性的全汉字字库、兼顾普及与提高的通用字库和普及性的基础字库,以解决字库使用时字体不够用的麻烦。全汉字字库和通用字库以繁体字为主,也收简化字;基础字库主要收录简化字,并附相应的繁体字。

简繁字的转换不仅是古籍整理的重要课题,在海峡两岸以及海外华人社区各自维持汉字使用现状的情况下,同样具有现实意义(16)。

如果能像汉字与汉语拼音对应转换那样,使用一个简繁体自动转换软件,建立古籍数据库就方便容易得多了。但由于古籍中繁简字不是一一对应,对应关系非常复杂,如果只是简单地利用软件自动转换,有可能发生一些字义上的混淆(18)。

王永民计算机公司1989年推出的大陆第一块繁体汉卡问题主要出在一对多的简繁转换上。大陆其他的汉字系统(除了CTK系统),大都是用简化字输入,再一键转换为繁体字。这样就很难处理好一对多关系的简繁体字。因此,无论是采用识别法,人工计算机半自动转换—词语匹配法,还是目前仍处在假设阶段的计算机智能转换法都离不开精通简化字和繁体字的人材。因为多么先进的科学技术都是由人来开发和使用的(19)。

综上所述,无论是过去的半个世纪还是当今的科技时代,汉字交流的主要工具依然是简化字,但在一些特殊的地区和领域由于历史和现实的原因繁体字依然要在相当长的一段时间里存在。正视简繁体字各自的特点和用途,培养精通双字的人才是非常必要和必需的。

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Paper Presentation

6. Early Spring in February:

Teaching Chinese Language, Literature, and Society through Film

Dr. Laifong Leung

University of Alberta

There is no denial that textbooks are useful and necessary in language teaching. However, they do not possess the audiovisual and dramatic elements that films do. With its distinct Mandarin articulation by well-known actors, fine acting, and a simple but captivating story set in southern China in the Republic period, "Early Spring in February"(Zaochun eryue), a classic film based on a novella by the May Fourth writer Rou Shi, is ideal for teaching Chinese language, literature and society. The presentation will show how the study guide to the film can be effectively utilized in classroom teaching. The study guide contains 10 segments; each segment includes the dialogue, vocabularies, pinyin text, and ample exercise. It is suitable for students at the intermediate level and those who speak other dialects learning Mandarin.

Paper Presentation

7. 组字成趣文，温故而知新：

论证一种高效汉字阅读教学法

Dr. Helen Xiaoyan Wu

University of Toronto

在加拿大，以英语为母语或国际通用语的大学生和其他成年学生，是把汉语作为外语来学习的。他们习惯于拼音文字，对“方块”汉字则大感困惑。识字解义成了他们学习的主要难点。特别在初级阶段，由于课时的限制，学过的字词很少，能阅读课本中的短文就相当不错。读课外的小品，即使没有生字，也如同天书，更遑论千字长文了。诚然，重复是学习之母。为了强化识字，可机械地反复操练，但总是死记硬背，初学者往往兴味索然，临阵脱逃。

兴趣是求知的原动力。在外语学习中，培养兴趣尤为重要，儿童如此，成人亦然。激发兴趣，须有趣文。我以课文中有限的生字和语法，创作出一篇篇多功能的全新材料。几十个单字阶段，编写几百字短文；二、三百字阶段，篇幅可达二千字左右。文章要求：（1）字词重现率高；（2）新词无需释疑；（3）文化含量丰富；（4）情景贴近生活；（5）文笔幽默诙谐。这样，通过对单字的恰当重组，愈学愈多的字词便像滚雪球般不断地复现。学生则在趣文的激发下，不增加负担，学得津津有味，从而事半功倍，温故知新，取得了由生（字）变熟（字）的良好效果。与此同时，随着阅读量的增加，信息量的扩大，初学者在字、词、句、段之上，提前进入到篇章。

自然，能否用少量单字创作出符合上述 5 项要求的趣文，是推行高效汉字阅读教学法的关键。这种方法不仅帮助学生巩固词汇，加深阅读理解，而且可以在听、说、读、写、译各个方面提升水平。本文将展示中、长趣文各一篇，并予以论证。

Paper Presentation

8. 试论“拼音先行，汉字后学”

黄金城

阿尔伯塔省教育厅中文教学顾问

在加拿大，人们常说“中文最难”，“难”就难在汉字。然而，通过汉字学汉语，正是对外汉语教学的传统。如，“甲级词”不过 1083 个，而“甲级字”就达 800 个。虽然起步阶段也学拼音，那只是把拼音当作认字拐棍。事实证明，汉字是推广汉语教学的瓶颈。学语言（口语）跟学文字（书面语）不必同步。这是常识。同时，据我们的调查分析，口语是必选项，汉字则是可选项。

基于以上两个理由，我们提出“拼音先行，汉字后学”的“分步走”教学模式，即：在西方人士学习汉语的初级阶段（大约 300 学时，汉语水平一级标准之内），只用拼音，汉字可以作为文化知识来学；进入下一阶段学习，可以依照学习者类别不同制定不同的汉字标准。由于有了一定的口语基础和文化常识，汉字比较容易接受。这样的做法，有两个明显的好处：有助于克服对汉字的恐惧心理，吸引更多人学习汉语；在口语和书面语中设立一个过渡，整体上提高学习效率。“分步走”是全方位的，涵盖教学、测试、教材、教辅材料等各个方面。如，在我们设计的汉语交际能力考试中，“普通类”的“基础”考试，只使用拼音，完全不出现汉字。

Paper Presentation

9. Experiential Learning: Chinese Language Study Abroad

Dr. Xueqing Xu

York University

In language teaching, practical application is a crucial step that tests the usefulness of grammar rules, concepts, and idioms students have learned in the classroom. And since language is a product of and reflects a particular culture, immersion in that culture, even if brief, can also be highly beneficial.

According to David Kolb's (1984) learning model, the learning cycle contains four stages: concrete experience—observation and reflection—abstract conceptualization and generalization—active experimentation or testing the implication of the concepts. As we can see in this cycle, students in the fourth stage are actors while in the other three stages more passive receivers.

My paper discusses the great advantages of integrating experiential learning of Chinese abroad in our academic classroom. I will use York University's summer Chinese language program at Fudan University, Shanghai, as an example to illustrate the great potentials of active participation in Chinese life. I will discuss how our program shows that experiential learning on the scene bridges the gap between abstract grammar rules and active application, engaging students socially, culturally, and physically in the language environment.

The recognition and writing of Chinese characters is one of the major difficulties when learning Chinese. Mistakes such as missing one or more strokes, placing a stroke in a wrong position, or writing a hook stroke in a wrong direction, are very common among first and second year language students.

At Fudan University, we found how outside classroom activities effectively help students learn characters. Cultural excursions to Suzhou and Hangzhou, cities famous for their gardens and manufacture of silk, help students visualize ancient concepts of Chinese character creation. The concept that garden architecture should, like Chinese characters, observe harmony, symmetry, and balance, absorbed many of our students. At a silk exhibition and fashion show, our students were introduced to both ancient and modern machines that make silk products. There, they perceived how the character signifying silk

and characters containing the silk component evolved.

The art of Chinese calligraphy presented at the Lanting Pavilion in Shaoxing dramatically inspired our students to master more characters and to learn some calligraphy themselves. Later, in the classroom at Fudan University, a painter's demonstration of calligraphy further enhanced their knowledge of Chinese characters. Visits to Buddhist temples were one of the highlights of our study in China. By listening to the monks' rhythmical chants and talking to them, our students further came to understand the root of reserve, inwardness, and endurance in the Chinese character.

Although cultural excursions do not teach students directly how to remember Chinese characters, they largely help them explore the social components of the Chinese language, thus deepening their understanding of the formation of characters. Unlike mechanical memorizing in the classroom, students come to understand the basic concepts of the language by visualizing them in a cultural context. Our students found that they could remember characters much better after these cultural excursions than they did by copying them in the classroom.

Paper Presentation

10. 教授传统学生普通话课程中一些问题的探讨

Dr. Alice B. Dong

York University

传统学生，主要是讲广东话的学生，英文称为(heritage).一般来说，对于繁体字，句子的结构或多或少有一定的基础，因而在普通话学习中，与非传统学生学习普通话遇到的问题不一样。但教授这类学生时，依旧有不少的问题可以提出和讨论。这篇文章是就教高年级的传统学生，也就是说，选修国语课主要学习汉语拼音和简体字的学生时的问题及解决的办法做些探讨。

第一，在语音教学方面，受方言的影响，学生对几组音的学习有困难。在声母发音中，第一组:例如舌尖前音和舌尖后音 z,c,s,zh,ch,sh,这两组音的混淆，“zhīdào”“知道”读成“zīdào”“资道”，chūbù“初步”读成“cūbù”“粗布”，“shīrén”“诗人”读成“sīrén”“私人”[1]。第二组:舌尖中鼻音 n 和舌尖中边音 l 的混淆，比如：“nànmín”“难民”读成“làn mín”“烂民”，

“nánhǎi”“南海”读成“lánhǎi”“蓝海”。[2] 第三组:舌面音: j,q,x 与舌尖前音 zh,ch,sh 的混淆。其中混淆的最严重的是 x, sh 两个音，同学们常把“lǎoshī”“老师”叫“lǎoxī”“老西”。第四组: h,w,混淆, h 是舌后面擦音, 而 w 则是半元音/半声母, 相当多的同学把 zhōnghuá“中华”发成 zhōngwá“中娃”。

在其它韵母的音中，还有几组也是讲广东话同学学发音的难点。第一，单韵母和二合元音复韵母的混淆。i 和 ei, 一些同学把“měiguó”“美国”读成“米国”mǐguó; 第二，二合元音复韵母的混淆; 像 ao 和 ou, 学生将“màozi”“帽子”读成“mòuzi”“眸子”; 第三，宽鼻韵母和窄鼻韵母混淆; 主要是以下几个音，学生的问题比较多:an 和 en 不分，把“pánzi”“盘子”读为“pénzi”“盆子”; an 和 ang 不分，“gānggāng”“刚刚”读为“gāngān”“干干”.en 和 eng 不分，例如，“péngyou”“朋友”“pényou”“盆友”,还有, in 和 ing 不分，一些同学把“yīngxióng”“英雄”读成“yīnxióng”“因雄”。

这些问题产生的原因是由于学生在普通话学习中从方言到目的地语的负迁移造成的,可称为迁移错误。事实上,正负迁移的理论不仅可以运用于解释非传统学生在学习汉语作为目的语时,由于母语

与目的地语之间相同之处产生正迁移,而不同处产生负迁移,而且可以用来解释传统学生学普通话时由于方言和普通话之间的异同产生的正负迁移。

针对这些问题，在语音教学中，根据我个人的教学经验，在介绍及让学生练习韵母，声母，声调，音节之后，在进入课文阅读之前，应重点做这两类练习：一类是，辨音练习，普通话中，学生容易混淆的音的练习。请看下面这些对词/词组：

- 1)zhīyuán-zīyuán(支援/资源)
- 2)chónglái-cónglái (重来/从来)
- 3)shēngrén-sēngrén(生人/僧人)
- 4)yìnián-yìlián(一年/一连)
- 5)xī-sī(西/思)
- 6)xīn-sēn(新/森)
- 7)huà-wà(话/袜)
- 8)bi-bèi [3] (必/备)
- 9) sǎo-sǒu(嫂/叟)
- 10)zhànshì-zhènshì(战士/阵势)
- 11) chángdù/chéngdù(长度/程度)
- 12)shāngrén/shēnrén(商人/生人)
- 13) chánggōng/chénggōng(长工/成功) [4]

另外，就是要让学生做广东话和普通话的比较辨音练习。以引导学生从其方言到目的语的副迁移中摆脱出来。下面仅举几个例子：

- 1) 汉字的声母广东话发 ou 音，而普通话发 ao 音：如， ào 澳 bào 报 mào 冒 zǎo 造
- 2)汉字的广东话发 s 音，而普通话发 sh 音，如， shā 沙,shān 山,shū 书
- 3)汉字广东话发 h.l,而普通话发 sh 音,像， shé 折 shì 恃 shuǎi 甩
- 4)汉字广东话发 s 音，而普通话发 c 音，策 cè 菜 cài 错 cuò

在发音教学中，有一个问题需要注意，就是在语音初学阶段，学生学习两个音节以上的词组

时，这类音节组合在书上通常是不给中文意思的，目的在于在同学们还未掌握基本发音时，不要误导他们。但是相当一部分学生采用在书上的汉语拼音旁边注繁体字或广东话发音的标记的方法学习。在我的学生中，近百分之四十的人这样做。我查过他们注的音，错误率达百分之八十以上。例如，把“打字机”“dǎzījī”注成“打自己”dǎzījī，对这样的情况，我除了采取一但发现就制止以外，还把我自己调查访问我教过的学生用这种方法误导自己的实例讲给他们听，还请一些前几年修过这一课程的志愿者来和同学们座谈，这些办法都收到了好的结果。但是，有少部分学生还坚持这样做。然而当他们进入辨音阶段练习后，发现自己注的音错误很多，也最终放弃了这种方法。

此外，声调学习也是传统学生的难点之一。在声调学习中，应先教一声和四声，然后教二声和三声。讲方言的学生对一声和四声，也就是阴平调和去声混淆得最严重。这里面又分为两种情况：一种为每逢一声发四声，另外一种看到四声发一声，在教学中，要大量选择含有阴平调和去声的音及短语的组合，让学生们反复去练习。

夸张法是有效的教学方法，在指导学生发音时，为了加深印象，应当突出声调的发声特点。适当地运用夸张的手法，扩大调与调之间的差别，可以让学生加深印象，便于掌握。

在教发一声时，要尽量让学生拉长阴平调的发音，在读四声时，夸张地发的又重又长。待学生发正确之后，则应恢复到正常而自然的声调。

除了在课上纠正学生发音，如有条件，还可以充分利用语音实验室，由技术员在电脑上设计如同医院心电图测试一般的图，这种图用波峰，波谷，波长的形式，来告诉学生音发得是否正确，这也是一种好的方法。比如，当学生发阴平调过短，屏幕会显现“无法辨认是否正确”字样，如学生把阴平声发为去声，在 remind 栏中会出现，“应为四声。”

此外，“自我纠正法”也是语音教学中使学生改进发音及巩固其正确发音的有效途经。我发现学生学习的规律是这样的：在我调查的 48 名学生在最初阶段发错的音，书写的拼音同样也是错的，在学了一段时间以后，情况发生变化，在这些同学中，有近一半同学说得对，但写错，另一半写对，说错。这表明，他们处在一个过渡阶段，还不能将写对和说正确一致起来。

再过一段时间，大部分学生便可以做到说与写都正确。但是，习惯性的发音错误又出现，这种问题不仅出在还没有说准确的学生中，也出现在已经可以写对和说对的同学中，也可称为出现了反复。因此在他们阅读，讨论和演讲时，每当他们发音出错，我立刻让他们听下来，重新发那个发错的音，他们或在第二次，或在第三次，就自行纠正，发出正确的音。我曾过去的三年中，先后与三十五个学生谈过，问他们自己能够纠正发音的原因。他们一致认为这是一种习惯性的错误：他们向我叙述了自己学习发音的过程，最初他们在学习了发音要领之后，掌握的不好，总是和广东话的发音混淆。后来，经过反复的练习，他们逐渐地掌握了发音要领，在放慢速度阅读的时候，读音基本正确。但是当进入课文学习时，会有一个反复的过程，就是过去读错的音又读错了。但是，只要老师告诉他们发音不对，无需为他们纠正或带读，他们自己便可以回到正确的发音上去。

最后，要强调的是，在教学中要向学生反复强调“准”字。关于“准及流利何为先”的问题，几年前，曾在北美语言教师中有过争论。笔者以为，在教学中，必须先求准，在求流利。那种只要能够运用目的语进行交流，发音是否准确，并不重要的观点是不可取的。刚开始时，学

生可以一个音节一个音节地慢读生词，词语或短文，只要准就好，然后再求流利。适当地让学生背一些有意思，易上口的资

料，如：诗歌，乃至短的散文，也不失为帮助学生改进发音的好方法。为了使学生在准字上多用心，还可以用“听自己说汉语”的办法。学生分为两人一组，在做好准备之后，读短文，把他们的朗读录下来，然后播放，播放时，请另一组学生一起听，让学生自己指出哪些音发的不准确，然后，教师给予评定。三至四周之后，再录一次，然后，把两次录音一起播放，老师和学生共同分析其进步及问题。第二，在传统学生的普通话教学中，简体字是另一个主要教学重点。就我个人经验，经过几次介绍后，如汉字简化的大概历史，简繁体五十四个偏旁部首，主要就要靠学生自己记忆，练习，当然需要告诉学生一些规律性的东西：从繁体字简化为简体字，有相当一部份是左边部分改变和右边部分改变，比如，郵/邮，這/这，还有一些上半部份改变或下半部分改变，如電/电，賓/宾。另外，同教授非传统学生中文一样，要学生在内容/课文内记忆单字。

再有就是关于汉字简化的讨论。学生们一般认为，简体字是共产党发明的。因为一些政治原因，共产党不喜欢繁体字，所以加以简化。当学生听了简体字发展的历史介绍并读了历代简化字一览表后，意识到简体字古而有之。至于在当今的商品社会，信息时代，学习简体字的必要性的问题，学生一般并无争议，一致认为简体字是一定要学的。但是，同学们也提出，字简化之后，失去了繁体字内涵中一些文化的意义。形，声，意是中国文字的核心与精华。特别是相当多的汉字是由一部分示音，一部分示意所组成的，英文称为：radical and phonetic，这类规律在简体字中几乎没办法体现。在引导这类讨论

时，可以避开一些同政治关联太多的问题，而引导学生正视两种体的存在，看到其各自的优缺点。特别强调现在简繁体字的使用是两岸三地及海外华人文化交流，互动的一种体现。不仅香港人，澳门人学简体字，在大陆，人们也会常常看到会标，广告均用繁体字书写，在多伦多看到的大陆电视剧字幕也是繁体的，这里的报纸以繁体为主，也开始出现简体的中文报纸，例如<<大中报>>等。

在传统学生学简体字的过程中，学生在书写中将简繁体混用及误认为一些异体字或旧字形是简体字或繁体字的现象特别要引起注意。在介绍旧字形表和异体字后，辨字/词练习及测试均可使学生提高区分异体字/旧字形和简/繁体字的能力。

第三，教传统学生普通话中的词语和句子结构问题。通常

在高年级传统学生的课程中，教师侧重教一些对讲方言的人来说学起来困难的词语，通常以词语例释和词语辨析的形式出现。以便学生学习重点词的使用，区分同义词和近义词的用法。

在词语教学中，有两点需要注意：一点是新词语。大陆自改革开放以来，出现了相当多新词语，在我们使用的教材中，会常常出现。例如：“下岗”是指在经营不善或倒闭的国有企业中，工人被迫离开岗

位，每月领取政府发放的生活费。“低保”是最低生活保障的意思。“拳头产品”是一个企业质量最好，销路广，信誉高的产品。这类词语要特别注意解释，而这些解释同介绍中国的改革和当代中国发展都是分不开的。

第二点是，在传统学生普通话的教学中，要讲清楚 Mandarin 是指普通话和国语，两者均被看作是标准现代汉语。“实际上长期的地理上的分隔，使两者在语音，汉字书写体，词汇和语法上都产生了差异，” [5] 这种不同，特别是词语上的用法不同，学生们应该知道，以便他们在不同的地方运用中文时运用得当。举几个例子：像女孩子/女生，私人汽车/私家车，地铁/捷运，京剧/国剧。

这里特别要提出的是，有的同一个词在台湾国语中及大陆普通话意思却相反。比如窝心，大陆，至少北方人用这个词来形容事情没办好，心里觉得窝囊，不舒服，而在台湾国语中是心里觉得温暖的意思。这类词的区别就更应该强调清楚。

最后，是教授传统学生普通话课程中的语法问题。在书面语中，除了简繁体的区别以外，在基本的句子结构，语法方面，因为不存在方言和目的语之间的负迁移问题，讲方言的学生存在的问题比非传统学生要小得多。但在语法方面，台湾国语与普通话也有不少区别，例

如，台湾国语常在主要动词前加“有”“我有看过这个电影”，有些普通话中的名词，在台湾国语中也可用为动词，“他很紧张我”等等。这些比较明显的基本的差别应当在教授课程时提到。此外，传统学生在句子结构和语法方面仍然存在一些问题，比如下面这些句子就含有明显的语法错误：

- 1)我想我能属于海外一流大学生的身份。(动宾搭配不当)
- 2)学习国语广阔了我对中国文化的了解。(形容词错用为动词)
- 3)他活出了一个充实而丰盛的人生。(形容词使用不当)
- 4)对拼音不熟悉形成了一项影响我说好普通话的重要因素。(量词使用不当)
- 5)在学习国语中我还有许多诸方面的东西要学习。(重复)。

我曾对有这类语法或句子结构问题的学生做过一个调查。调查是以个别交谈或问卷的形式进行的。调查的目的是为了搞清楚造成这些错误的原因。在 37 名学生中，有 28 人认为，造成错误的原因主要

是在过去的中文学习中，他们忽略了词性的学习，另外，在学习词汇时没有注意对固定搭配，象动宾搭配的记忆。有 18 位英文是母语的人认为他们之所以犯语法错误，同英文的影响有关。另有 12 个同学则指出他们中文词汇量不够多也是错误的原因之一。在教学中，针对这些问题，除了对学生写的问答题和作文进

行讲评外，必要时也需专门就典型的错误怖置一些练习，从而使同学提高他们的中文写作水平。

总之，在传统学生普通话教学中，教师遇到的问题与教授非传统学生不同。发音，简体字是教学中的重点，而词汇及句子结构中的问题也不可忽视。尤其要指出的是，正负迁移的理论，

同样适应于传统

学生的普通话学习，其主要原因为，首先，非传统学生中，英文是母语的学生，在我任教的班中，占一半以上。其次，即使是广东话作为母语的学生，由于方言与普通话在发音及书写体方面的差异，也存在负迁移。然而，传统学生在繁体字，特别是句子结构方面的基础，使他们在教师的指导下，更能够也更容易充分利用正迁移，摆脱负前移，更快的达到将其方言跟目的语化合的目的，学好国语。

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Paper Presentation

11. WebCT as an Effective Tool to Support Communicative Language Teaching

Billie Ng & Xiao-Yin Huang

Simon Fraser University

There are two parts in this presentation. Xiaoyin Huang is going to give a brief introduction on WebCT (Web Course Tools) as a software program that allows instructors to create an on-line learning environment. Four WebCT functions will be discussed; namely, content organization and delivery, communication and collaboration, assessment and evaluation, course management and administration.

The concept of “Blended learning” will also be explored. She will end with some practical tips on how to use WebCT. The second part of the presentation is the sharing of an experience using WebCT in a beginners’ course to support the Communicative Language Teaching principals. To list David Nunan’s (1991) five features of Communicative Language Teaching:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

We will share examples of WebCT exercises to support the above CLT approach. Together with the audience, we are going to explore the possibility of creating and sharing WebCT resources among teachers to enhance the Teaching of Chinese as a Second Language in Canada.

WebCT 网上教学工具在汉语教学中的应用

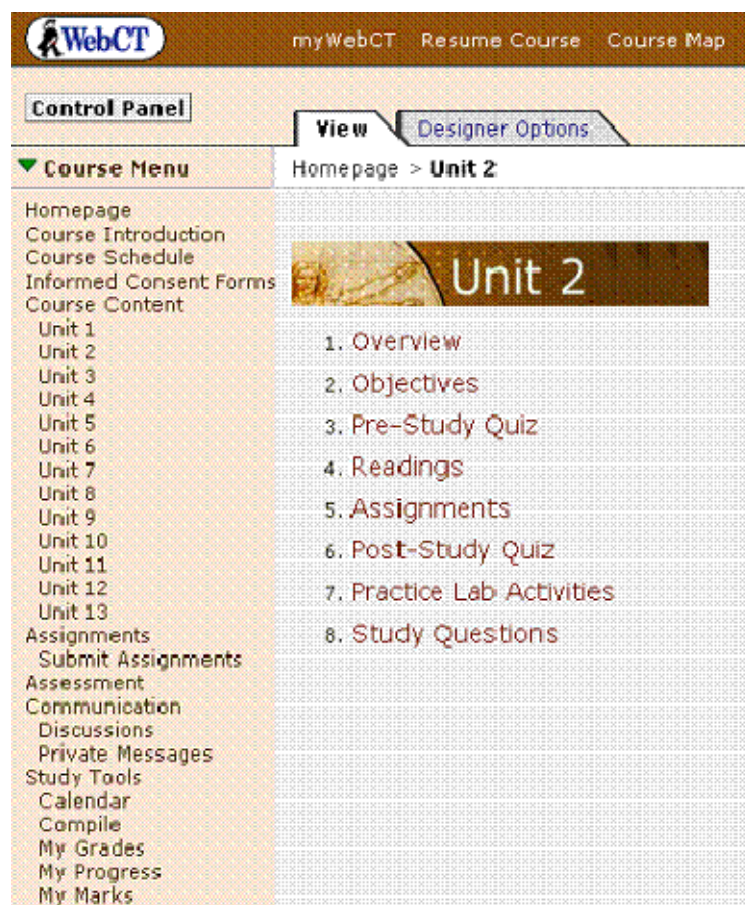
近几年来，远程教育在世界范围内迅速发展。越来越多的学校开始利用网络来拓宽传统校园教育的新市场。而网上课程所使用的各种软件和平台也是琳琅满目，WebCT 系统就是其中在北美最受欢迎的网上课程工具之一。

一、WebCT 系统简介

WebCT 是一个功能强大，而又使用简单的网络课程工具。概括起来，它主要具有以下四大功能：

- 课程内容的组织和发送
- 灵活的交互通信和网上协作功能
- 在线测试与评估功能
- 课程的后台管理

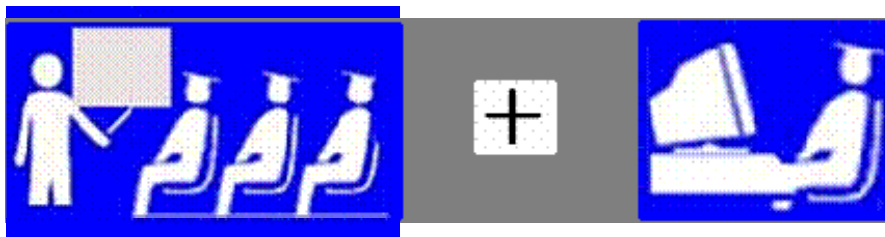
这四大功能涵盖了教学过程几乎所有的环节。利用它可以很方便的设计制作网上课程内容、课程计划，组织学生作业、讨论、测试等活动。传统的课堂教学活动都可以在网上进行。下面就是一个用 WebCT 系统设计的一门全网上课程的画面。



然而，对于这种自始至终师生不见面的全网上教学方式，广大教师和学生有着各自不同的看法。本文作者从自己多年的教学实践和网络课程设计实践出发，认为在北美的中文课程教学有其独特的社会和文化环境，因而采用课堂教学与网上教学结合相结合的混合学习模式方法更为实际和有效。

二、混合学习模式 (Blended Learning)

混合学习模式就是将课堂“面对面”的教学与网上教学结合，依据不同的课程特点将教学活动分为两部分，一部分在课堂进行，另一部分在网上进行。用网上活动来补充和强化课堂教学。WebCT 可以很好地支持这种结合。例如：在基本教材的基础上将一些补充教材，多媒体教材、参考网站等放置在网上供学生下载或阅读；在课堂讲解之后在网上设置讨论区供学生讨论交流，教师可以提出讨论题目，回答学生提出的问题，并监控讨论的进行；还可以让学生在在线做课后练习和作业，提供每个章节的自我测试等等。通过这种方式来实现课堂教学在时间和空间上的延伸，从而提高教学效率和质量。



三、使用 WebC 系统来支持交际式(Communicative Language Teaching) 中文教学的实践

Communicative Language Teaching 在中文一般翻译为“交际语言教学法”。有时候让人觉得是一套教学生怎么样跟人家打交道的方法。其实 Communicative Language Teaching 更重要的特点是以学生想学什么为出发点，老师加以配合支持，教他们怎么样去学这个语言，比方语法是为了他们想表达得更好，但要表达什么必须是学生自发的。老师培养学生学习的积极性，以此为出发点，鼓励学生找到学习这个语言的趣味。

比如：这是黑板，这是书，这不是黑板……大概并不是学生想表达的。学习起来也比较死板，沉闷。

相对来说：我是大学学生，现在学习汉语，……这些语句是跟学生的生活有关的，也是学生更愿意学的。

以下为交际语言教学法(Communicative Language Teaching)的几个大的原则,这几个教学原则, WebCT 都能有效地支持配合.

Features of Communicative Language Teaching (David Nunan, 1991)

- Communicate through interaction
- Use of authentic texts
- Focus on not only on the language learned, but also on the learning process
- Emphasis on the learner's own learning experiences, self-initiated learning
- Linking classroom learning with language activities outside

1. Communicate Through Interaction 从互动交流中学习语言

老师可以借 Discussion 这个功能,给学生布置一些问题.让学生在相互交流中学习.比方在教结构助词“的”的时候,我让学生回去好好地读 WebCT 上同学的自我介绍,互相认识,下节课的时候,我就问同学这样的问题:

“没有兄弟姐妹的同学是谁?”

“又工作又学习的同学是谁?”

“有小狗的同学是谁?”

“会说德语和法语的同学是谁?”

“从韩国来的留学生有几位?”

开始时同学回答得有点慢,但很快地习惯了这个句型,而且注意都集中在回答问题,努力找答案.在不知不觉中慢慢自然流畅,也很正确地用了结构助词“的”,这比让他们翻译,或用“跟我念”来练习自然得多,也比较不费劲.而且学习过程也充满了乐趣.

从慢慢地说到很流利地回答一连串同类型的句子.在课堂上只用了十分钟.效果非常好,而且有很多笑声.

更好的是,同学互相加深认识,感觉上同学们的关系也因此更进了一步.作为老师的我可以感觉到同学之间那种互相帮助,互相学习的融洽关系,是用 WebCT 以前没有的.

另外,同学们必须备课,才能来上这节课.而且很多同学都说备课的过程是愉快的.

2. Use of Authentic Texts 采用生活上真实的教学材料:

3. Focus on not only on the language learned, but also on the learning process

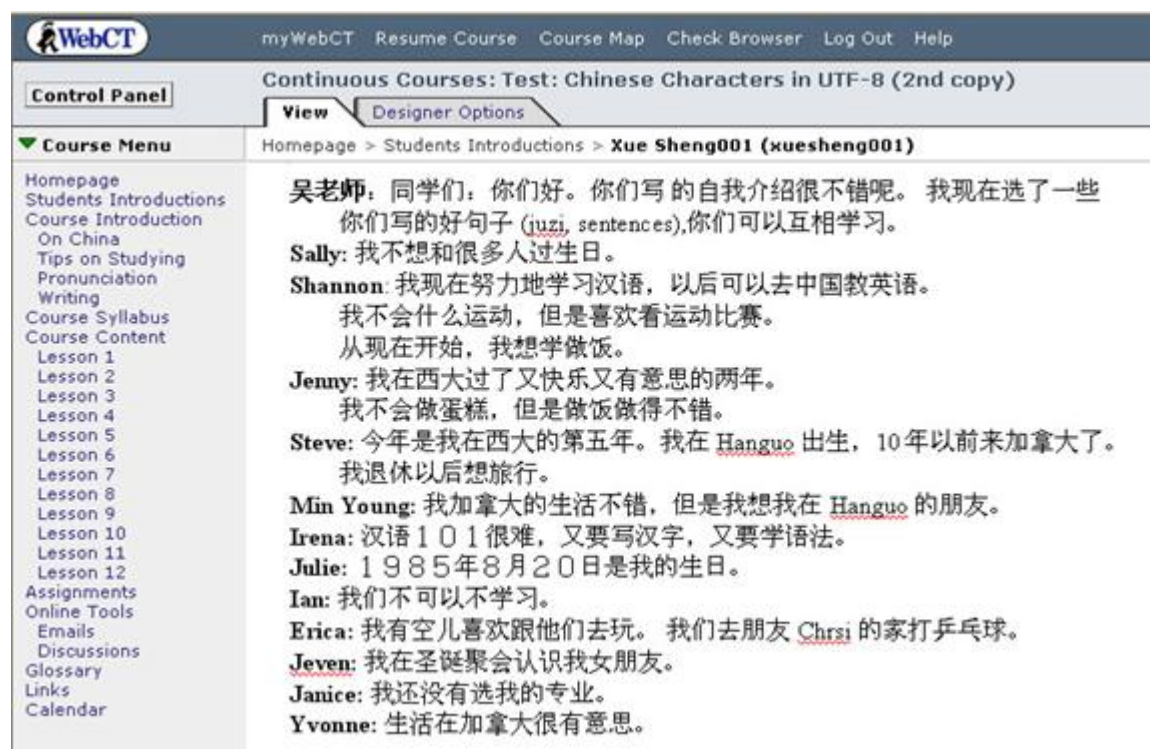
重视学习的过程: 学习重点不但是学什么, 也是怎么学.

WebCT 有一个功能, 是让班上的每个学生有一个简单的个人网页, 学生在自己的网页上可以自我介绍. 有的学生还在网页上放了家人的照片.

这个学期的开始, 我让初级汉语第二个班(汉语 101) 的学生写一篇“自我介绍”. 这个时候, 学生从零起点开始, 只学了 14 周, 学了大概 130 个汉字. 他们写的自我介绍都很简单.

我让学生在 WebCt 上互相看大家的自我介绍. 我还把写得好的句字, WebCT 上表扬,

让学生可以互相学习. 这篇自我介绍随着学生汉语的进步, 不断的改进. 到学期末的时候, 这篇自我介绍都写得很不错.



The screenshot shows a WebCT interface for a course titled "Continuous Courses: Test: Chinese Characters in UTF-8 (2nd copy)". The page is viewed from the "View" perspective. The breadcrumb trail is "Homepage > Students Introductions > Xue Sheng001 (xuesheng001)".

The main content area displays a list of student introductions:

- 吴老师:** 同学们: 你们好. 你们写的自我介绍很不错呢. 我现在选了一些你们写的好句子 (juzi, sentences), 你们可以互相学习.
- Sally:** 我不想和很多人过生日.
- Shannon:** 我现在努力地学习汉语, 以后可以去中国教英语. 我不会什么运动, 但是喜欢看运动比赛. 从现在开始, 我想学做饭.
- Jenny:** 我在西大过了又快乐又有意思的两年. 我不会做蛋糕, 但是做饭做得不错.
- Steve:** 今年是我在西大的第五年. 我在 Hanguo 出生, 10 年以前来加拿大了. 我退休以后想旅行.
- Min Young:** 我加拿大的生活不错, 但是我想我在 Hanguo 的朋友.
- Irena:** 汉语 1 0 1 很难, 又要写汉字, 又要学语法.
- Julie:** 1 9 8 5 年 8 月 2 0 日是我的生日.
- Ian:** 我们不可以不学习.
- Erica:** 我有空儿喜欢跟他们去玩. 我们去朋友 Chrsi 的家打乒乓球.
- Jeven:** 我在圣诞聚会认识我女朋友.
- Janice:** 我还没有选我的专业.
- Yvonne:** 生活在加拿大很有意思.

The left sidebar contains a "Control Panel" with a "Course Menu" listing various course resources such as "Homepage", "Students Introductions", "Course Introduction", "On China", "Tips on Studying", "Pronunciation", "Writing", "Course Syllabus", "Course Content", "Lesson 1" through "Lesson 12", "Assignments", "Online Tools", "Emails", "Discussions", "Glossary", "Links", and "Calendar".

学生们反复的互相看班上同学的自我介绍。老师表扬写得好的句子，也提出写错或写得不好的地方。学生在这个学习过程，看的是完全真实的材料，语言词汇都是他们在课堂上学过的，只是在老师的指导下，知道了同一个词或字有更多的用法，学习过程轻松愉快，不会很吃力。由于内容真实，也跟他们的生活与身边的同学有关，学起来也很有趣。

4. Emphasis on the learner's own learning experiences, self-initiated learning

着重学习的过程，鼓励自发性的学习这方面可以借助 WebCT “Glosaary” 这个功能。随着课程的进展，老师可以输入跟

课文相关的补充词汇。比如教“是”的句字，在课堂上教了“我是老师，你是学生”之后，可以在 WebCT 的 Glossary 上加职业的补充生词。然后让学生说家人的职业。学生很容易就可以组成：“我爸爸是工程师”或“我妈妈是辅导员”这样的句子。

又例如教形容词时，在 Glossary 上加补充的形容词：温柔，积极，努力.... 学生也很自然地用这些形容词来形容身边的人，比如：我妈妈很温柔。由于是谈自己的家庭，谈跟自己有关的人和事，学生的积极性很强。学生会想用学到的去多说多写。学习是积极自发的。

5. Linking classroom learning with language activities outside

现在网上的资源实在是非常丰富，而且时时更新。老师可以利用网上的资源，支持教学，也补充了课堂上由于时间不足而没有涵盖的问题与知识。网上的资源放在“Links”，让学生自由去参考阅读。当然，老师觉得哪些资料比较重要，值得学生认真学习的话，也可以布置一个小测验，考考学生。

例一：教中国地图时，可以在网上找到很多中国地图，或长城，黄河等的图片，让学生感受一下中国的美丽风光。

例二：近年黄河干旱，中国计划把长江河水北调，解决黄河干旱的困难。中国的“China Daily”就有很详细的报道。把这些报道放在 WebCT 上让学生更了解认识中国的地理与面临的挑战。

例三：今年是郑和下西洋 600 周年的纪念，中国有很多纪念活动。网上也有一个英语版的网页(www.1421.tv)，很详细的列出有关的资料与讨论。

四、如何利用 WebCT 系统来辅助中文教学

WebCT 系统的使用简单，操作提示明确，对于没有使用过的教师只要经过简单指导即可实现课程的自我管理。通常可以按照以下步骤开始使用 WebCT 系统

- 申请一个 WebCT 课程空间：和本校的 WebCT 系统管理员联系。有的学校可以在网上申请。
- 准备上网的课程资料：将教学内容进行合理规划，确定哪些内容需要送到网上，哪些内容保留在课堂进行。对于图形、动画、音频、视频等多媒体教学单元应该事先准备好相关资料并确定版权的合法性。
- 网上课程稿本编写：网上教学内容是以网页为基本单位组成的，所以应该按照屏幕特点精心规划。尤其是对于多媒体学习资料的设计，应该将课程要求详细说明给程序制作人员。例如：对于以下的中文地名练习，可以给出如下描述：



- Drag and drop the names to the corresponding part in the map
- Check answers by clicking on the check answer button
 - Correct answers are left on the map
 - Incorrect answers return to pull down menu; their space is left blank
 - Repeat until all correct answers remain on the map

- 设计网页：可以自己设计，也可以和设计人员合作。这里我们推荐和专业人员合作设计，这样做出来的课程质量和效率都比较好些。

五、学习资源的积累

除了自己开发网上课程内容之外，目前互联网上有大量的教学资源可以利用。教师可以通过各种搜索引擎来收集自己所需要的内容，并不断的积累来形成自己的教学资源库。更进一步地，大家可以共同努力建立一个可以共享的中文教学资源库，将教学中的重点、难点和重复率较高的内容存放到资源库中供大家下载使用。内容可以包括教案、试题、作文、图片、动画、音频视频等。通过这种方式来加强交流，共同进步。

在教育全球化发展的今天，网上教学是教育发展的一个必然趋势。我们的中文教学应该积极迎接这个挑战，大家一起共同为振兴中文教育而努力。

Paper Presentation

12. 如何在汉语教学中有效地使用 WebCT

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WebCT 及其功能

WebCT 是一个网络教学系统。自 1996 年开发以来,已有 80 个国家 2500 多所高等教育机构使用。WebCT 提供的主要功能包括四部分:课程设计与传输、信息交流、测试与评估和课程管理。

WebCT 除了可用于远程教学外,它还可作为课堂教学的一种辅助手段来使用。网络教学作为传统教学的辅助手段从学生的角度来说,有助于促进学生的学习。学生可根据自己实际情况,如学习的薄弱环节、时间安排、自己的兴趣等,有针对性、选择性、重复性地进行学习。另外,网络教学还为学生提供了极大的方便。学生有问题可随时向教师或同学请教,学习时间和地点非常灵活。

从教师的角度来说,可减少教师的一些重复工作,如教学内容、题库等,教师只需不断地扩充和完善。通过网上交流便于教师掌握每个学生的性格特点、学习情况,在教学中能做到更有有的放矢。课程的管理上也优于传统教学方式,便于存档、查档,通过论坛室、聊天室和学生的学习记录可及时收集学生的学习信息,并编辑成册,以备教学研究使用。

从普遍意义上来讲,WebCT 非常有助于教学。但它是否能满足第二语言教学的一些特殊需要?对汉语教学有多大的帮助呢?

为什么把 WebCT 用于汉语教学?

WebCT 能兼容与第二语言学习有关的声音、图像软件,如:Wimba, Real Jukebox, Real Player, Quicktime, Shockwave。而且容量极大。因此,可将语音练习,多媒体教学,听力、会话训练等与第二语言教学尤为相关的教学内容加入 WebCT 中。美国加州大学伯克莱分校已将初级汉语听力练习加入到 WebCT 中(Zhang, 2004)。加拿大 UBC 的一些汉语教师加入了 Wimba 软件,对学生的发音进行纠正。

WebCT 把听、说、读、写材料放在了同一界面上,大大方便了学生的学习。学生的所有练习几乎都可通过 WebCT 来完成。

通过链接, WebCT 可使学生阅读到中国的报刊、书籍; 欣赏当地的电影、音乐、自然风光; 与中国人进行语言交流, 等等。为学生学习汉语提供了真实的语言环境。第二语言教学强调语言是社会生活和文化的反映, 注意培养学生在真实的语境中对语言的掌握 (Hadley, 2001)。但这在英语环境中教授中文很难做到, 而网络教学恰恰可以弥补这一不足, 它能为学生提供应用语言的真正环境, 并帮助学生更加深入的了解中国文化。

WebCT 的网上论坛功能, 为学生提供了一个轻松愉快相互交流、学习的机会, 并能及时得到教师的指导。Warschauer (2000) 和 Lam (2000) 的研究案例表明, 网络学习因环境的改变有助于学生自我意识的改变, 激发学生的学习兴趣, 并在学习的过程中保持平和的心情。这三种感情因素 3/4 学习意愿的激发、自信和情绪因素在第二语言学习中占有重要的作用 (Krashen, 1982)。

由此可见, WebCT 应用于汉语教学是可行的, 也是必要的。如果所在学校有 WebCT 这一网络教学系统, 汉语教师应该充分的利用这一资源, 以促进中文教学的发展。

如何有效地使用 WebCT?

目前, WebCT 应用于汉语教学的资料还不是很多, 如何更有效地使用 WebCT, 很值得大家探讨。在这里, 我想和大家分享一下我对使用 WebCT 的一些看法和认识。

首先, 教师应有一个明确的目标, 也就是你希望 WebCT 如何辅助你的教学。作为语言教师, 对计算机技术不可能有很深的了解, 既使经过关于使用 WebCT 的培训, 也不一定清楚 WebCT 究竟能为你的教学提供什么帮助。但这并不重要, 重要的是你要对你的课程有个规划, 你希望在 WebCT 上加入哪些传统教学无法实现的功能? 比如: 你想编写一个与教学内容相关的数据库, 学生可随时查找所学的生词、注解及在现实生活中的应用; 提供大量多媒体教材; 编写听力题库, 并为学生提供答案, 让学生把测验作为学习的一种方式; 提供网上字典; 对学生进行语音训练; 提供优秀阅读文选库; 将班上同学情景对话练习拍成电影放到网上; 把一些经过精心筛选的优秀网站链接到 WebCT 上, 等等。总之, 把你能想到的, 有助于实现你教学思想的方法都列出来, 只有这样才能有助于 WebCT 在汉语教学中功能的开发。

然后与技术人员讨论, 看看你的教学计划是否都能实现, 哪些实现起来比较容易, 哪些实现起来比较耗时并有一些难度。在实现过程中还需要什么样的软件支持, 让他们给你推荐相同功能容易操作的软件。在选择使用软件时, 要考虑到计算机之间的兼容性。

第三, 先从使用简单工具入手, 如网上论坛、聊天室、日历等, 边用边完善你的网络教学系统, 不必等到建成一个完善的网络系统再用。这样既可减少你学习新技术的压力, 又可尽快将 WebCT 做为你教学的辅助工具加以使用。

第四, 教师应该学习一些计算机软件知识及网页制作的方法。这样会使用你的 WebCT 网络教学课程更加个性化, 同时也能使你跟上时代的步伐 (Xie, 2001)。

第五，鼓励有兴趣的学生，编写自己的中文学习网页放在 WebCT 上，以便大家相互学习和交流。

结束语

WebCT 为教师进行网上教学提供了极大便利。而网络教学非常有助于第二语言的学习，因此，我们应该充分利用这一资源。尽可能地开发与汉语学习相关的工具，从简到繁，逐步建成一个完善的网络教学系统以服务于中文教学。在建立这一教学系统中，我们会遇到一些挑战，而这些挑战有助于我们自身的提高，同时也有助于中文教学的提高。因此我们应该积极的面对。

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Paper Presentation

13. 当代中文，一套富有特色的现代汉语教材

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引言:

“当代中文”是中国国家对外汉语教学领导小组办公室的规划教材，由国家汉办组织，上海复旦大学负责编写，主编吴中伟博士。教材于 2003 年完成，是专为以英语为母语的汉语学习者编写的。在编写过程中，编者曾几次召开由国内外专家、教授共同参加的咨询会、审评会，认真听取了各方面的意见，吸取了专家们关于语法难点，词汇选择等方面的建议，最后由主编定稿。编者们在满足北美学生学习汉语的特殊需要上尽了很大的努力。

1. 教材的设计

这套教材一共有四册，具体分为：

- 课本，1---4 册，是教材的主体部分，包括词汇表，课文，注释，语法，文化点等。课文采用简体字，繁体字对照，附有拼音和英语翻译。
- 教师手册，1---4 册，详细说明编者的设计意图，教材的整体构架，使用建议，有关参考资料，以及听力材料书面文本，练习答案，试卷，等等。
- 汉字本，1---2 册，提供汉字的有关知识，以及多种多样的练习材料。
- 练习册，1---4 册，尽量做到综合性，多样性，可选性。练习材料包括听，说，读，写，译各个方面，难易结合，兼顾学习者的不同需求和不同水平。（注 1）这套教材配有 CD 和录像（正在制作之中）。

“当代中文”的第一，二册以结构为纲，结合功能和文化。编者根据结构的循序渐进来编排教学内容的顺序，以交际活动和交际功能的典型性来选择教学内容。第三册兼顾交际活动和语言结构，由日常交际活动逐渐向话题讨论过渡。第四册以话题为纲，结合结构与文化，根据话题的文化内涵的典型性来设计和安排内容，同时深化对语言结构的认知和运用。（注 1）

2. 教材的使用

从 2003 年九月起，我们学院的中文课程开始使用新教材“当代中文”。我院共有四个班，三个一年级班（Chinese 100），一个二年级班（Chinese 200）。每周四个学时（三学时上课，一学时语言实习室练习）。一年级班用第一册，二年级班用第二册，两个学期（Fall and Winter）教完。下面重点对这两册课本作一些介绍。

2. 1 入门阶段

在入门阶段，“当代中文”采取“会话---语音---汉字”三线并进，逐步汇合，以语音教学为主线，入门阶段的语音教学遵循“整体---细节---整体”的原则。

语音基础分为七个单元，第一单元介绍了全部语音系统（声调，生母和韵母），让学生对汉语语音的全貌有一个了解。在第二到第六单元中，分段，有侧重地进行操练，然后在最后一个单元里（第七单元）全面练习。通过反复，不断巩固。

2. 2 词汇

“当代中文”各册的词汇分布如下：

第一册： 325

第二册： 448

第三册： 442

第四册： 487

在入门阶段，先介绍几十个汉字，选择的字考虑到其难易度和典型性。以后每课的新字控制在 30---40 个左右，其中包括一些“可选字”---只要求认读，不要求书写的字。教材以汉语文的特点出发，配有“汉字本”，便于学生练习，达到强化汉字教学的目的。

2. 3 课文

“当代中文”的课文每课都分为两段。第一，第二册的课文以对话形式为主，每段对话大约包含十五个生词，句子精炼，简短，便于朗读与背诵。会话的内容丰富，有趣，实用。第一册会话的话题就有：借物，买衣服，假期计划，旅行，问路，用餐，找人，约会等等。第二册的会话内容包括：个人爱好，生日聚会，交通事故，环境污染等一些比较复杂的话题，也包括一些常用，实际的话题如：看病，租房，谈论家乡，气候，等等。

2. 4 练习

“当代中文”的练习内容不但包括本课所学的语法，词汇，而且着重深化，巩固前一课所学过的内容，以达到“温故知新”的教学目的。每课的练习一般由八个部分组成：1) 朗读练习（复

习, 比较语音, 语调) 2) 句型替换 (练习语法结构) 3) 填空 (复习, 正确使用词汇) 4) 句型转换 (熟悉, 操练不同形式的句型) 5) 按正确顺序排列句子 6) 翻译 (英译中) 7) 阅读理解 8) 写作练习 (便条, 电子邮件, 介绍饭店等等)。“汉字本”的练习设计比较注重偏旁, 笔划和笔顺的各种操练。

3. “当代中文”的特色以及使用这套教材的体会

3. 1 关于“入门”

汉语的声调和声母对英语为母语的汉语学习者来说是两大难关, 因此强化语音教学, 尤其在入门阶段, 显得至关重要。以前的教材编写者也注意到了这一点, 如普林斯顿大学编写的“中文入门”, 最开始的几课全部是语音练习, 不介绍任何汉字, 几乎也没有对话, 为的是让学生集中精力攻发音。但这样的操练比较枯燥, 乏味, 注重了语言的个体训练, 忽略了语言的交际功能, 往往在持续一两周后, 学生会渐渐地失去动力和兴趣。“当代中文”弥补了这个不足, 在“入门”阶段, 编者主张“会话---语音---汉字”三线并进, 逐步汇合: 在强调语音强化训练的同时, 插入一些基本的交际会话及常用的课堂用语, 使学生一开始就能用汉语交流, 表达一些简单的意思, 产生兴趣和成就感。在语音和会话的基础上, 还让学生接触少量的汉字, 介绍汉字的基本笔划和笔顺, 培养学生初步的“字感”, 为今后学习更多的汉字打下基础。

3. 2 关于“词汇”

学完“当代中文”的第二册, 学生基本能掌握 800 个词语。从数量上看, 并不多, 可是第一, 二册中的词语基本上都是中国国家汉办颁布的“词汇等级大纲”中的甲级词, 使用频率高, 在不同的生活情景中可以套用, 这就大大提高了学生的交际能力。在以中国常用词语, 背景为主的基础上, 编者还适当加入了一些国外常用词, 如: 约会, 宠物, 打工, 车库, 地下室, 总台等等。另外, 现代交际中用的一些新词语也被选进了教材, 如: 传真, 电脑, 磁盘, 上网及电子邮件等等。

3. 3 关于“课文”

课文是教材的最重要的部分。“一本语言教科书, 无论编写的指导思想多么高明, 安排设计多么周全, 印刷装订多么精美, 如果课文或对话内容枯燥, 令学生厌烦, 那就注定要失败。”(注 2)“当代中文”在课文内容上, 尽量注意趣味性, 情节, 情境的个性化, 论题的情趣性和可讨论性。如: 课文第二册的第一课: “我以前养过鸟儿”, 第四课: “今天你穿得真漂亮!”, 第九课: “现在就可以搬进去”等课文的话题实际, 内容真实, 学生在现实生活中有机会使用, 也乐于使用。课文内容的选择方面, 虽然以中国背景为主, 但也注意结合学习者的本国背景, 这样学生虽然不在中国, 却能通过课文的学习, 对中国的现实社会和文化有“一定的了解”。

3. 4 关于“练习”

“当代中文”的练习的设计特点是形式多样, 练习量大。在前面已经提到, 每课的练习形式

有七到八种，在教学中，教师有很大的余地，可以都用，时间有限，可以选择地用，基本上不用再设计补充练习。有些听力练习比较靠近 HSK 的模式，为学生以后参加汉语水平考试打下一定的基础。

3. 5 结束语

一本教材再好，还是有需要改进之处，“当代中文”也不例外。由于当时急于出版，校对工作不够细致，导致很多拼写，打字方面的错误，对一本好教材来说，语言的严格性，精确性非常重要，所以我们殷切地希望再版时，教材中的错误能全部得到纠正。另一个是语言规范化的问题。在中国教汉语和在国外教汉语是不相同的，在中国常常用的一些方言，在国外的课堂上就不一定能套用，因为学生出了课堂很少有机会听到生活里十分口语化的语言，他们往往需要根据语法结构来理解句子的意思，非正式，随意的生活语言往往会给国外的汉语学习者带来很多困惑。比如：在问句中“吗”的省略：“你一个人在这儿？”(VOL 1, L3);“你想去中国？”(VOL 1, L4) 虽然有些学生能通过句调猜出是不是问句，不少学生还是不明白为什么“吗”在这儿被省略了。其次是“的”的省略，如第一册练习册第一课中出现的：“他是我同学。”这样的句子虽然在中国常常说，但对国外的学生来说，不太容易理解，因为在英语中只说“my classmate”，从来不说“I classmate”。由此可见，语言的严格性，规范化在为以英语为母语的汉语学习者编写的教材中，非常重要，尤其在初级阶段。

附注：

1. “当代中文”教师手册 (Vol. P1), 华语教学出版社
2. 佟秉正 1991 “初级汉语教材的编写问题”, 北京语言学院出版社

Paper Presentation

14. Educational Psychology and Chinese Language Learning

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Introduction

Educational Psychology has been defined as the study of learners, learning and teaching (Slavin, 1997, p.3). Some of the most fundamental concepts found within this discipline are those stemming from cognitive theories of learning. These concepts also inform basic instructional approaches to formal/organized learning activities in educational settings at different levels. Much research has been devoted to the psychology of language learning, including the learning of a second and/or foreign language. There are important cognitive considerations in this type of language learning (ref. DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005), such as **sources of language learning knowledge** (e.g., universal grammar, the role of first language), **explicit learning, implicit learning**, and **individual differences** (e.g., aptitude, age, working memory). In addition cognitive considerations, there are other essential dimensions of learning that come into play when a second/foreign language, such as Chinese, is being acquired.

I obtained my Ph.D. in Educational Psychology in 1995. An important reason for pursuing this degree was my interest in the learning/teaching process as it relates to foreign languages. I have been an avid language learner myself from a young age, and so my graduate training naturally gravitated toward those dimensions of Educational Psychology that had most to do with language learning processes. These came mostly under the rubric of various focal points within the discipline, including **sociolinguistics** (McKay, 2005), **language socialization** (Zuengler & Cole, 2005), and **sociocultural language learning** (Lantolf, 2005).

Over the years, I have had the opportunity to teach language courses in several target languages: English, French, Spanish, Japanese, and Mandarin Chinese. Of course, there are significant linguistic differences between these languages, as well as the methods utilized to teach the languages in the

classroom. Nevertheless, there are also some important points of commonality, to which Educational Psychology applies. Through my graduate training in Educational Psychology, I have been able to make useful adaptations to my instructional methods to teach Chinese as a Foreign Language, which I believe have increased my overall effectiveness in the classroom. That is to say, the basic training I received as a graduate student has allowed me to apply certain 'constant elements' found in Educational Psychology to my teaching activity. This paper describes some of these constants and the way I employ them in teaching the introductory level course in Mandarin Chinese at Saint Mary's University. The main text used for this course is the ***New Practical Chinese Reader***, along with the Workbook and accompanying audio material.

The Cognitive Approach to Language Learning

A very large body of research in Educational Psychology has to do with how the mind processes information, with a focus on memory, both short-term (working memory) and long-term.

Working Memory

According to research in the discipline, a major factor in enhancing the working memory of individuals is ***background knowledge***. For this reason, one of the first things I do in my language class is giving students a chance to provide me with background information. This is usually done in the form of a short bio written by each student, with the understanding that any information provided me is to be used strictly to make the course more personally relevant to every participant. The data obtained from the bios serve me throughout the course, as I try to introduce material and ideas in ways that relate to my students' background knowledge in a significant way. In this way, the focus of the Mandarin Chinese course is on the individual learner and, accordingly, my finding ways to activate more effectively his/her prior knowledge during the learning process.

Researchers have also confirmed that the more a learner knows about something, the better that person is to organize and absorb information (Chi & Ceci, 1987; Engle, Nations, & Cantor, 1990; Kuhara-Kojima & Hatano, 1991). Thus, in my class I do my best to find ways to link new learning to a learner's existing background knowledge.

Research further indicates that learners differ in their abilities to organize information. Regardless of these differences, each and every learner can be taught to consciously use strategies to make more efficient use of his/her

working memory capacity (DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005; Levin & Levin, 1990; Peverly, 1991, Pressley & Harris, 1990). For this purpose, some of the strategies that I share with my students include **imagery**, (keyword) **mnemonics**, and **hierarchies of knowledge**.

For example, in my class I often make use of imagery to create stories that weave together information as part of a basic vocabulary list (ref. Egan, 1989): an arbitrary list of pictograms for 'man', 'dog', 'buy', 'eat', and 'store' can be easily woven into a mini-story, facilitating the process of committing the vocabulary to memory (e.g. "the man goes to the store to buy food for his dog"). Even if the students are missing some of the pictograms to write a complete sentence in Chinese, I encourage them to write all those that they know. Gradually, the gaps in vocabulary are filled as the course progresses.

A second basic strategy to enhance working memory capacity stems from **schema theory**, which postulates that information that fits into an existing schema (i.e., mentally organized networks of connected ideas or relationships) is more easily understood, retained, and recalled than information that does not fit into an existing schema (Anderson & Bower, 1983). Additional research conducted by Durso and Coggins (1991) showed that **hierarchical organization** of the learning material, in which specific ideas/topics are grouped under more general topics, are particularly helpful to augment student understanding. Consequently, in my class I make regular use of **schemata** derived from the radicals of Chinese pictograms (e.g., 'human', 'animal', 'wood', 'metal', etc). I introduce these basic radicals at the very beginning of the course, and quickly expand upon them during the following lessons.

In conjunction with the relatively early introduction of radicals, I give my students a series of exercises that involve different combinations of elements that form various pictograms. Again, the key is to give these exercises to the students at a relatively early stage so as to induce them to access and develop schemata of Chinese pictograms organized in **hierarchies of knowledge**. Alexander's (1992) research clearly indicates this principle: meaningful learning requires active involvement of the learner, and what he/she learns from any experience depends largely on the schema applied.

In order to further enhance the students' ability to access hierarchies of learning, I also encourage them to develop their **metacognitive skills** as they begin using Chinese pictograms. This essentially involves making students aware of common elements in a given learning task (e.g., reading comprehension, vocabulary usage, etc.) by asking themselves questions about these common elements (Pressley, Harris, & Marks, 1992). To facilitate this process, the students are quickly provided with the 'necessary equipment' to formulate questions in Chinese, that is, *who*, *what*, *where* and *how*.

Long-Term Memory

Prominent educational psychologists (e.g., Ericsson & Kintsch, 1995) believe that learners store more than information in long-term memory; they also store learning strategies for easier access, that is, **long-term working memory**. Keeping this concept in mind, I usually begin my lessons with **key questions**, even before I introduce the instructional material specific to that day. This is done to encourage students to assess their own understanding of what the text is aiming to teach. I also integrate different **conceptual models** that aim to show the students how elements of the language relate to each other, either in grammatical or lexical terms.

Some theorists have further divided long-term memory into at least three parts: **episodic memory**, **semantic memory**, and **procedural memory** (Tulving, 1985). Such being the case, I have tried to include learning activities in my course that aim to facilitate the retention of information along these delineations of long-term memory. For instance, in order to stimulate the episodic memory of my students, I find ways to create explicitly '**memorable events**' in the classroom. This involves the consistent use of visual images and/or auditory input (Martin, 1993; Slavin, 1997). Thus I make extensive use of pictures to illustrate key learning concepts found in the text (which has very few images). I have discovered that this obvious instructional approach helps students remember more easily information contained within the text. I also make regular use of other visual material throughout my lessons: vocabulary cards with pictures of objects; the actual objects themselves; images downloaded from the Internet; video clips; and sections of Chinese movies. Most important of all, these visual cues are not merely introduced to students in a passive way, they are encouraged to relate these cues to prior knowledge and utilize them actively for realistic communication. Again, this puts emphasis on the students' ability to form accurate schemata and to access their metacognitive skills.

Factors that Enhance Long-Term Memory

Research findings indicate that instructional strategies that promotes direct **student involvement** in a lesson contributes significantly to the student's long-term retention of that lesson (MacKenzie & White, 1982). In this regard, the principle of **connectionism** (Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986) is highly relevant, for it postulates that knowledge is stored in the brain as a **network of connections**. The implication of this principle in the language classroom is that greater emphasis has to be placed on **experience-based teaching** (and a de-emphasis on **rule-based teaching**). Consequently, I try to maximize active

student involvement in my class, be it in the form of role-playing, simulated situations (e.g. speaking on the telephone, buying at the market, asking for directions), problem solving, show and tell, etc. The focus is always on engaging students in 'meaningful learning' – the kind of learning that requires active involvement, facilitating the accessing of prior experiences and knowledge, the understanding of linguistic principles, and the incorporating of new information into a usable frame of **cognitive constructions** (Alexander, 1992).

The Constructivist Approach to Language Learning

The basic premise of this approach is that learners must individually discover and transform information and make it their own (Steffe & Gale, 1995). This approach is also known as **student-centered instruction**. Here, emphasis is placed on the **social nature** of learning. This can be generally achieved in the classroom by organizing **mixed-ability learning groups**. The learning process that goes on in such groups promotes important conceptual change in the students. Other classroom activities that facilitate this process include **cooperative learning** and discovery through **cognitive apprenticeship** (Gardner, 1991). The latter learning activity accentuates a process by which a learner gradually acquires expertise in interaction with someone seen as 'expert' (i.e., the teacher, teacher assistant, or a more advanced peer).

Another important dimension of constructivist thought is **situated learning**: the use of real-life, authentic tasks in the classroom to augment learning through the accomplishment of more complex, realistic tasks (Prawat, 1992; Slavin, 1997). As researchers suggest, as new information is being absorbed by the students the teacher should provide guidance along the way, *but* the teacher should also allow the learner to work out or discover the basic skills required behind that new information. This can be often accomplished by inserting more problem-solving tasks into a lesson. Not only should the students be given more problems to solve, ideally the problems should be relatively more complex, or 'thought provoking'.

Generative learning is another central assumption of constructivist approaches to teaching. This concept describes how learners are encouraged to perform mental operations with new information as to make it their own. For example, this can be accomplished by accessing useful **question-generation strategies** (discussed earlier in this paper) in combination with **cooperative learning**. As I make the conscious effort to bring these concepts 'to life' in my classroom, I design learning tasks in such a way that requires more than simple, direct answers from the students; they have to use their own powers of deduction, their prior knowledge, or recall episodic learning experiences to

bring the task to successful completion. For example, I many assign some kind of information-completion task' that will oblige the students to seek information from other classmates before they are able to complete that task. I also use many 'fill-in-the-blank' stories that induce students to 'individualize' the content.

A final concept that plays an integral part of the constructionist learning process is ***discovery learning***. Students are encouraged to learn a task on their own through active involvement with concepts and principles. This is accentuated by such exercises as matching definitions to words, mapping of key geographical points in China, matching sounds to pictograms, playing 'ten questions,' guessing word usage through context, etc.

CONCLUSION

The language-learning classroom is one where a great deal of information processing is going on. As an educator that became involved in language instruction at an early stage in my professional development, I became intrigued about 'what is going on in the learner's head.' Educational psychology has been able to offer crucial insight into that learning process. There are many outstanding researchers in the world of educational psychology that made important contributions to help us better understand some fundamental mental factors that relate to learning, and, even more valuable, providing instructional tools to facilitate that learning in and out of the classroom. This paper presented an overview of some of these keys concepts as they relate to the teaching of Mandarin Chinese. There are many linguistic features of Chinese that require specific pedagogical approaches to the effective teaching of that language. However, there also are underlying principles that describe general tendencies in the human learning process, including (foreign) language acquisition, that are useful in making learning Chinese as a foreign language a more enjoyable experience for students, and, most important, in enabling the instructor to offer a more effective course.

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Paper Presentation

15. Understanding Problems in Learning Mandarin Consonants

by Monolingual Speakers of English

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In the area of second language acquisition, the learning and teaching of the sound and sound system of a language present some of the most difficult challenges. Especially after the learner reaches puberty, it becomes increasingly rare for the learner to achieve accentless pronunciation even though he/she may go on to master the syntax (sentence structure) and morphology (word and word structure) of the target language. Language teachers and researchers alike have been baffled by what has been known as the 'Joseph Conrad Syndrome,' the phenomenon named after the famous Polish-British author Joseph Conrad who became completely proficient and a great master at written English, as is shown in his brilliantly-written novels in the English language, while retaining his heavy Polish accent throughout his life. The lack of success in learning L2 phonology has promoted some linguists to declare that the Critical Period Hypothesis that language learning ends in puberty applies only to phonology (Scovel 1988). It is for reasons such as these that the linguistic area of learning and teaching second language phonology has gradually emerged as an autonomous area in applied linguistics and has been among the fastest developing areas in linguistics. What we have learned in increasingly greater detail in this area is that contrastive linguistics which was popular in the 1950s and 1960s partially helps with unraveling the nature of sound acquisition; many other aspects, among which is the universal grammar, clearly play a non-trivial part (cf. Lin, in progress).

In this paper, I will try to explain some of the most common difficulties native English speakers encounter learning Mandarin consonants in light of the generative phonology and current theories in second language (L2) acquisition. I will analyze the difficulties in terms of the feature system, consonant inventory and their distribution facts. Based on this analysis, I will then offer some practical suggestions to teachers of Mandarin for addressing these difficulties.

Understanding the Difficulties

Any experienced teacher of Mandarin-as-a-second-language (MSL) will have noticed that some of the Mandarin consonants that seem to be particularly challenging to native English speakers include, [ts, tsH, tɕ, tɕH, ɸ, tʂ, tʂH, ʅ, x, ɥ] in International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), or <z, c, j, q, x, zh, ch, r, h, yu> in *pinyin* (see Lin 2001, Chapter 2). However, why these consonants should cause problems is a question to which not every teacher of MSL knows the answer. According to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado 1957), cross-linguistic differences will lead to learning difficulties. Many studies in second language acquisition have since confirmed that learners are more adept at perceiving L1 than L2 sounds (e.g., Best 1994, Best *et al.* 1988, Dupoux *et al.* 1997, Harnsberger, J. 2001, Polka and Werker 1994, Strange 1995). Thus a good understanding in teaching a second language should start with a contrastive analysis of the mother tongue (L1) and the second language (L2), and immediate attention should be given to what the L1 has but is missing in the L2.

Traditionally, language teachers tend to focus on mismatches between individual segments (i.e., consonant and vowels) in L1 and L2. The picture is however much more complex. For one thing, mismatches can be in the smaller domain of the feature system and/or in the larger domain of position in the syllable. All can potentially cause problems. Now let us first see how the system of Mandarin consonants contrasts with that of English. As there are a number of different native versions of English in the world, we will focus our analysis on the consonant system used in American English spoken in the general area of North America. By 'Mandarin', we mean, on the other hand, the Standard Chinese spoken natively in Northern China. Also, in our description of the sounds in the two languages, we will use IPA. *Pinyin*, even though it is useful representing Mandarin sounds, is not applicable to identify English sounds and therefore cannot serve our purpose of comparison here. For MSL teachers and learners who only know *pinyin*, a table of Mandarin consonants showing the *pinyin* and IPA correspondence is provided in the Appendix.

Featural Differences

Now let us begin by examining the consonantal system of the mother tongue (L1) English:

Table 1 English Consonants

| Manner \ Place | | Place | | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|----------|-------------|--------|----------|--------------|---------|-------|---------|
| | | Bilabial | Labiodental | Dental | Alveolar | Alveopalatal | Palatal | Velar | Glottal |
| stop | [-vc] | p | | | t | | | k | ʔ |
| | [+vc] | b | | | d | | | g | |
| affricate | [-vc] | | | | | tʃ | | | |
| | [+vc] | | | | | dʒ | | | |
| fricative | [-vc] | | f | θ | s | ʃ | | | h |
| | [+vc] | | v | ð | z | ʒ | | | |
| nasal | | m | | | n | | | ŋ | |
| liquid | | | | | l r | | | | |
| glide | | w | | | | | y | | |

English has 23 consonants not counting the glides or the semi-vowels. From the viewpoint of manner of articulation, English has two sets of obstruents (i.e., stops, affricates and fricatives). Each set is divided into two groups by the feature [voicing] (or [+/-vc] for short) that indicates the presence of the vibration of the vocal cords. In addition, English has nasals, liquids and glides. From the viewpoint of place of articulation, English uses a full range of sounds from bilabials in the front to the glottals at the back. Now let us see the consonantal system of the target language (L2) Mandarin:

Table 2 Mandarin Consonants

| Manner \ Place | | | Place | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|------|----------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| | | | Bilabial | Labiodental | Dental | Alveolar | Alveopalatal | Palatal | Velar |
| stop | [-vc] | [+a] | p ^h | | | t ^h | | | k ^h |
| | | [-a] | p | | | t | | | k |
| affricate | [-vc] | [+a] | | | ts ^h | | tʃ ^h | tʃ ^h | |
| | | [-a] | | | ts | | tʃ | tʃ | |
| fricative | [-vc] | | f | s | | ʃ | ç | x | |
| | [+vc] | | | | | ʒ | | | |
| nasal | | | m | | | n | | ŋ | |
| liquid | | | | | | l | | | |
| retroflex | | | | | | ʎ | | | |
| glide | | | w | | | | y ʅ | | |

Not considering the semi-vowel glides, Mandarin has the same number of consonants as English. And like English, Mandarin also has two sets of obstruents. However, unlike English, the stops and affricates in Mandarin are divided into two groups by the feature [aspiration] ([+/-a] for short) which

involves a strong puff of air coming out of the lungs (rather than the vibration of the vocal cords). And unlike English, all obstruents in Mandarin except fricative [ʃ] are not voiced (i.e., [-voice] or [-vc] for short). The prominence of [aspiration] in Mandarin and the lack of it in English suggests possible problems in the learning of the feature [aspiration] by native English speakers. We will return to this point shortly. Other features that are found prominent in Mandarin but not so in English include [retroflex] and [palatalization]. The former involves the curl of the tip of the tongue backward while the latter involves the simultaneous retraction of the tongue body and raising it toward the roof (the hard palate) of the mouth. We will discuss the featural difference in more details shortly.

Segmental Mismatches

In addition to featural differences, Tables 1 and 2 shows that English is missing the Mandarin consonants highlighted in the following table:

Table 3 Mandarin Sounds Missing in English

| Manner | | Place | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|-------|----------|----------------|--------|----------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|---|---|----------------|---|
| | | Bilabial | Labiodental | Dental | Alveolar | Alveopalatal | Palatal | Velar | Glottal | | | | |
| stop | [-vc] | [+a] | p ^h | | | | t ^h | | | | | | |
| | | [-a] | p | | | | t | | | | k | k ^h | ʔ |
| | [+vc] | | b | | | | d | | | | g | | |
| affricate | [-vc] | [+a] | | | | | tʃ | tʃ ^h | tʃ ^h | | | | |
| | | [-a] | | | | | ts | ts | ts | | | | |
| | [+vc] | | | | | | dʒ | | | | | | |
| fricative | [-vc] | | f | θ | s | s | ʃ | ʃ | ʃ | x | h | | |
| | [+vc] | | v | ð | z | z | ʒ | ʒ | | | | | |
| nasal | | | m | | | | n | | | | ŋ | | |
| liquid | | | | | | | l | r | | | | | |
| retroflex | | | | | | | ɻ | | | | | | |
| glide | | | w | | | | | | | y | y | | |

Looking vertically from left to right from the perspective of place of articulation, we can see that Mandarin has three major series of consonants that are either not found in English (such as the dentals and the palatals) or are not the same as their English counterparts (the alveopalatals).

Mandarin Dentals and the Feature [Aspiration]

The comparison between Tables 1 and 2 helps us understand why the two dental affricates [ts^h] and [ts] (or <c, z>), especially the aspirated [ts^h], are challenging for English speakers. While the Mandarin dental fricative [s] has a closely approximating counterpart in the alveolar fricative [s] in English and thus is not apparently problematic, the Mandarin dental affricates [ts^h] and [ts]

do not have equivalents in English. Here one may argue that English does have [tʃH] and [tʃ] counterparts, they are found in the final consonants in words like *its* [tʃ] and *beds* [dʒ], and the presence of these sound sequences in English should presumably make it easier for the two Mandarin dentals to be learned. However, a closer look at the picture would suggest otherwise. The problem is, firstly, that the Mandarin dental affricates are wholesome phonemes rather than sequences of sounds. More importantly, the Mandarin dental affricates occur only *syllable-initially* while their English ‘counterparts’ occur only *syllable-finally*. Studies in L2 acquisition have found that position in the syllable can affect acquisition. More specifically, a consonant in syllable-final position is harder to learn than it is in syllable-initial position (Flege & Davidian 1984, Henly & Sheldon 1986, Anderson 1987). As is well-known, [aspiration] plays almost no role in syllable-final position in English. English stops such as [p, t, k], for instance, are unreleased in syllable-final position when they are aspirated in syllable-initial position (e.g., *top* [tʰp̚] versus *pot* [pʰt̚]). Thus, even though English does have [tʃ] as in *its*, [tʃ] occurs only in syllable-final position and is never aspirated.

In fact the problem with aspiration does not only exist with the Mandarin dental [tʃH]. Some native English speakers have trouble aspirating the syllable-initial [pʰ] as in <p5ngy0u> ‘friend’. In stead of [pʰFN] ‘shed’, for instance, they would utter [pFN] ‘not necessary’, neutralizing the contrast between the minimal pair. The culprit is once again the prominence of aspiration in Mandarin which is not found in English. In phonetic terms, there may well be a difference in the voice onset time (VOT) between the aspirated English and the Mandarin [p]s. Due to the technical complexity of the topic and keeping in mind the intended audience of this paper (i.e., Chinese-as-a-second-language or CSL teachers), we will not address VOT here.

Mandarin Alveopalatals and the Feature [Retroflex]

Mandarin alveopalatals [tʃ, tʃH, ʃ, ½] (or <zh, ch, sh, r>) are another set of consonants that seem to cause problems for English speakers. Comparing Tables 1 and 2, we see that English has almost an identical set of alveopalatals, the only difference being that the English affricates are differentiated by [voicing] while those in Mandarin [aspiration]. Then why would English speakers have problems learning these Mandarin ‘counterparts’? The answer is that the Mandarin set has a [retroflex] feature that requires the curl of the tongue tip backward while the English set does not. That is, not considering the [voicing] versus [aspiration] difference, there is a difference between the two sets in tongue configuration. Here one may argue that [retroflex] as a secondary feature does exist in English. Examples are found in words such as *car*, *shirt* and *burst*. However, once again, the crucial matter lies

in distribution: the [retroflex] in English occurs only *post-vocally* (i.e., after a vowel) whereas the Mandarin retroflexed alveopalatals occur only pre-vocally in syllable-initial position. Apparently, the distributional difference between Mandarin and English retroflex features is responsible for the difficulty English speakers have in learning the Mandarin retroflex sounds. Specifically, English speakers are not used to using the [retroflex] feature in the onset position. Here it is interesting to note that the post-vocalic retroflex feature in English seems to positively influence its speakers learning the Mandarin post-vocalic [ʈ] as in [Fʈ] (<7r> 'two'), and on the other hand, the absence of the post-vocalic retroflex feature in Mandarin means that the Mandarin speakers will have trouble learning it in words such as *war* and *burst* in English.

Mandarin Palatals and the Feature [Palatalization]

Mandarin palatal obstruents [tʃ, tʃH, ʃ] (or <j, q, x>) are a set of consonants that have almost always been found to cause problems for native English speakers, especially those monolingual English speakers at the beginning stage of learning Mandarin. A comparison between Tables 1 and 2 suggest that the problem is caused by two factors. One, English does not have palatal obstruents, and two, English misses palatalized sounds altogether. Unlike many other languages such as Spanish and the Slavic languages such as Russian that do use palatalization to a greater or lesser extent, English does not have it as a secondary feature on consonants. In fact, English speakers' problems with palatalization do not only occur in learning the palatals in Mandarin, but they also occur in their learning Mandarin words such as <n&> 'you'. The Mandarin [n] in <n&> 'you' is actually slightly palatalized in the shape of [ny] with a secondary palatalization feature. It seems that almost no monolingual native English speakers can either perceive or produce this [ny] at the beginning stage of learning.

Mandarin Velar [x] and Glide [j]

Mandarin velar fricative [x] as in <h2o> 'good' and glide [j] as in <yu4> 'appointment' are two other consonants that cause problems for English speakers. The problem with [j] is the same as the problem with the Mandarin umlaut vowel [ɥ], and is easily explicable since English in general lacks umlaut segments--front vowels or consonants that have the lip-rounding feature.

The difficulty English speakers experience in learning Mandarin [x] is more complex. A comparison of Tables 1 and 2 reveals that English does not have a velar fricative [x]. However, unlike most of the Mandarin consonants discussed previously that are simply hard for English speakers to duplicate, Mandarin velar [x] is usually conveniently and unwittingly replaced with the English glottal [h] by English speakers. This replacement seems to be due to

similarities rather than differences between the two consonants. Both sounds are in fact identical except for a slight difference in Place of Articulation, with Mandarin [x] being more to the front than the English [h]; that is, both have the exact manner of articulation--the same amount of aspiration and the same configuration of the tongue and the vocal and nasal cavities. In fact, the sameness does not only cause English speakers difficulties in learning the Mandarin sound, but it also causes the reverse problem for Mandarin speakers learning English; namely, Mandarin speakers substitute [x] for [h] when pronouncing English words such as *how*, *hear* and *hurry*. It is quite possible that neither English nor Mandarin speaker can perceive the difference between the two, especially at the beginning stage of the L2 learning, and the perception problem leads to the substitution of the L1 sound for the L2 one.

Although Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claims that similarities between L1 and L2 features should facilitate learning the L2 feature, recent studies (e.g., Aoyama *et al.* 2004, Flege 1995) have demonstrated that given two sounds *x* and *y* in L2 that are similar to *z* in L1, learning the L2 *x* is faster than learning the L2 *y* if *x* is less similar to the L1 *z* than the L2 *y*. According to the much cited Speech Learning Model of Flege (1995), the greater the perceived phonetic dissimilarity between *x* in L2 and *z* in L1, the easier the learner can differentiate between the two sounds. What these studies suggest is that similarity to a certain degree may hinder rather than facilitate learning. In our case, this seems a perfect explanation for the confusion between [x] in Mandarin and [h] in English. The very close approximation between them leads to a lack in their discrimination and, consequently, difficulties in learning them by their respective L2 learners.

Mandarin Nasals [n] and [N]

While the problems discussed so far can be more or less explained through contrastive differences between the features, individual sounds and their distribution in syllables in the two languages, there is one problem that seems to be quite baffling to linguists and language teachers. That is, English speakers often have trouble differentiating between [n] and [N] in syllable-final position in Mandarin. Mastery of the difference between minimal pairs such as [fɲ] (<fen>) and [fɲN] (<feng>) seems to require a great deal of training for English speakers. The problem is puzzling because both English and Chinese have these two consonants, and both sets occur in syllable-final position. For instance, English has minimal pairs such as *sin* and *sing*, *kin* and *king*, *ban* and *bang*, and *ran* and *rang*. What is even more bewildering is that Mandarin speakers also seem to have trouble with English [n] and [N]. It is not unusual, for instance, to hear Mandarin speakers pronounce *sinful* as *singful*, and *done* [dɔ̃n] as *dung* [dɔ̃N]. The explanation does not apparently lie in comparing the two languages but rather, seems to come from something more general.

Huang (2003) noted in an auditory experiment that both English and Mandarin speakers tended to mis-perceive the velar nasal [ŋ] as the alveolar nasal [n]. For instance, they would hear [IN] as [In] and [«N] as [«n]. Huang has suggested that the misperception is due to a general tendency for simplicity in language. The confusion of the two nasals is reflected in other Chinese dialects as well. According to Huang, the two are merging in Taiwan Mandarin into one [n]. In certain other Chinese dialects such as Chaozhou and Fuzhou, the merging direction is reversed, changing [n] into [ŋ] (Zee 1985). It thus seems that there may be a general tendency for the identities of the two sounds in concern to be confused and the presence of these sounds in a L1 does not guarantee success in learning the same sounds in a L2. Explanation may also reside in the difference in the phonotactic constraints each of the two languages places on these sounds. For instance, it seems that Mandarin [ŋ] can combine with more vowels and diphthongs than the English [ŋ]. The additional unfamiliar contexts in which Mandarin [ŋ] can occur may result in difficulties for English speakers trying to learn it. Secondly, it is possible that the two sets are simply not identical sounds from both articulatory and acoustic perspectives even though *categorically*, the Mandarin set is the equivalent to the English set. Further perception and production tests and acoustic analysis are needed to verify if this is indeed the case.

Practical Suggestions for Teachers of Mandarin

In this section, I will make some practical suggestions for teaching Mandarin consonants based both on the analysis and discussion in the previous section as well as on my own experience in teaching MSL. I will begin with the feature [aspiration]. Mandarin aspirated consonants that are frequently problematic for English speakers include (but are not necessarily limited to) [tsʰ], [tʃʰ], [tʰ] and occasionally, [pʰ] (or <c, ch, q, p>). The trick in teaching these sounds is to ask the student to pronounce the English glottal fricative [h] *simultaneously*. For instance, in teaching [tsʰ], tell the student to say the Mandarin [tsʰ] and the English [h] at the same time. Alternatively, the teacher may ask the student to say repeatedly the English sentence: *Its horrible*, emphasizing on the underlined part so as to capture and secure the aspiration in [tsʰ].

Similar 'two-in-one' approach can be used in teaching the Mandarin palatal consonants [tʃ, tʃʰ, ʃ and ɲ] (or <j, q, x, ɲ>). Like [h] in the aspirated Mandarin sounds, the sound that should be 'incorporated' into the palatals is [i] (or more specifically, its glide variation [y]). The teacher can start by pointing out that these palatals are similar to the initial consonants in such English words as *jeep*, *cheap*, *sheep* and *need*, respectively. Note that in all these words, the vowel is invariably [i], which is the essential common element in a palatalized consonant (although [i] should not be voiced). After the students become familiar with *jee(p)* for [tʃ], *chea(p)* for [tʃʰ], *shee(p)* for [ʃ] and *nee(d)*

for [ny], ask them to say the initial consonant and the vowel [i] *simultaneously* and avoid saying the consonant first followed by the vowel as they are handled in English.

Teaching the Mandarin retroflex consonants [tʂ, tʂʰ, ʂ, ʂ̥] (or <zh, chi, sh, r>) can be facilitated by asking the students to say English words such as *car*, *shirt*, *war* and *burst*. The idea is for the students to find the common [retroflex] feature in these words in the post-vocalic position and to pinpoint the configuration of the articulators (tongue and oral cavity, etc.) in producing it. Once they are able to feel and identify this common feature in these words, ask the students to try to add that feature to the Mandarin retroflex consonants. Alternatively, the teacher may ask the students to try and add that feature to the English counterparts [dʒ, tʃ, ʃ, ʒ] found in words such as *journal*, *church*, *shirt* and *genre*, respectively. Ask the students to say these four words by moving the post-vocalic retroflex [r] in these words forward right to the start of the initial consonant.

The Mandarin [x] can be taught by first asking the students to say the English [k] and [g] as found in the initial consonant in *cut* and *gut*. Ask them to feel where these two consonants are formed in the mouth. They should now be able to identify the position of the velum. Then ask the students to say the English [h] in that position, namely, in the same position as the one for producing English [k] and [g] (or Mandarin [kʰ] and [k], for that matter).

Finally, teaching the umlaut glide [y̥] is the same as teaching the umlaut vowel [y̥]. It entails the juxtaposition of the sound [u] together with the sound [i]. In practice, ask the students to hold fast the lip configuration of [u] while simultaneously pronouncing [i] behind the lips by the tongue. Alternatively, ask the students to start by saying [i] and keeping fast the [i] in position, tighten the lips into a circle as seen in pronouncing [u].

Conclusion

In this paper, I have attempted to explain, within the general guidelines of generative phonology and theories of second language acquisition, some of the well-observed difficulties English speakers experience in learning MSL consonants. I have shown that the difficulties mostly arise from mismatches between the two languages not only in consonant inventory, but also in featural system and distribution of the consonants and features within the syllable (i.e., phonotactic constraints). Based on the analysis and explanations, I have suggested methods for teaching the difficult Mandarin consonants. It is my hope that this paper will enhance the understanding of the process in learning Mandarin consonants by both MSL teachers and students and that the methods provided will help reduce the learning and teaching difficulties.

It should be noted here that not all English speakers will experience all the difficulties discussed in this paper and not all who experience the difficulties will experience them to the same degree. Individual difference in the learning experience can be attributed to many factors, with one of the most important being the students' knowledge of other languages. A student with knowledge of German, for instance, may have less trouble learning the Mandarin velar [x] than a student who is a monolingual English speaker. This is because German does have a similar velar sound found in the final consonant in such word as *Bach*. Also, an English speaker with knowledge of Spanish or Russian may have less trouble with the palatalized consonants in Mandarin due to the fact that palatalized sounds do occur in these languages. It is thus recommended that the MSL teachers or any teacher of a second language is aware of the students' background in languages before and during the teaching process.

It should also be noted that the degree and the kind of difficulties English speakers experience in learning Mandarin consonants may change over time as their MSL proficiency levels increase. Difficulties at the beginning stage--normally due to L1 and L2 differences--may diminish or disappear over time. On the other hand, what appears as less difficult at the beginning--normally due to L1 and L2 similarities--may take much longer time to master.

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Appendix

Mandarin Consonants
Correspondence between Pinyin and IPA

| | | | <i>Bilabial</i> | <i>Labiodental</i> | <i>Dental</i> | <i>Alveolar</i> | <i>Alveopalatal</i> | <i>Palatal</i> | <i>Velar</i> |
|-----------|-----|----|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| stop | -vc | -a | p | | | t <ㄊ> | | | k <ㄍ> |
| | | +a | p ^h <p> | | | t ^h <ㄊˊ> | | | k ^h <k> |
| affricate | -vc | -a | | | ts <ㄗ> | | tʃ <ㄓ> | tʃ <ㄐ> | |
| | | +a | | | ts ^h <ㄗˊ> | | tʃ ^h <ㄓˊ> | tʃ ^h <ㄐˊ> | |
| fricative | -vc | | | f <ㄝ> | s <ㄝ> | | ʃ <ㄕ> | ʃ <ㄒ> | x <ㄒ> |
| | +vc | | | | | | ʒ <ㄖ> | | |
| nasal | | | m <m> | | | n <n> | | | ŋ <ㄥ> |
| liquid | | | | | | l <ㄌ> | | | |
| retroflex | | | | | | ɻ <(e)r> | | | |
| glide | | | w <w> | | | | | y <y> | |

In this paper, symbols enclosed within angle brackets are *pinyin* symbols while those in square brackets are IPA symbols.

Traditionally, the glide [y] is sometimes represented by the IPA symbol [j].

Traditionally, the umlaut glide [y̥] is sometimes represented by the IPA symbol [y̥].

See Lin (2001) for a discussion on whether the difference between [ʃ, ʃ̥] is a matter of aspiration or voicing.

Where the diacritic ‘~’ means the segment before is unreleased.

Please note that not all Mandarin dialects have the [retroflex] feature on these alveopalatals. Mandarin spoken in Taiwan, for instance, is characteristically devoid of this feature. In fact, this feature most clearly identifies the Mandarin dialect spoken in Beijing.

Pre-vocally, English does have a retroflex *segment* [r] which does not have much bearing on our discussion on secondary features here and will therefore be ignored.

I will discuss the learning of Mandarin vowels by English speakers in another paper.

Neither Mandarin nor English has [N] in syllable-initial position. By Mandarin we mean

Standard Mandarin, as some Mandarin dialects (such as Jinan dialect of Shangdong Province) other than the Standard do have [N] in syllable-initial position (Lin 2001).

I thank my colleague, Dr. Daniel Bryant, in the Pacific Asian Studies Department at the University of Victoria, for teaching me this effective method.

The consonant <n> is as in *n* & 'you'.

See Lin (2001) for more information on Mandarin phonotactic constraints.

Epilogue:

Peaceful Rise, Multiculturalism, and TCSL

(A speech delivered at the World Chinese Conference in Beijing on July 20, 2005)

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It is a great pleasure for me to congratulate the China National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, or NOTCFL, on its timely actions in calling together this conference, whose function is to investigate the demands and challenges, and develop solutions for the teaching of Chinese in an ever-changing multicultural world. I believe that this conference is historically significant. Its existence alone substantiates the fact that the teaching of the Chinese language is not now merely a national Chinese issue, but has become an international concern. More importantly, as a third of its time will be devoted to exploring the future developments in “Teaching Chinese as a Second Language,” or TCSL, I predict that China’s policies for “Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language,” or TCFL, may progress from a demand for quantity and quality to a betterment of its fundamental concepts and ideology.

Meeting these winds of change head-on, I would like to address aspects concerning the inevitable evolution of TCSL in the modern, changing world. It is now a crucial, exciting time of change; I foresee several issues worthy of illumination and discussion. First and foremost, I am strongly convinced that promoting Chinese language education is, for China, an indispensable means for diplomatic relationship-building. Moreover, I feel it is the most impactful means by which China can assure and communicate to the rest of the world its intent for a peaceful rise in the world community. Second, TCSL is inherently beneficial to all nations of the world in various ways. Not only does it have intrinsic educational value in that it increases the knowledge base of students and widens their potentiality, TCSL may also play a pragmatic role in counterbalancing the potentially negative trends that are inevitably associated with cultural and economic globalization, and that threaten the well-being of society. Then, to further elaborate on the benefits that TCSL brings, I turn to the specific example of Canadian multiculturalism and policies of Second Language Education. I will close with some suggestions to the NOTCFL for initiatives that may aid in the continuing growth and adaptation of TCSL.

The dual factors of continuing economic globalization and the rapid and sustainable growth of China’s economy have spawned an intense worldwide interest in learning

Chinese languages. Hence, a vast assembly of over 300 policy-makers, educators, scholars, and experts from all over the world has been called together to speculate on the possible issues affecting the development of the Chinese language in the new millennium. Indeed, it is undeniable now that the teaching of Chinese is no longer an educational issue only for China and her people. It has inevitably become an international concern. As the introduction to the World Chinese Conference cites, "There are 25 million Chinese-language learners; more than 2,300 universities, and an increasing number of primary and middle schools in 85 countries around the world offer Chinese language courses."

Today, technology pervades every facet of society from lifestyle to industry and government. Over the last 20 years, technological advances have fostered intricate connections and close dependencies that are now taken for granted between nations and people throughout the world. Like it or not, we are all linked to each other for economic survival and social stability. In such a world, openness, trust, and mutual understanding between nations is of vital importance. However, the ability of a nation to function effectively within the global community depends on its citizens' language skills. Therefore, the onus lies on the government's encouragement of learning other nation's languages, and spreading knowledge of its own. Communication is the key, therefore the promotion of teaching and learning Chinese as a second language is central to China's commitment to advancing international understanding and trust. It is the responsibility of China, as it is of all nations on the globe, to enhance international cooperation for the benefit of all. In this way, it becomes evident that championing Chinese language education is China's vital contribution to international stability and sustainable economic growth. Indeed, it is the pivotal means through which China can concretely and effectively demonstrate its commitment to rise peacefully into prominence onto the world stage. There is no better way to cultivate enduring, mutually trustful, and cooperative international relationships than to make such a gesture of good neighbourly faith.

Perhaps Chinese citizens are wondering, "What is the benefit of promoting Chinese language education in other countries?" Similarly, these other nations may be asking, "What is the benefit of promoting Chinese language education in our own system?" Both questions can be answered in the same way. Learning Chinese can increase a student's career mobility, and enhance his understanding and appreciation of Chinese culture. Moreover, knowledge of languages is a necessity for both professional and private citizens who wish to succeed and fulfill their potential in modern life. It is, in any case, China's duty to provide help, support, and resources to Chinese language-learners in any country adapting Chinese language courses into its school curriculum.

Pragmatic benefits aside, the promotion of Chinese language education may have a weightier role to play in light of a fast-changing global environment subject to turbulent geopolitical and social change. The world we encounter today is similar to the vision of English writer George Orwell in his novel 1984, though not in his portrayal of a frightening, universal super-state. However, his other predictions on human living standards have

proven to be accurate by the intriguing advances of communications technology in the last two decades. Of these advances, television and the Internet have had the greatest impact upon every aspect of society. The concept of the global village—in terms of education, culture, economy, and way of life—has become more tangible than ever. The benefits of this smaller world are many, but they also come with a hidden cache of insidious and divisive trends. Technological advances relentlessly accelerate the processes of modernization, industrialization, and globalization everywhere. However, globalization leads too readily to extreme cultural and economic homogenization, and thus, loss of identity and individuality. Then, there is modernization, which too easily becomes a kind of Westernization predominated by purely capitalistic ideals. Societies that embrace industrialization to excess often fall prey to the pitfalls of utilitarianism. Second language education, and specifically Teaching Chinese as a Second Language, is perhaps an excellent counterbalance to these negative universal tendencies. Indeed, such programs are a culturally empowering embodiment of multiculturalism which in turn, embodies the very spirit of the democratic ideal.

The benefits of the promotion of Chinese language education in other countries is best demonstrated by the Canadian government's policies of multiculturalism and Second Language Education; specifically, by its implementation of TCSL, Teaching Chinese as a Second Language.

Canada is a country of immigrants. Its federal policy actively promotes immigration. Every year about 200,000 people, that is about 17% of its total population of 29 million people, arrive in Canada with their own distinct languages and cultures. In order to preserve these diverse heritages, and in doing so, create a cultural mosaic and a more harmonious society, the Canadian federal policies of Bilingualism and Multiculturalism acknowledge the value of languages other than English and French, and emphasize aims such as combating racism, cross-cultural awareness, respect and appreciation.

To this end, numerous multilingual and multicultural newspapers, and television and radio stations have been federally licensed, and regulations and practices of Second Language Education and of International Language Education have been implemented at the provincial level. Thus, English and French are taught as official first languages, and all others are taught as second languages. The term "second language" is used because no language can be considered "foreign" in a country that has official policies of Bilingualism and Multiculturalism. Anyone is entitled to learn any language as his second language. Statistics show that there are currently 7 second languages, including Mandarin Chinese, offered as classes in the public school setting, and more than 45 languages are offered in heritage or international language programs outside the public school setting.

In British Columbia, for example, the provincial language education policy requires all students to take a second language in grades 5 through 8. Curricula for second language courses offered in grades 9 through 12 are ministry-authorized. Since 1996, formal curricula and academic credits for Mandarin, Japanese, German, Punjabi, and Spanish

have been developed. Varying formats have been implemented for province-wide examinations of second languages. At present, in the Greater Vancouver area, for example, every year there are roughly 4000 university and college students and 2,500 primary and secondary school students taking Chinese credit courses, 1,200 students taking the Provincial Mandarin Challenge Examination, 1500 students taking the Provincial Mandarin Examination, and more than 20,000 students enrolled in a Chinese language program outside the public school system.

The Canadian Second Language Education policies are strongly based on the conviction that the integration of such a program into basic education will provide students with more effective communication skills and pave the way for greater educational and career opportunities. It will help to develop deeper appreciation and respect for the identity, rights, and values of others, and engender confidence and self-esteem. Second Language Education provides students with the ability and opportunity to explore interdisciplinary areas of study (such as history, geography, music, art, literature, business, and political affairs); and thus, it serves to extend their capacities for creative and critical thought, and to deepen their insights into life.

Under the policies of Multiculturalism and Second Language Education, Canada has gradually become a strong and prosperous modern country, one that is respected as an unremitting guardian of international peace. Canadian society is uniquely harmonious with its diversity of cultures. Vancouver, BC has been chosen many times as the best city in the world to live in. In short, there can be no question as to the positive impact of Second Language Education to the growth and development of youth in BC and across Canada.

In closing, to help delineate the new role and advance the function of the China National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in a multicultural world, I offer six suggestions:

An adjustment in mentality from TCFL to TCSL which will translate in practice to changes in policies, measures, theories, methods, and textbooks.

Creation of a Universal Chinese Language Website with electronic textbooks and teaching resources free for use or download by any person or institute for Chinese language teachers and learners worldwide.

Establishment of a Chinese Language Education Satellite Channel providing instructional TCSL programs in all levels and in various formats.

The immediate implementation of a Universal Chinese Language Proficiency Index in order to provide a standardized examination tool integrating various kinds of examinations for common reference.

The establishment of an International TCSL Database, in nature and function similar to

that of the Canadian National TCSL Database (<http://www.canadiantcslassociation.ca>), in order to provide accurate information and reference to the world.

The establishment of a World TCSL Association, comprised of representatives of TCSL Associations from every country in the world, in order to better integrate all international TCSL affairs under one umbrella.

Finally, I again congratulate China's timely insight in calling this conference and wish good prospects to come for TCSL.