



中外语言应用研究丛书

国际语境中的 汉语教学： 挑战与创新

(英文版)

Teaching and Learning
Chinese
in International
Contexts:
Issues and Innovations

主 编 ● 刘国强 周少明

副主编 ● 徐 慧

Editors: Guoqiang Liu and Shaoming Zhou

Associate Editor: Hui Xu



上海交通大学出版社
SHANGHAI JIAO TONG UNIVERSITY PRESS



中外语言应用研究丛书

国际语境中的 汉语教学： 挑战与创新

(英文版)

Teaching and Learning
Chinese
in International
Contexts:
Issues and Innovations

主 编 ● 刘国强 周少明

副主编 ● 徐 慧

Editors: Guoqiang Liu and Shaoming Zhou

Associate Editor: Hui Xu



上海交通大学出版社
SHANGHAI JIAO TONG UNIVERSITY PRESS

内容提要

本书是一部关于对外汉语教学的学术专著,主要包括国际汉语教学生态、有效学习环境的创建和教学法的重新构想,多元文化环境下的教学分班、课堂语言的设计和汉语学习中的情感影响,还有汉语教学中文化及电影的运用、汉语声调和句法的教学,以及口译与笔译在汉语教学中的应用。

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

国际语境中的汉语教学:挑战与创新:英文版 / 刘国强,周少明主编. — 上海:上海交通大学出版社, 2020.11

ISBN 978-7-313-24017-0

I. ①国… II. ①刘… ②周… III. ①汉语-对外汉语教学-教学研究-文集-英文 IV. ①H195.3-53

中国版本图书馆CIP数据核字(2020)第213480号

国际语境中的汉语教学:挑战与创新(英文版)

GUOJI YUJING ZHONG DE HANYU JIAOXUE; TIAOZHAN YU CHUANGXIN (YINGWEN BAN)

主 编:刘国强 周少明

出版发行:上海交通大学出版社

邮政编码:200030

印 刷:当纳利(上海)信息技术有限公司

开 本:710mm×1000mm 1/16

字 数:420千字

版 次:2020年11月第1版

书 号:ISBN 978-7-313-24017-0

定 价:78.00元

地 址:上海市番禺路951号

电 话:021-64071208

经 销:全国新华书店

印 张:21

印 次:2020年11月第1次印刷

版权所有 侵权必究

告 读 者:如发现本书有印装质量问题请与印刷厂质量科联系

联系电话:021-31011198

前 言

在一次高校汉语教师聚会上的闲聊中,一位教师犹犹豫豫地说出了当时脑海中闪现的一个想法,问大家有没有可能出一本书,在座的各写一篇文章,谈谈国外(例如在澳大利亚)汉语教学某个方面的体会。这位教师没想到的是,他的提议引起了大家的热烈响应。聚会上在座的都是资深教师,具有丰富的教学经验,是他们所在领域的专家和学者。有些教师大部分职业生涯都在从事汉语二语教学,教学时间长达三十年。

大家都觉得也该对我们的职业生涯作出一些经验总结了,并一致认为这会提供一个良好的机会,让每位作者检视自己的教学工作。

本书所含文章的主题范围广泛,有国际汉语教学生态、有效学习环境的创建和教学法的重新构想,也有多元文化环境下的教学分班、课堂语言的设计和汉语学习中的情感影响,还有汉语教学中文化及电影的运用、汉语声调和句法的教学,以及口译与笔译在汉语教学中的应用。具体内容及分工如下:

- 1 国际语境中的汉语教学(刘国强 钱丰齐)
- 2 为澳大利亚高校中文学习者创建优化教学环境(陈申 梁妍 薛馨华)
- 3 知识架构与教学法重建:澳大利亚语境中的中文教学(沈惠忠)
- 4 维多利亚州多元文化环境下的中文教学分班(周少明 曾若男)
- 5 汉语二语初学者课堂语言使用设计(冯耀华 吴英成)
- 6 情感与汉语二语学习(陈雯 刘国强)
- 7 汉语二语课堂中的文学导入(倪锦丹)
- 8 在电影语言中学习:人文学科对中国国际学生批判性思维影响的个案研究(周宇行 周少明)
- 9 驱动——渐进式汉字教学法初探(郭珍谊 张辰 杜立平)
- 10 高校初级汉语基础句型教学法探究(王世经 杜立平)
- 11 捷足先登:汉语二语入门声调教学再探(王世经)

- 12 澳大利亚汉英口译教学中的学生自我效能感之探析(刘海蓝 徐志长
黄慧)
- 13 汉英口译教学中新技术的实践与创新(刘海蓝)
- 14 跨语实践与翻译教学——本科翻译课程教学案例分析(单春明)

本书作者在写作中合作得非常愉快。书中的文章都经过了同行盲审程序,每位作者都参与了此程序,审阅了其他作者的文章。在此,我们对各位作者的敬业精神和投入写作与审稿的努力表示感谢。

上海交通大学出版社鼎力支持本书的出版,提供了编辑指导和出版进程监督,我们在此表示衷心的感谢。

刘国强 周少明 徐慧

PREFACE

At a gathering of university teachers of Chinese language, a teacher, unsure of himself, casually and hesitantly aired an idea about publishing a book on teaching and learning of Chinese in an international context such as Australia. To his surprise, his idea started an earnest discussion.

There was an agreement among us that this would be a good opportunity for each of the contributors to reflect on our work as a teacher, and each of us could concentrate on one issue or aspect of Chinese teaching. Teachers at this gathering were mostly experienced teachers of Chinese. Some of us have been in the profession for a long time and some have been teaching Chinese for almost 30 years. It is time for us to look back at what we have been doing.

We hope this book is of some interest to people who teach Chinese, people who are training to be teachers of Chinese and people who would like to be teachers of Chinese in the international contexts.

This book contains fourteen articles on topics of a fairly wide range, from ecology of Chinese teaching and learning in an international context, creation of a productive learning environment and pedagogical re-imagining, to language class students placement, classroom language use and emotions in Chinese language learning, to culture and cinema in teaching Chinese, to teaching tones, Chinese characters and syntax, and to interpreting and translating as part of Chinese learning.

The process of writing this book has been a pleasant one of cooperation among contributors. Chapters in this book have all gone through a blind review process, in which every contributor has reviewed one or two chapters written by other contributors. We would like to acknowledge the effort and hard work every contributor has put into writing and reviewing chapters of this book.

We would like to thank Shanghai Jiao Tong University Press for publishing this book, and to Xin Yan of the Press who has overseen the publishing process of this book.

Guoqiang Liu, Shaoming Zhou and Hui Xu

CONTENTS

1	Teaching Chinese in an International Context	<i>Guoqiang Liu and Fengqi Qian</i>	1
2	Creating a Productive Environment for Learners of Chinese in Australian Universities	<i>Shen Chen , Yan Liang and Helena Hing Wa Sit</i>	23
3	Knowledge Framework and Pedagogical Re-imagining: Teaching and Learning Chinese in the Australian Context	<i>Huizhong Shen</i>	55
4	Language Class Students Placement in Victoria’s Multi-cultural Society	<i>Shaoming Zhou and Ruonan Zeng</i>	68
5	Classroom Language Use in CL2 Teaching: Designing from a Learner’s Perspective	<i>Yeow Wah Fong and Yeng Seng Goh</i>	92
6	Emotions and Chinese Language Learning	<i>Wen Chen and Guoqiang Liu</i>	109
7	Enhancing Cultural Awareness via Literature in Chinese Second Language Education	<i>Jindan Ni</i>	136
8	Learning in the Language of Cinema: A Case Study of the Impact of Humanities Subjects on Chinese International Students’ Critical Thinking Ability	<i>Yuxing Zhou and Shaoming Zhou</i>	151
9	Driving, Progressing and Consolidating Chinese-Character-Writing Teaching Method: An Exploration	<i>Zhenyi Guo , Chen Zhang and Liping Du</i>	174

10	Syntactic Approaches to Tertiary Total Beginner Students of Chinese	<i>Shijing Wang and Liping Du</i>	197
11	Cracking the Tones	<i>Shijing Wang</i>	216
12	Exploring Students' Self-Efficacy in a Chinese-English Interpreting Class in Australia	<i>Hailan Paulsen, Zhichang Xu and Hui Huang</i>	241
13	Reform and Innovation in the Use of Technology in Chinese Interpreting Teaching	<i>Hailan Paulsen</i>	280
14	Translation in the Space of Translanguaging: A Case Study of Undergraduate Translation Teaching	<i>Chunming Shan</i>	312

1 Teaching Chinese in an International Context

Guoqiang Liu and Fengqi Qian

Abstract: The beginning of the new millennium ushered in a period of boom as far as learning and teaching of Chinese language is concerned. This article examines some issues encountered in various areas in the Chinese language teaching and learning ecology of Australia, which is an international context for the teaching and learning of Chinese in an environment where the Chinese language evolved from a community language to a language of acquisition in the formal education. Categorisation of Chinese learners in Australia is far from being able to provide an accurate picture of what types of learners they are, because categories are by nature loosely defined; but generally there are three groups of learners: second language learners, background speakers and native speakers. In the area of language education planning, there is a need to address the challenge of learning Chinese characters and its resulting disincentive effect for learners from European language backgrounds, and a lack of continuity in the transition from primary school to secondary school curriculum and subject offerings. At the university level, grouping of different types of learners in classes need to be improved so that each type of students can feel encouraged to learn Chinese and be able to learn it more effectively; intensive in-country Chinese programs of different models are invaluable to participants in terms of learning the language while living among native speakers of the target language and expanding their horizon in their personal development in a new culture; and recently needs of international students from Chinese backgrounds had to be included in course design and teaching. Chinese has become an international language given the great number of speakers in almost every corner of the world, and in this context, effective Chinese teaching and learning should be focused on localisation of teaching, including textbooks and other teaching

materials, so that learners can consider Chinese more relevant to them and they can live the language.

Keywords: Chinese language education; language policy and planning; internalisation and localisation; learner categories; language maintenance

1. Introduction

The beginning of the new millennium ushered in a period of boom as far as learning and teaching of Chinese language is concerned. Rapid economic development in China ignited an intense and worldwide interest in China in understanding this country, its culture and its people. As a result, people around the world became keen on learning the Chinese language, and schools and universities started to offer Chinese courses to meet this demand. Australia was no exception. This contrasted a situation in which the numbers of learners of other languages were declining in Australia, such as Indonesian and some European languages. This article examines some issues encountered in various areas in the Chinese language teaching and learning ecology of Australia, which is an international context for the teaching and learning of Chinese in an environment where Chinese is a community language and in fact a foreign language to some learners who speak English as their first language with no or very little contact with Chinese. Specifically, it will look at the backdrop of language policy and planning (LPP) of Chinese teaching in Australia, challenges in internationalisation and localisation of Chinese teaching, the types of learners of the Chinese language in Australia, issues relating to Chinese language education planning, and Chinese teaching at the university level.

2. The Backdrop of Language Policy and Planning

From the mid-1980s, Australia started a process of ambitious and explicit language policy making, which was unusual among English-speaking countries for whom the dominant position of English in the world acts as a brake or disincentive against large-scale investments in second language education. More like a global “basic skill” than a foreign language (Graddol, 2006), English has been expanding as a global language. This status represents a constraint on the widespread commitment to language planning involving teaching of several languages. An analysis of the European pattern of bilingual and multilingual

proficiency drawn from the regular assessments of multiple language skills conducted by the European Commission as part of the Euro-barometer studies (Lo Bianco, 2001) manifests this clearly.

Australia is uniquely located in geography, its population size is small, and economically it has been increasingly dependent on non-English speaking Asian countries. Therefore, Australian public policy came to an appreciation of cultural, linguistic and educational consequences of the burgeoning economic growth of Asia much earlier than European and American countries (ASC, 1988). Australia increasingly sourced immigrants from Asia, the bulk of its inbound tourism also came from newly prosperous Asian countries, and it needed to negotiate its geo-political security with its Asian neighbours. During that time Australian public officials started to talk of Asia as “the region”, or “our region” (Garnaut, 1989) and there were narratives whether and how Australia could be described as an “Asian nation” (Fitzgerald, 1997).

The combined and cumulative effect of these political, economic and demographic forces led to a kind of national cultural makeover. The effects and policies leaning to closer ties with Asia did not necessarily mean cultural or demographic Asianisation, and an important movement in favour of this consequence emerged. Its education version, often referred to as “Asia-literacy” (meaning “development of a knowledge about Asia”), often featured in a series of strategic policy reports (ALLC, 1994; Lo Bianco, 2004), and those leading the charge included key national figures from the areas of diplomacy, trade, security and politics. Different from other language planning movements in Australia’s recent LPP history, the move to strongly favour and provide strong finance support to Asian languages and studies in preference to others was top-down and elite-led (Lo Bianco and Wickert, 2001). It should be noted that there was not much opposition to these language education-planning changes during the mid to late 1990s, although the broader policy of integration with Asia met with strong opposition in Australia.

It is obvious that the mainstreaming and prioritization of Asian language studies were seen widely as a useful skill supporting the national interest. However, the collective effect was the adoption of nation-changing principles, from 1994 to 2002, delivered by a rare level of cooperation and shared vision among state and national governments, accompanied by a push to identify strongly with regional institutions. By finding an instrumental rationale for the mass teaching of second languages, the Asian languages experience of Australia,

with its successes and failures, is an instructive case study in acquisition language education planning. In a short period of time, key Asian languages, which were marginal in education provision, became the most widely taught second or foreign languages at all levels of education, replacing the European languages which had been historically dominant in education. At one stage, Australia recorded the highest levels of Japanese teaching of any country in the world (ASAA, 2002, Japan Foundation, 2003; Rudd, 1994).

During this period of time, the Asia-literacy movement invoked a wide and deep cultural change, as well as causing a change in the sphere of acquisition LPP, bringing the society into a different kind of consciousness. This trend later waned (ASAA, 2002) and it was considered as overblown. However, the predominance of interest and commitment for Asian languages and for studies of Asia cultures in schools remained. This experience, and the preceding LPP priority which favoured multiculturalism as the basis for making choices about what languages to teach (Clyne, 2005; Lo Bianco and Wickert, 2001), has produced both intensity and fluctuation to Australian LPP. The continual shifting and changing served to weaken the sustained planning and investment of resources that required in serious long-term educational LPP.

As mentioned before, opting for Asia was a policy movement led by social elites, thus this was a top-down imposition of national interest priorities. Like any top-down imposition of policy, it was removed from the realities of population demographics and tended to favour diplomacy, trade, strategic security and nation-to-nation rationales and emphasised foreign country “otherness”, even, at its extremes, recirculating the orientalist idea of the inscrutable other (Singh, 2001). A case in point is the Japanese language, whose social fortunes and esteem was transformed dramatically. Japanese was once regarded as the linguistic code of a threatening “other”, but it became the prestige linguistic code of a “neighbour” (Lo Bianco, 2003; Marriot, Neustupny, and Spence-Brown, 1994). It shows that discourse planning such as the deliberate naming and framing of a topic or issue in a persuasive rhetoric intended to influence policy making interacts with the traditional concepts of LPP (Lo Bianco, 2005). The political and policy discourse that produced so called “Asia literacy” as an acceptable policy idea is essential to the realisation of the concrete actions in education that are usually what is analysed as LPP. For Asian languages this rested on persuading the Australian population that of its interdependence with the Asian region, and specifically on a program of economic regionalism, but

one premised not on multicultural or local presence of these languages, but of difference discrete though interacting nations. Over time, this tidy assumption has eroded; for the Chinese language, this had always been problematic.

Over a long period dating back to the gold rush days in the 1850s, Chinese has been one of “Australian” languages. It is used locally, and has developed in the sphere of *retention and recovery* in LPP (Smith, et al., 1993). As such, the presence of Chinese as an education activity since the mid-19th century has essentially been the concern of domestic speaker populations, divorced from formal policy and motivated by internal and local objectives (Jupp, 1998). Though retaining and recovering Chinese language skills was international as well, this was very much restricted to the connections between family groupings linking the immigrants’ new living environment with their country of origin. In the airstream of the deliberate Asia literacy policies of LPP in recent years, Chinese has been heavily promoted and has now entered the sphere of acquisition planning. It is clear that over two decades or so Chinese has experienced a rapid expansion, which is likely to draw on multiple reasons and justifications combining local and extra-national purposes.

3. Learner Categories

School systems will be discussed in this section where the focus will be on issues arising from typical classification of students into either “foreign language learners” or “second language learners”. At the tertiary level, the impact of increasing numbers of “background speakers” on curriculum will also be looked at. Background speakers are a term used by Australian teachers of languages for a particular category of students and in this case it means both Australian-born speakers of Chinese and international students on temporary study visas, though in proficiency terms these two groups are quite different.

Discussions of the complexity of language education across several spheres of LPP activity can be seen in many terms used to describe the different types of learners, settings, methods and motivations for which these learners choose to or their parents ask them to study Chinese. The vocabulary of language in education planning therefore signals the kinds of issues and challenges that educators are faced with and engage in debate. Chinese teaching in Australia constantly categorises learners, some of the main salient features in the Australian context include:

- (1) *citizenship status*: local or international; temporary, itinerant or permanent;
- (2) *national background*: (European) Australian; PRC Chinese; non-PRC Chinese (e.g. Malaysian and Singaporean); non-Chinese Asian; non-Australian European or North American; and Asian Australian;
- (3) *ethnic background*: European-Australian, Asian, Chinese-Australian; Chinese; other-Australian;
- (4) *language skills*: passive (or receptive) knowledge of Modern Standard Chinese (MSC) or active knowledge of MSC; passive or active knowledge of characters and tones; passive or active knowledge of other Chinese dialects; monolingual English speakers; bilingual speakers of non-Chinese languages plus English.

The complex identity formations and sociolinguistics that the above classifications imply in diverse ways interact with the learners' acquisition of Chinese, their motivations and interests, and their purposes for learning Chinese. Categories by nature are fairly loosely defined. For efficiency, the focus of discussion here is restricted to the learners of Chinese in the three main groups that teachers and education administrators typically identify: second language learners, background speakers and native speakers.

Second language learners are those students who commence Chinese study without any prior knowledge of any Chinese dialect. Most of these learners were born in Australia and the majority of them speak English as their first language, though some have home backgrounds and skills in other languages. Mostly second language learners are completely beginners in relation to Chinese, having no prior experience in learning the language.

Background speakers are those who speak some dialect or variety of Chinese at home, such as Cantonese or Shanghaiese (they happen to be two Chinese dialects other than Mandarin with the largest groups of speakers in Australia). An unknown proportion of these learners has some familiarity with Chinese characters but there are no reliable statistics of the number nor of their level of proficiency.

International mother-tongue speaking students are typically learners of Chinese origin or those who speak MSC fluently, and local students who are fully proficient in Chinese, sometimes referred to as “native speakers”.

4. Issues Relating to Chinese Language Education Planning

This section focuses on two challenging aspects in the teaching of Chinese: ① curriculum design in response to student needs in relation to learning Chinese characters; and ② issues facing curriculum designers in various settings of Chinese education.

Chinese Characters

Learners of Chinese often remark that Chinese is difficult to learn, especially for speakers of European languages. They single out the Chinese writing system called Chinese characters as the most difficult part to the Chinese language to learn. Characters also represent a major challenge for students who come from an ethnic Chinese background with exposure to a Chinese dialect at home and who study Chinese as a community language. Chinese characters inevitably require more substantial and sustained learning for students with no prior learning or exposure to the Chinese language, spoken or written. Parents of these students often report that their children complain about how difficulty it is for them to learn Chinese, and it is always a struggle for parents to encourage and persuade them to persevere with Chinese learning.

Demonstrating the complexity of issues of background and unproblematised assumptions about ethnicity, nationality and language was a debate featured in letters and opinion pieces in Singapore's main newspaper, *The Straits Times*, during December 2003. The debate was prompted by a letter published on 1 December from mother of a student who had been transferred to a school in the United States because of the requirement for bilingualism, parodied as a "*Chinese language exile*" by staff writer Kelvin Tong. Tong wrote that among "the usual laments" about education is the regular claim that "Mandarin is difficult to learn" while several letters counter-pose the argument that "All roads are fast leading to China". With deep and globally significant changes taking place in the distribution of economic power and human capital across the Asia Pacific region, the debates underscore the relevance of the ecology of Australian Chinese language discussed above. Although research shows that it does indeed take speakers of European languages significantly longer time to achieve set levels of proficiency in MSC than cognate languages, and that the bulk of this extra time is accounted for by needing to learn characters, China's rise and its

increasing prominence ensure that the demand for Chinese is booming, unless significant impacts brought by major events in international politics and international relations interrupt this boom (the impacts of COVID-19 and events following it remain to be seen).

The difference in learning times and levels of proficiency expected to achieve in standard university courses across different languages has not adequately been addressed in curriculum policy. However, at the level of secondary education, different categories of languages and specifies different expected outcomes are acknowledged. For instance, dividing languages according to their orthographic systems, roman alphabetic, non-roman alphabetic and character-based (VCAA, 2004), the Victorian Essential Learning Standards (VELS) explicitly acknowledges the greater time investment required for Chinese, Japanese and Korean as compared to French, German, Italian and Spanish in the first category, and Arabic, Greek or Russian in the second category. At each assessment level, the two dimensions of the languages, (i) communicating in the language and (ii) intercultural knowledge and language awareness, are graded with differential expectations according to the classification of the particular language.

Chinese programs in schools in Australia have always seen the tasks of learning to speak the language and learning at least to read Chinese characters as intimately linked. Typically, students need to learn several hundred characters by the end of their high school study of Chinese as a second language. Under the VELS, for instance, the requirement is 415 basic characters and 32 special terms or proper nouns (VCAA, 2004: 14-17).

Unlike English, which generates an infinite number of words and constructs with mere 26 letters, a person needs to have a vocabulary of thousands of Chinese characters in order to read successfully. While people brought up in an environment in which they have exposure to Chinese characters all the time can see components which constitute individual characters and come to consider learning them as not necessarily onerous, and despite the debates reported above in Singapore, users of languages based on alphabets tend to see characters as essentially unrelated, each requiring separate and individual acquisition. The psychological effect can be substantial and learners usually view learning as a huge endeavour. At both school and university levels, one such effect has been to discourage second language learners (Hannas, 1997: 125) and to generate a view that for comparable levels of investment learners achieve lower levels of

reward compared with languages that are cognates of English, or which at least share its orthographic conventions. This is despite many devices and aids, both printed and digital, that demonstrate or display inter-character connections and roots and seek to make more intuitive the design inspiration for individual characters.

There has been a thinking in response to this continuing challenge among some teachers and curriculum designers. They ask whether spoken Chinese based learning only can be taught, and even whether character learning can be done away with at some levels of schooling altogether. Other options include the use of a form of Romanisation (*pinyin*) of Chinese, either in a transitional period or for an extended period. On the other hand, people question what the effects of focusing only on verbal Chinese communication without acquiring literacy skills will have on the rates of acquisition and ultimate levels of proficiency and the nature of this proficiency that is attainable.

Some argue that second language learning should initially be focused only on what is likely to produce the greatest degree of success for the largest number of learners. The basis of this reasoning is that practical communication skills, rather than book knowledge, should be focused on for young learners who need to develop basic communication skills, i.e. listening and speaking, at the initial stages of their Chinese learning.

This view is a longstanding one among many Chinese linguistics scholars even for background learners. When advising Chinese background parents in the United States to encourage their children to retain and improve their Chinese, a distinguished scholar in Chinese linguistics (Chao, 1976) cautioned that learning to speak Chinese was fundamental, and prior to, and indeed more important than, devoting extensive time to the study and correct formation of Chinese characters. For Chao this would render Chinese “...as a living experience” (Chao, 1976: 236). For some teachers and curriculum designers, a delay in formal study of Chinese characters until spoken communication is established is preferable for learners recovering or maintaining their previous skills in MSC, for dialect speakers acquiring standard forms and most importantly for beginning, non-background students.

Once characters are removed from the learning task, the relatively straightforward nature of spoken Chinese grammar, with no tense marking, aspect or case marking, i.e. lacking “inflectional morphology” (Norman, 1988: 159), and the shared word order with English (SVO) transform Chinese from