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A Learner Corpus Study of L2 Lexical Development of Chinese Resultative Verb Compounds[1]

Jie Zhang（张洁）
University of Oklahoma

Abstract The Chinese resultative verb compounds (RVCs) are an important yet challenging compound structure for second language (L2) Chinese learners. However, there is little understanding about how the lexical features of RVCs emerge and develop in L2 Chinese learners. Drawing on written essays in an L2 Chinese learner corpus, this study investigated the lexical development of RVCs in frequency, component versatility, and accuracy. The findings revealed that learners acquired RVCs in three phases: the whole-word formula phase, the emergence of compound awareness phase, and the solidified compound awareness and lexical development phase. The study found that different types of RVCs demonstrated divergent patterns of development and posed different acquisition difficulties for learners, thus calling for different pedagogical approaches.

Keywords: learner corpus; lexical development; Chinese resultative verb compounds; frequency; component versatility; accuracy

摘要 汉语结果复合动词是汉语作为第二外语习得中既重要又富有挑战的一种复合词结构。然而目前对这一重要词汇结构习得过程的认识非常有限。通过考察汉语学习者作文语料库，本文从复合词词频、成分多样性和准确性三方面研究了汉语作为第二外语的学习者在习得结果复合动词时的词汇发展过程。研究发现结果复合动词的习得分为三个阶段：整词公式阶段、复合词意识产生阶段、复合词意识固定和词汇知识发展阶段。研究还发现不同种类的结果复合动词的发展规律各有特点，从而对学习者提出不同的挑战，需要采用相应的教学对策。

关键词：学习者语料库；词汇发展；汉语结果复合动词；词频；成分多样性；准确性

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1. Introduction

The main method of word formation in Chinese is through compounds which are words composed of two or more morphemes (Schmitt, 2000; Bauer, 2003). It has been shown that compound words make up more than 70% of the Chinese vocabulary, with over 65% two-morpheme disyllabic compounds and about 10% three-morphemic compounds (Institute of Language Teaching and Research, 1986; Yip, 2000; Chen et al., 2008). Compounding is a highly productive means of word formation in Chinese; a single Chinese morpheme appears in an average of 17 compound words (Yin, 1984; Yuan & Huang, 1998; Chen et al., 2009). Resultative verb compounds (RVCs) constitute an important type of compounds in Chinese. As a highly compact form of conveying the resultative meaning, the RVC is composed of two morphemes: a verb indicting an action and a complement indicating the result of the action. Based on the kinds of result they convey, RVCs can be further classified into three types: directional verb compounds (DVCs), completive verb compounds (RVCCs), and result-state verb compounds (RVCSs).

RVCs pose a challenge to English-speaking second language (L2) learners of Chinese due to their morphological, grammatical, and semantic complexities, and due to the typological differences between English and Chinese in expressing resultative meaning. Previous research has mainly focused on either how L2 Chinese learners acquire the complement morpheme of DVCs (e.g., Yang, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; S. Wu, 2011) or the interlanguage lexical errors of compound words (e.g., Xing, 2003; Zhang, 2008). These studies have shed light on our understanding of some aspects of the acquisition of RVCs. Nevertheless, how the lexical features of RVCs emerge and develop in L2 Chinese learners has not been investigated. In addition, there is little understanding of the sources of difficulty that different types of RVCs pose to L2 Chinese learners.

Using a learner corpus, this study explored L2 Chinese learners' acquisition of RVCs through examining its development in frequency, component versatility, and accuracy. The learner corpus consisted of 784 essays written by L2 learners of Chinese at three different levels of proficiency: intermediate low, intermediate high, and advanced. A collection of 100 essays written by native speakers of Chinese was used as the benchmark for gauging learners' language use. This study revealed that learners acquired RVCs in three phases: the whole-word formula phase, the emergence of compound awareness phase, and the solidified compound awareness and lexical development phase. The different types of RVCs demonstrated divergent patterns of development and posed different

acquisition difficulties for learners, thus calling for different pedagogical approaches.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Resulative Verb Compounds

An RVC is a verb compound composed of two morphemes with a main verb indicating an action and a complement indicating the result of the action. In (1) to express the result of washing a shirt until clean in English, one needs to put the adjective 'clean' after the noun phrase 'my shirt'. In Chinese, the adjective *gan-jing* 'clean' immediately follows the verb *xi* 'wash'. The main verb *xi* 'wash' and the complement adjective *gan-jing* 'clean' form a verb compound indicating the result of the action. The main verb of a RVC is conventionally referred to as V1, and the complement as V2.

(1)

English:	I	washed	my shirt	clean.
		Verb	Noun Phrase	Adjective
Chinese:	我洗干净了我的衬衫。			
	wo	xi gan-jing	le	wode chenshan.
	I	wash clean	Perfective	my shirt
		RVC		Noun Phrase

RVCs are a highly productive type of compounds in Chinese, exhibiting various possible constellations of verbs and complements. The same verb can take different complements to denote various resultative meanings (see examples in 2a); likewise, the same complement can take a wide range of verbs that describe different actions (see examples in 2b).

(2)

a 看：看见 / 看完 / 看上 / 看穿 / 看烦
kan: kan jian / kan wan / kan shang / kan chuan / kan fan
kan: look perceive / look finish / look ascend / look penetrate / look bored
'kan: to see / to finish reading or watching / to develop a liking for something / to see through / to be tired of seeing someone or something'

b 到：走到 / 看到 / 听到 / 想到 / 买到
dao: zou dao / kan dao / ting dao / xiang dao / mai dao
arrive: walk arrive / look arrive / listen arrive / think arrive / buy arrive
'arrive: to walk to / to see / to hear / to think of / to have bought something'

RVCs are conventionally categorized into three types based on the kinds of result they respectively denote: directional verb compounds (DVCs), completive resultative verb compounds (RVCCs), and result-state resultative verb compounds (RVCSs) (Chao, 1968; Li & Thompson, 1981; Smith, 1990, 1997; Packard, 2000; Xiao & McEnery, 2004). Table 1 lists the definitions of each type of RVCs with examples.

Table 1 Definitions and examples of the three types of RVCs

RVC Type	Definition	Example
Directional verb compounds (DVCs)	Composed of an action verb denoting displacement and a directional complement denoting the direction of the action	出去，带来，走下来，跑过去，搬进去
Completive resultative verb compounds (RVCCs)	Composed of an action verb and a complement denoting the completion or termination of the action	读完，写好，看见，做好，听到
Result-state resultative verb compounds (RVCSs)	Composed of an action verb and a complement denoting the resulting state of an action	看懂，打破，变坏，洗干净，听清楚

The different types of RVCs manifest varying degrees of productivity and compositionality especially in their V2s. The V2s of DVCs constitute a very productive group of morphemes. It is a closed set of 24 directional verbs further divided into simple directional verbs (such as *shang* 'ascend', *xia* 'descend', *lai* 'come', *qu* 'go') and compound directional verbs (such as *shang-lai* 'ascend-come', *guo-qu* 'cross-go'). Although scholars hold divergent opinions on what qualifies as a V2 of RVCCs, the general consensus is that it is a closed set of six to ten verbs, including *dao* 'arrive', *jian* 'perceive', *wan* 'finish', *zhu* 'hold on' and so on. The V2s of RVCCs are productive and can be combined with a

wide range of verbs. Unlike the other two types, the V2s of RVCSs are an open class; most adjectives and some verbs can occupy the V2 slot of RVCSs. It is also the least productive among the three.

2.2. L2 Acquisition of Resultative Verb Compounds

Much research has been paid to the identification, categorization, and description of the grammatical features of RVCs, which provides us with an important theoretical basis for studying the L2 acquisition of RVCs. Compared with the rich theoretical discussion, there is a dearth of empirical research that looks into the L2 lexical development of RVCs. In the following I will review the few existing studies of the L2 lexical acquisition of RVCs.

It has been experimentally shown that RVCs are probably the most challenging category of compounds for L2 Chinese learners. In his investigation of intermediate-level American- and Japanese-speaking learners' acquisition of five major types of Chinese compounds (coordinate, modifier-head, verb-object, subject-predicate, and verb-complement), Yu (2003) found that certain types of Chinese compounds are more difficult than others to acquire. While the American- and Japanese-speaking learners showed different accuracy orders in compound-recognition and compound-production, both groups had the lowest accuracy rates in verb-complement compounds (i.e. RVCs), suggesting that RVCs are probably the most challenging type of compounds for L2 Chinese learners. Regrettably, Yu did not delve into what specific difficulties learners encountered in acquiring RVCs.

An area of research that has drawn much attention is the L2 acquisition of the V2 morpheme of DVCs, the directional complements (DCs). Studies have attempted to identify the acquisition sequence of DCs (Qian, 1997; Yang, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; S. Wu, 2011) and the interlanguage errors related to DCs (L. Wu, 2002; S. Wu, 2011). Using data from a learner corpus of written essays by students who studied Chinese in China, Yang (2003a, 2003b, 2004) conducted a series of studies on the acquisition sequence of DCs by American, Korean and Japanese learners at the novice to advanced low proficiency levels. He found a similar acquisition sequence in the learners despite their different L1s: (1) verb + simple DC (literal meaning), (2) verb + simple DC (extended meaning), (3) verb + compound DC (literal meaning), (4) 'verb + simple DC (extended meaning)' with an object, (5) verb + DC1 + object + DC2 (literal meaning), (6) verb + DC1 + object + DC2 (extended meaning), (7) verb + compound DC (extended meaning), (8) verb + compound DC (extended meaning) + object, (9) 'verb + simple DC (literal meaning)' with an object, (10) verb + compound DC (literal meaning) + object. Wu (2011) investigated L2 Chinese learners' and Chinese heritage

learners' knowledge of DCs who took Chinese in an American university. Using a controlled composition task and a picture-cued written task, Wu proposed the following accuracy order in acquiring DCs: (1) simple DCs, (2) complex DCs, (3) simple DCs with Object NPs (Noun Phrases), (4) simple DCs with Place NPs, (5) complex DCs with Object NPs, and (6) complex DCs with Place NPs. She reported that the acquisition difficulties for learners were mainly due to the syntactic complexity of the DCs and the typological characteristics of Chinese as a serial-verb language. The dual function of DCs as both path satellites and independent verbs was found to be particularly challenging for English-speaking learners.

L2 Chinese vocabulary research on interlanguage errors, although not specifically addressing RVCs, has provided us with important insights concerning what kind of lexical errors tend to occur with L2 Chinese learners. Drawing data from a learner corpus, Xing (2003) investigated L2 Chinese learners' lexical errors with compound words. He summarized four error types: (1) coining a compound that does not exist in Chinese, (2) substituting a morpheme of a compound with a semantically similar one, (3) mis-using, over-using, or under-using a morpheme, and (4) misplacing a morpheme. Xing speculated that (1) L2 Chinese learners were able to develop morphological awareness of compounds, including its structure and semantic relationships, and (2) learners may have employed two strategies in acquiring compounds, namely, composing compounds using morphemes and acquiring compounds as a chunk, with the former being the dominant one. In a book-length treatment of Chinese interlanguage lexical errors, Zhang (2008) analyzed English-speaking L2 Chinese learners' use of verbs, and identified several new verb-related error types, including confusion of synonymous words, collocational errors, rhythm-related errors, and stylistics-related errors. An important observation of Zhang's study is that a large portion of the easily confused words for L2 Chinese learners do not necessarily have semantic relevance, in other words, these easily confused words for learners may not be synonyms in Chinese. Learners tend to confuse them due to such factors as orthographical similarities or first language (L1) transfer.

Current literature on the L2 acquisition of RVCs has only looked at specific aspects of a certain type of RVCs. Nevertheless, how frequency, component versatility, and accuracy of RVCs develop among L2 Chinese learners has not been systematically investigated. Little understanding has been gained on how the different types of RVCs develop similarly or differently among learners. In addition, no research has compared NSs' use of RVCs against that of learners. The current study, using a learner corpus approach, aims to fill the identified research gap by systematically investigating how the lexical proficiency with RVCs as a whole

and its individual types is developed in L2 Chinese learners across proficiency levels.

2.3. *Measuring L2 Lexical Development of RVCs*

Lexical knowledge is an indispensable aspect of L2 development. It is also a rich and complex construct (Schmitt, 2010). On the scale of lexical units ranging from words to phrases, compound words belong to multiword unit (MWU) (Alexander, 1984; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Moon, 1997; Schmitt, 2000). According to Nation and Webb (2011), knowledge of a MWU entails mastery of its form, meaning, and use. Knowing the MWU form, one is able to recognize and produce the correct spoken and written forms of the unit. Knowing the meaning of a MWU entails the ability to match the form with the meaning, and form appropriate word associations. Knowledge of MWU use entails the awareness of its grammatical functions, collocations, and constraints on its use.

A large body of literature has proposed various means of measuring lexical knowledge (e.g., Ure, 1971; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998; Read, 2000; Malvern et al., 2004; Lu, 2012). According to Read (2000), lexical richness as a multidimensional feature of learners' language use consists of four interrelated components: lexical variation, sophistication, density, and accuracy. Lexical variation, also called lexical diversity (Malvern et al., 2004), is the variety of different words rather than a limited number of words used repetitively. Measures of lexical variation include the number of different words and the type-token ratio (TTR), that is, the ratio of the number of word types to the number of tokens in a text (Templin, 1957). Lexical sophistication refers to the use of low-frequency and advanced words rather than general, everyday vocabulary. It can be calculated by the ratio of sophisticated lexical words to the total number of lexical words (Linnarud, 1986). Lexical density is the ratio of lexical words to the total number of words in a text. Lexical accuracy is learner's use of words free of errors.

The above-mentioned lexical measures have mainly focused on individual words as the unit of analysis. There is a need for research that develops lexical measures specifically for compound words. In the case of RVCs, only a handful of studies on L1 Chinese children's acquisition have touched on this topic. Chen (2008), in her examination of Chinese children's production and comprehension of verb compounds, used the frequency (both type and token) and accuracy measures. Deng (2010), in her investigation of L1 Mandarin Chinese children's acquisition of RVCs, used a third measure of component versatility to quantitatively evaluate Chinese children's ability of combining V1 with other V2s and

vice versa to form new RVCs, calculated as the average number of different V1s with which a V2 co-occurs.

In my examination of the L2 lexical development of RVCs I used the measures of frequency, component versatility, and accuracy. Frequency is operationalized as the absolute frequency of RVC tokens and types (defined as unique RVCs). Following Deng (2010), I calculated component versatility as the V1/V2 type ratios by dividing the number of V1 types by that of the V2 types to arrive at an average number of V1 types that a V2 co-occurs with. I also used the raw numbers of different V1s and V2s as indicators of component versatility. Accuracy was operationalized as the number of lexically appropriate uses of RVCs divided by the total occurrence of RVCs. An RVC error was identified as an inappropriate lexical choice of V1, V2, or the whole compound in the immediate context of a learner's language use.

3. The Study

3.1. Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What characterizes L2 Chinese learners' RVC frequency of use? How is the characterization compared with that of native Chinese speakers?
2. What characterizes L2 Chinese learners' RVC component versatility development? How is the characterization compared with that of native Chinese speakers?
3. What characterizes L2 Chinese learners' RVC accuracy development?

3.2. Data

The learner corpus consisted of 784 essays (approximately 227,528 Chinese characters) written by L2 Chinese learners at the intermediate low level (ILL), intermediate high level (IHL), and advanced level (AL). A collection of 100 essays (approximately 87,320 Chinese characters) written by native Chinese speakers was used as benchmark for gauging learners' language use. Table 2 summarizes the composition of the corpus and the size of each component.

Table 2 Composition of corpus by proficiency level, number, length of texts

Group by Proficiency Level	Number of Essays	Average Length (Characters)	Total Number of Tokens	Total Number of Types	Total Size (Characters)
ILL	409	231	45,615	3,232	94,461
IHL	204	326	32,137	2,486	66,408
AL	171	390	41,603	4,354	66,659
NS	100	873	62,552	9,014	87,320
Total	884	455	181,907	19,086	314,848

The ILL component was collected from students enrolled in a third-semester Chinese language course in the fall semester of 2009 at a comprehensive North American university. The class met five times a week for 50-minute sessions. The IHL component was collected from students enrolled in a fifth-semester Chinese language course during the same time at the same university. The class met three times a week for 50-minute sessions. The students were mostly English-speaking second- or third-year undergraduate students between the ages of 18 and 22. The curricula of both courses required students to write a short essay at the end of each unit, approximately every other week. Most writing topics were based on the textbooks with a few supplemental topics provided by the instructors. All but one essay in the data was assigned as homework, so students could use reference materials and take as much time as necessary. After obtaining consent from the students, the handwritten essays were collected from the instructors and photo-copied before being graded. Over the 15-week period of data collection, 57 students in the ILL group produced 409 essays, with an average of 231 Chinese characters per essay. 30 students in the IHL group produced 204 essays, with an average of 326 characters per essay. Appropriate for their proficiency levels, the ILL and IHL groups mainly wrote descriptive and narrative essays.

Because it was infeasible to gather a comparable group of learners in the same institution that could represent advanced proficiency, I extracted the advanced learners' data from the HSK *Dongtai Zuowen Yuliaoku*[2] (HSK Dynamic Composition Corpus) Version 1.1, an online open-source corpus maintained by the International Research and Development Center for Chinese Education at the Beijing Language and Culture University in China. The HSK (Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi 'Chinese Proficiency Test') is a national standardized test designed to assess the proficiency of non-native speakers. Test takers of the 'HSK Advanced' are required to have completed 3,000 contact hours of Chinese instruction with a

[2] http://nlp.blcu.edu.cn

receptive knowledge of 5,000-8,000 Chinese words. The HSK Advanced test has a writing section requiring test takers to write an essay on a given topic within 30 minutes. The HSK Dynamic Composition Corpus collected 11,569 essays (totaling approximately 4.24 million Chinese characters) written by L2 Chinese learners who took the "HSK Advanced" test from 1992 to 2005. Each essay was annotated with a header that provided the test taker's information (including nationality, gender, HSK score, and certificate awarded). To keep the background of the test takers comparable to that of the ILL and IHL groups, I retrieved a total of 171 essays, with 101 written by American test takers and 70 by Canadian test takers. These essays had an average length of 390 characters, the longest of the three learner groups, covering narrative, descriptive, and argumentative genres.

The native speaker (NS) component was a collection of essays written by Chinese high school students taking or preparing for the National Matriculation Test, a high-stakes standardized test in China (Ross & Wang, 2010). The essays were downloaded from the official educational websites *Zhongguo Jiaoyu Zaixian*[3] (China Education Online) and *Renminwang*[4] (People's Daily Online). Because the NS essays were longer in length, I collected 100 essays to achieve a size comparable to those of the learners' data. Several genres were represented in the essays, including argumentative, expository, and narrative. This collection of NS essays provided a reasonable benchmark against which to compare learners' RVC use, as they were produced by students in institutional settings covering similar genres of writing.

Admittedly, the AL and NS data were collected under different writing conditions from the ILL and IHL data, one in timed high-stakes examinations and the other as untimed take-home assignments. However the different writing conditions did not affect the examination of learners' RVC usage. First, RVCs are highly frequent in Chinese language. Comparing data in five parallel corpora, Xiao and McEnery (2004) reported that RVCs are the most productive type of completive aspect markers, the frequency of which is much higher than the other aspect markers of *le*, *guo*, and reduplication (see Xiao and McEnery, 2004, p. 159 for statistics). Due to its obligatory nature and high frequency, it is unlikely for the distribution of RVCs to suffer from excessive influences of writing conditions. Second, the large scale of the learner corpus of this study, the wide variety of topics and different genres of writing represented ensure that students had sufficient opportunities to use a wide variety of RVCs, alleviating the topic and genre effects.

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[3] http://gaokao.eol.cn/

[4] http://edu.people.com.cn/GB/gaokao/

3.3. Procedure

All essays were word-segmented and part-of-speech (POS) tagged using the Chinese Lexical Analysis System developed by the Institute of Computing Technology at the Chinese Academy of Sciences[5]. Coding of RVCs was conducted manually because the Chinese Lexical Analysis System did not automatically tag RVCs. Two coders, the author and another graduate student in Applied Linguistics, coded all instances of RVCs identified in the corpus. Before the actual coding, the two coders individually analyzed 40 essays (10 from each group) based on the coding scheme developed in this study (also see Zhang, 2011), then discussed and revised the coding. The inter-rater reliability for the raters was Kappa = 0.945 ($p < 0.001$). They then each coded half of the data independently. The coding consisted of two procedures. The tags that mark the three types of RVCs <DVC>, <RVCC> and <RVCS> were first applied. As a second procedure, inappropriate uses of RVCs, as well as missing RVCs in obligatory occasions, were identified and given an error tag. After the two coding procedures, the two coders checked all tagging, discussed differences, and resolved disagreement through discussions. After annotation, a freeware concordance program AntConc 3.2.2.1 (Anthony, 2011) was used to retrieve all instances of RVCs and instances of missing RVCs in obligatory occasions. The extracted concordance lines were exported to Excel spreadsheets for further analysis.

4. Results

4.1. RVC Frequency

Table 3 summarizes the token and type frequencies of RVCs produced by the learners and NSs. The absolute frequencies were also normalized by every 1,000 Chinese characters. For the absolute frequency measures, chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether significant differences existed among the ILL, IHL, and NS groups, and post hoc analyses with the Marascuilo procedure were used to compare each pair of groups.

As a category of verb compounds, the frequencies of RVC tokens and types seem to be valid measures for the lexical development of RVCs. Both the token and type measures of RVCs showed a linear positive relationship to the learners' language proficiency and time learning the language, and by the advanced level, learners were able to use a comparable amount of RVCs to the NSs. By token measure, the IHL, AL, and NS groups used significantly more RVC tokens than the ILL

[5] http://www.ictclas.org

learners (χ^2 = 171.130, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 115.786, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 113.816, $p < 0.0001$, respectively). Significant differences were also found between the NS and the IHL groups (χ^2 = 25.150, $p < 0.0001$) and between the AL and IHL groups (χ^2 = 11.883, $p < 0.001$). No significant difference in token frequencies existed between the NS and AL groups. The type measure showed the same distribution. The IHL, AL, and NS groups produced significantly more RVC types than the ILL learners (χ^2 = 82.991, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 41.742, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 43.760, $p < 0.0001$, respectively). Significant differences were also found between the NS and IHL groups (χ^2 = 27.987, $p < 0.0001$) and between the AL and IHL groups (χ^2 = 17.136, $p < 0.001$). No significant difference in type frequencies was observed between the NS and AL groups.

Table 3 Frequencies by intermediate low, intermediate high, advanced learners, and native speakers

	ILL	IHL	AL	NS
RVC tokens	477	741	805	1,131
RVC tokens per 1,000 Chinese characters	5.05	11.16	12.08	12.95
RVC types	121	249	307	590
RVC types per 1,000 Chinese characters	1.28	3.75	4.61	6.76

When viewed as individual categories, however, the three types of RVCs represented different distributional patterns in the learners' and NSs' data. Table 4 summarizes the token and type frequencies of the different types of RVCs in the corpus. By both token and type measures, DVCs were the most frequent type of RVCs in the corpus, followed by RVCCs, and RVCSs which had the lowest frequencies in both learner and NS data. For DVCs, an overall increase in both token and type measures were observed, except that the AL learners produced slightly fewer DVC tokens than the IHL learners. By token measure, the IHL, AL, and NS groups produced significantly more DVC tokens than the ILL group (χ^2 = 93.512, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 31.709, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 128.762, $p < 0.0001$, respectively). Significant differences were also found between the NS and AL groups (χ^2 = 23.653, $p < 0.0001$) and between the IHL and AL groups (χ^2 = 22.510, $p < 0.0001$). No significant difference existed between the IHL and NS groups. By

type measure, the IHL, AL, and NS groups used significantly more DVC types than the ILL group (χ^2 = 85.127, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 42.950, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 64.936, $p < 0.0001$, respectively). The NS group used significantly more DVC types than the IHL group (χ^2 = 23.128, $p < 0.0001$) and the AL group used significantly more DVC types than the IHL group (χ^2 = 20.130, $p < 0.001$). No significant difference was observed between the NS and AL groups.

For RVCCs, a steady increase was observed among the learners, but the NS group, contrary to what might have been anticipated, produced fewer RVCC tokens than either the IHL or AL learners, suggesting that the token frequency distribution may not be an effective measure for the lexical development of RVCCs. By token measure, the IHL and AL groups used significantly more RVCC tokens than the ILL group (χ^2 = 53.270, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 50.611, $p < 0.0001$); the IHL and AL groups produced significantly more RVCCs than the NS group (χ^2 = 58.412, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 56.781, $p < 0.0001$). The type measure showed a roughly linear progression with language proficiency; however due to relatively low frequencies of RVCC types, no between-group differences were observed.

For RVCSs, a clear linear progression with language proficiency was observed in both token and type measures. The IHL, AL, and NS groups used significantly more RVCS tokens than the ILL group (χ^2 = 23.626, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 36.870, $p < 0.0001$; χ^2 = 40.043, $p < 0.0001$, respectively). Due to the relatively low frequencies of RVCS tokens in the learner corpus, no significant differences existed between the AL and IHL groups, the NS and IHL groups, or the NS and AL groups. A steady increase in the number of RVCS types was observed, but there were no significant between-group differences.

Table 4 Frequencies of the three types of RVCs produced by the intermediate low learners, intermediate high learners, advanced learners, and native speakers

	ILL	IHL	AL	NS
DVC Tokens	211	355	317	656
(Tokens per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(2.23)	(3.76)	(4.76)	(7.51)
DVC Types	51	164	174	361
(Types per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(0.54)	(2.47)	(2.61)	(4.13)
RVCC Tokens	203	286	346	276
(Tokens per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(2.15)	(4.31)	(5.19)	(3.16)
RVCC Types	43	36	68	109

(Types per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(0.46)	(0.54)	(1.02)	(1.25)
RVCS Tokens	63	100	142	199
(Tokens per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(0.67)	(1.51)	(2.13)	(2.28)
RVCS Types	27	49	65	120
(Types per 1,000 Chinese characters)	(0.29)	(0.74)	(0.98)	(1.37)

4.2. RVC Component Versatility

Table 5 tabulates the absolute number of V1 types and V2 types, and the V1/V2 type ratio of RVCs broken down into respective types. An overall positive relationship was observed in the learners between the number of different V1s and V2s and their overall language proficiency. DVCs exhibited the highest component versatility with the most numbers of V1s across the board, high V1/V2 type ratios, and a strong tendency to increase across proficiency levels. RVCCs are the second. Despite that RVCCs had the least number of V2s, the number of V1s produced by the learners grew markedly resulting in high V1/V2 type ratios. RVCSs, consistent with its relatively lower frequencies, had the least V1 types in all groups, but due to the open class of its V2s, RVCSs had markedly more V2 types than DVCs or RVCCs.

Table 5 Component versatility of the three types of RVCs by the number of V1 types, V2 types, and the V1/V2 type ratio

	ILL	IHL	AL	NS
DVC V1 types	38	95	129	264
DVC V2 types	12	24	20	21
DVC V1/V2 type ratio	3.17	3.96	6.45	12.57
RVCC V1 types	34	32	58	96
RVCC V2 types	7	7	7	7
RVCC V1/V2 type ratio	4.86	4.57	8.29	13.71
RVCS V1 types	23	41	46	91
RVCS V2 types	12	20	33	54
RVCS V1/V2 type ratio	1.92	2.05	1.39	1.69

Note. V1/V2 type ratio = Average number of V1s that a V2 co-occurs with

A concordance examination revealed a clear tendency of the ILL learners to produce recurrent high-frequency RVCs. Many instances of RVCs produced by learners at this level closely mirrored textbook usages in the lexical forms and in the linguistic contexts where the compounds occurred. In contrast, the IHL learners produced a good number of new RVCs that were not found in the ILL's writing. Some examples are *san chulai* 'scatter exit-come' (spill out), *sai jin* 'fill en-

ter' (stuff into), *dong qi-lai* 'move rise-come' (start moving), *chui cheng* 'blow achieve' (blow into), *lianxi dao* 'contact arrive' (successfully contact someone), **kaidao wan* 'operate finish'[6] (finish the operation), *lin huai* 'drench bad' (be badly drenched), *ca ganjing* 'wipe clean' (wipe clean), *shuai sui* 'throw crushed' (break into pieces). In addition, the IHL learners also used familiar RVCs in new linguistic contexts that were not in the textbook. Here is an example. In (3) the learner used a familiar RVCS *ting dong* (understand through listening) in a new context of people understanding birds' sounds. This provides evidence of a developing understanding of the compositionality of RVCs and an emerging capacity to form new compounds using existing morphological and lexical knowledge. Component versatility further developed in the AL group who produced an increasing number of less-frequent compounds denoting actions of specific manners and abstract concepts. Some examples include: *hu chu* 'breathe exit' (exhale), *ta jin* 'step enter' (step into), *gongxian chu* 'contribute exit' (contribute), *yanbian cheng* 'evolve achieve' (evolve into), *huiyi dao* 'recall arrive' (recall), *sheji dao* 'involve arrive' (involve), and *kan jin* 'look finished' (exhaust).

(3) 我想用我的笔描绘叽叽喳喳的小鸟，让大家都能听懂它们的话。
Wo xiang yong wode bi miaohui jijizhazhade xiaoniao, rang dajia dou neng ting dong tamende hua.
I want use my pen draw chirping bird, let people all can listen understand their word
'I want to use my pen to draw the chirping bird, so that everybody can understand what they are saying.'

A clear gap in component versatility existed between the learners' and the NSs' use of RVCs. The NSs' production of V1s and V2s exceeded all learner groups for all three types. To take V1 as an illustration, the NSs produced 264 different V1s for DVCs, more than twice that of the AL group and almost 7 times that of the ILL group. They produced 96 different V1s in RVCCs, almost twice that of the AL group and three times that of the ILL or IHL group. They used 91 different V1s in RVCSs, about twice that of the IHL or AL group and over three times that of the ILL group. The V1/V2 type ratio of DVCs and RVCCs for the NSs highlighted a clear difference between the NSs and all learner groups. In addition, the NSs demonstrated a much larger lexical inventory than the learners. It was especially the case for RVCSs. The NSs produced the following RVCSs that were not represented in the learners' writings: *hua po* 'scratch broken' (lac-

[6] The asterisk * indicates an ungrammatical usage.

erate), *zhuo shang* 灼伤 'burn hurt' (burn), *kan dan* 'look light' (see things lightly), *ran hong* 'dye red' (dye something red), *lei jin* 'strangle tight' (tighten), *chuan tou* 'penetrate pass' (penetrate), *zhan shi* 'moisten wet' (wet), *ba chu* 'pull remove' (eradicate), and *wang chuan* 'look penetrate' (see things through).

4.3. RVC Accuracy

Table 6 summarizes the number of lexical deviations and accuracy rates of RVCs as a whole and its different types. The averaged accuracy of RVCs started at 76% in the ILL group, dropped to its lowest at 74% in the IHL group, and markedly increased to 87% in the AL group. On the other hand, different types of RVCs exhibited quite different patterns in development of lexical accuracy. The accuracy rates of DVCs manifested a U-shaped development with the IHL group at the bottom of the curve. Those of RVCCs portrayed a linear positive progression, ending with a moderate increase to 87% in AL learners. In contrast, a trend close to regression was observed in the accuracy of RVCSs. It started with a fairly high rate of 86% in the ILL group, dropped to its lowest at 74% in the IHL group, and improved to only 77% in the AL group. Due to the sampling of the data, it remains unclear whether or not and at what point the accuracy of RVCSs will improve to a higher rate.

Table 6 Number of deviations and accuracy rates of the three types of RVCs across learner groups

	ILL	IHL	AL
DVC deviations	36	100	28
Accuracy rate of DVCs	83%	72%	91%
RVCC deviations	71	70	46
Accuracy rate of RVCCs	65%	76%	87%
RVCS deviations	9	26	33
Accuracy rate of RVCSs	86%	74%	77%
Total RVC deviations	116	196	107
Accuracy rate of RVCs (Averaged)	76%	74%	87%

Table 7 summarizes the types and percentages of deviations by learners across proficiency levels. The categories of deviations were operationalized as the omission, misuse, or overuse of a component or a compound. A closer examination of the RVC deviations revealed that the three types posed different learning difficulties for learners, and that learners at different proficiency levels tend-

ed to commit errors of different natures.

Table 7 Misuse, omission, and overuse of the three types of RVCs produced by learners across proficiency levels

	ILL	IHL	AL
DVC misuse	20 (56%)	46 (46%)	20 (72%)
DVC omission	14 (39%)	47 (47%)	4 (14%)
DVC overuse	2 (5%)	7 (7%)	4 (14%)
RVCC misuse	15 (21%)	11 (16%)	23 (50%)
RVCC omission	45 (63%)	49 (70%)	18 (39%)
RVCC overuse	11 (16%)	10 (14%)	5 (11%)
RVCS misuse	7 (78%)	18 (69%)	23 (70%)
RVCS omission	2 (22%)	6 (23%)	10 (30%)
RVCS overuse	0	2 (8%)	0

For DVCs, the omission and misuse of V2 constitute the two most frequent types of errors. The ILL and IHL learners tended to omit the V2 of DVCs. Some examples are *hui* 'return' in place of *hui dao* 'return arrive' (return), *ban* 'move' in place of *ban qu* 'move go' (move to), *li* 'leave' in place of *li kai* 'leave open' (leave), and *chu* 'exit' in place of *chu qu* 'exit go' (go out). Such V2 omission errors can be attributed to the typological differences between English and Chinese. As a satellite-framed language, English draws its speakers' attention more to the manner than to the path of an action (Talmy, 1991, 2000). In contrast, Chinese, an equipollently-framed language, tends to give equal weight to both the manner and path of an action (Slobin, 2004, 2006). The AL learners tended to choose an inappropriate V2. The most problematic pairs were *lai* 'come' and *qu* 'go' as deictic expressions, and *lai* 'come', *qu* 'go', *dao* 'arrive' as complements denoting the path of an action. For instance, the AL learners used *hui lai* 'return come' (return) instead of *hui dao* 'return arrive' (return to), *zou lai* 'walk come' (walk over) instead of *zou dao* 'walk arrive' (walk to) to describe a displacement movement that profiles an end point. The findings of this study are in agreement with S. Wu's (2011) postulation that the misuse of V2 seems to be due to the complexity of the target language forms. For the same physical movement and spatial configuration, Chinese employs different linguistic representations from English that may be odd to English-speaking learners. The fact that the AL learners committed very few omission errors but a large number of misuse errors suggest that choosing the lexically appropriate V2 constitutes a persistent area of difficulty in acquiring DVCs.

For RVCCs, the omission of V2 is prevalent among the ILL and IHL learn-

ers. The complement verb *dao* 'arrive' was the most frequently omitted, as in *kan dao* 'look arrive' (see), *zhao dao* 'search arrive' (find), *ting dao* 'listen arrive' (hear), *xue dao* 'study arrive' (learn), *jian dao* 'perceive arrive' (see), *mai dao* 'buy arrive' (buy), and *zuo dao* 'do arrive' (achieve). The omission of *dao*, along with several other RVCC complements, can be explained by the distinctive morphological and semantic properties and L2 Chinese learners' processing of these complements. Although it is morphologically obligatory in forming a RVCC, instead of denoting a transparent lexical meaning, the V2 *dao* is semantically opaque with a grammatical meaning. Take the RVCC *kan dao* 'look arrive' (see) as an example. The V1 *kan* denotes the concrete action while the V2 *dao* contributes to the aspectual meaning of the event. According to L2 morphology acquisition studies, lexical encodings are processed before grammatical ones, and semantic encodings are processed before formal ones (VanPatten, 2002). If this is the case, L2 Chinese learners are more likely to notice and process the morpheme *kan* before the morpheme *dao* in the initial stage of exposure to RVCCs when their attention is mainly occupied with meaning processing. Similarly, in language production it is more likely for learners to produce the semantically salient V1 while omitting the semantically less salient V2 when the morphological composition of RVCCs has not been solidified in learners' interlanguage. Another factor leading to the omission errors is the L1 transfer of seemingly synonymous lexical forms. For instance, the synonymous pair 'look' and 'see' in English corresponds to *kan* 'look' (look) and *kan dao* / *kan jian* 'look arrive / look perceive' (see) in Chinese. Learners may have learned the lexical form *kan* 'look' and presumably treated it as the equivalent of both 'look' and 'see', without understanding that *kan* 'look' as a verb denotes an activity and the compound *kan dao / kan jian* 'look arrive / look perceive' denotes a completed action.

The most typical RVCS deviations are misuse of V1, V2, or the compound. It could be either an inappropriate lexical choice of the component, or a mismatch between the compound and the immediate linguistic context. Several factors lead to the high percentage of RVCS misuse. First it has to do with the unique morphological feature of RVCSs. Unlike DVCs or RVCCs which only has one open-class morpheme (V1), RVCSs have two: both V1 and V2 are open-class in that most verbs and some adjectives can take the V1 or V2 slot. The two open-class slots of RVCSs double learners' chances of committing errors because they have to select semantically appropriate and conventionally acceptable forms to combine into an RVCS. The second reason is attributed to the massive number of synonymous one-morpheme words in Chinese that can serve as candidates of V1 or V2. Often constrained by their lexical repertoire, learners tend to use general verbs instead of specific concrete verbs. For example, an IHL

learner produced a compound *nong ganjing* 'make clean' instead of *ca ganjing* 'wipe clean' for wiping a pear. An AL learner used *na zou* 'carry leave' to describe an abstract concept that a person's freedom was taken away. Lastly, learners' misuse of RVCSs is an indication of their developing mastery of the individual RVC, its meaning associations, and collocational preferences. As stated earlier, lexical knowledge consists of form, meaning, and use. Mastery of an individual RVCS is dependent on knowledge of both of its components and the combined form. Therefore, limited or incomplete lexical knowledge may lead to an unacceptable formation of an RVCS.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study examined the L2 lexical development of Chinese RVCs by analyzing data from a corpus of 784 essays written by L2 Chinese learners at the intermediate low, intermediate high, and advanced levels, and by comparing learner and NS language production. The findings provide important insights into understanding L2 Chinese learners' acquisition pattern of RVCs, the challenges that different types of RVCs pose for L2 Chinese learners, and instructional strategies to teach RVCs.

The study suggests that L2 Chinese learners acquire RVCs in three distinct phases. The first phase of initial exposure to RVCs is characterized by whole-word formula processing. In this phase, as represented by the ILL group in this study, learners process RVCs as non-compositional wholes, similar to single-morpheme words. They acquire RVCs as non-compositional chunks with fixed meanings. Their production of RVCs is mainly memorized bits of formulas from the input they receive, manifest in the limited RVCs under command yet high accuracy of those forms. The second phase is the emergence of compound awareness when they develop an initial sense of compounds as a morphological process but the notion of compounding has not been solidified in their L2 grammar system. In this phase, as represented by the IHL group here, learners develop an emergent and immature understanding of the compositionality of RVCs, and coin compounds to meet their communicative needs. Learners' compound awareness has not been firmly established and morphological accuracy can be sacrificed as long as the immediate need of conveying meaning is satisfied. As a result, learners' choices of RVCs at this stage tend to focus on the semantically salient component while ignoring the semantically less salient one. The third phase is when compound awareness is solidified (note that learner variability in the rate of development and degree of solidification always exists.) and development in the width, depth, and accuracy of lexical knowledge comes

to the fore of acquisition. In this phase, as represented by the AL group here, learners make far fewer omission errors, suggestive of a mature understanding of the compositionality of RVCs. Rather, they mainly struggle with the usage of individual RVCs, especially in determining the appropriate collocations, the semantic and stylistic constraints on the use of particular RVCs, and the differences between near-synonymous RVCs sharing a same morpheme.

The three-phase acquisition pattern of RVCs evidenced in the learner corpus data sheds important light on the timing of RVC instruction for learners at different learning stages. In the initial phase, instruction should focus on the most commonly used RVCs and should include awareness-raising discussions on the compositional nature of RVCs. As soon as learners' awareness of the compositionality of compound words and their capacity for creating original compounds begins to emerge, learners will benefit from explicit instruction on the compositionality of RVCs and on forming verb compounds followed by abundant practice opportunities for learners to reinforce their understanding. At the advanced level, instruction needs to be centered on helping learners expand their lexical repertoire of verb compounds, distinguishing synonymous RVCs, and building collocational knowledge of frequently-used RVCs.

Another finding of this study is that the unique lexical and semantic properties of the different types of RVCs have an effect on the acquisition of each type (Zhang, 2011). To start with, different types of RVCs have different distributions in Chinese. DVCs are the most frequent, followed by RVCCs, RVCSs being the least frequent. From a pedagogical perspective, it is sensible to allocate instruction time in a way that reflects the frequency distribution of RVCs with more attention paid to the more frequently occurring ones. More importantly, due to their unique lexical properties, the three types of RVCs pose different learning difficulties for learners. DVCs are difficult for two reasons: the typological differences of English and Chinese, and the complexity of the target form itself. RVCCs are difficult because learners tend to neglect the V2 due to its semantic opaqueness or the L1 transfer of seemingly synonymous lexical forms. RVCSs are difficult mostly because learners often lack the lexical knowledge to make an appropriate choice of V1 or V2 for the immediate linguistic context.

Based on the findings, I suggest that each type of RVCs be pedagogically approached differently so as to facilitate learners' understanding and mastery of each type. For DVCs, it is suggested that the conceptual structures of individual DCs that schematize their directional and extended meanings be mapped out and presented systematically to students. Instruction of RVCCs should explicitly teach the grammatical functions of V2s and the meaning they contribute to the compounds, so as to increase their chance of being noticed and processed by

learners. For RVCSs, among less experienced learners, a lexical approach is preferred that helps them more effectively expand lexical knowledge and morpheme inventory; advanced learners will benefit from more fine-grained distinctions between synonymous or easily confusing RVCS pairs.

6. Limitations and Future Directions

There are several limitations to this study. First, the advanced learners' data were not collected from the same cohort of students that constituted the intermediate groups. It would be desirable to collect the AL data from a group of learners in a comprehensive American university that uses a similar curriculum to that of the ILL and IHL groups. Second, this study exclusively examined learners' written production. Examining the use of RVCs in natural oral communication will provide us with a more comprehensive picture of the acquisition of this challenging verb compound structure in Chinese. Third, as a usage-based approach to examining learner language use, learner corpus research mainly examines the production of learner language. Research using different methodologies, such as controlled experiments, is expected to directly probe into the processing of RVCs at different learning stages. Finally, this study only looks at one type of verb compounds. Studies that explore the acquisition of other types of compounds are needed to provide us with a better understanding about how compounds, the primary means of word formation in Chinese, are acquired by L2 Chinese learners, and what the challenges are in this endeavor.

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The Gap in the Use of Lexical Cohesive Devices in Writing between Native Chinese Speakers and Second Language Users

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Abstract This study investigates differences in the use of lexical cohesive devices in the writing of native and second language speakers of Chinese using a corpus-based approach. The research employs two small-scale corpora: a corpus of 50 native-speaker Chinese texts written for the *National College Entrance Examination* (NCEE) and a corpus of 50 second language user texts written for the *HSK* (the Chinese language proficiency test). In comparing the analyses of the two small-scale corpora, the findings show a low frequency in the use of important lexical devices by second language writers, devices such as the superordinate and hyponym relation, simple paraphrase, and complex paraphrase. In a bond density analysis (Hoey, 1991), the ratio of bond-forming to Non-bond forming sentences in the HSK texts is much lower than that in the NCEE texts. These findings suggest that learners of Chinese have a lower level of lexical competence and lack the capacity to create adequate and effective cohesive links across the text.
Keywords: lexical cohesion; lexical competence; learners of Chinese; corpus

摘要：本文运用语料库语言学的研究方法，对中国学生以及汉语留学生所写的作文进行了对比分析，以期发现他们在使用词汇衔接手段上的差异。本研究使用两个小型语料库，一个是由 50 篇中国学生高考作文组成的 NCEE 语料库，另一个是由 50 篇汉语留学生 HSK 作文组成的 HSK 语料库。通过对这两个小型语料库的统计分析，笔者发现汉语留学生使用一些重要词汇衔接手段的频率很低，这些手段包括上下义重复、简单与复杂重述。从构成衔接点的密度分析来看，在 HSK 语料库中，能形成衔接点的句子数量与不能形成衔接点的句子数量的比例明显低于在 NCEE 中的比例。这些结果表明汉语留学生的词汇能力偏低，缺少在篇章中构建恰当、有效的词汇衔接的技能。

关键词：词汇衔接；词汇能力；汉语留学生；语料库

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1. Introduction

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion refers to "relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as a text" (p. 4). Cohesion can be achieved either by grammatical (*reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction*) or lexical links within or between sentences, links often referred to as cohesive ties. Adopting this taxonomy, grammatical cohesion has been given much attention and hence is widely researched in the field of linguistics and language teaching. Hoey (1991), however, claims that the approach of Halliday and Hasan (1976) does not recognize that lexical cohesion is "the single most important form of cohesive tie", and, therefore, further explores the role lexical cohesion plays in text-organizing in English non-narrative texts. On the basis of an extensive study of lexical cohesion in non-narrative English text, Hoey (1991) argues that lexical repetition is more important than any other type of cohesion, especially when forming cohesive ties over large spans of text. The study of the role that lexical repetition plays in textual organization is, therefore, valuable, not only to theoretical and descriptive linguistics, but also to language teaching, in particular, second or foreign language teaching. Drawing on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) and Hoey's (1991) analytical frameworks, a large number of studies have been conducted to explore the role of lexical cohesion in the organization of text to inform the teaching of English as Second Language (ESL) (Connor, 1984; Chiu, 1993; Chen, 2007; Jin, 2008; Kafes, 2012; Harman, 2013). For instance, Chen (2007) investigates the features of lexical cohesion in Chinese college EFL writing. Her findings suggest that Chinese college students tend to overuse exact repetition in their writing, and that this may be due to both teachers' and students' ignorance of the notion of lexical cohesion or the variety of lexical cohesive devices available for creating textual cohesion (p. 51). In relation to pedagogical implications, Harman (2013) finds that focusing on explicit lexical cohesive devices, such as repetition, taxonomic categorization, and synonyms in writing instruction "can help students to develop more lexically dense and advanced-level writing" (p. 137). These explorations have laid a solid foundation for the further investigation of how lexical repetition contributes to the creation of coherence within a text.

Despite this body of research, there is still room for further investigation of cohesion within other research frameworks and methodologies, such as contrastive rhetoric, second language acquisition, and corpus linguistics, and within contexts of the teaching of languages other than English, such as Chinese. While most recent studies of cohesive patterns, lexical errors and teaching strategies of writing have investigated English text, with ESL learners and ESL teaching as

their research objects, few research studies have explored patterns of lexical cohesion in other languages, such as in Chinese non-narrative text. According to Peng's (2004) survey, among 540 articles (published in academic journals in China from 1994-2005), which discuss the teaching of the creation and processing of text, 503 studies focus on the teaching of foreign language text (the vast majority are concerned with English text), while only 37 consider either the structure or teaching of Chinese text. This survey finding suggests that the study of cohesion in the Chinese language may still be at a preliminary stage, and consequently, as yet may be unable to reveal fully the role that cohesive devices play in Chinese texts. Similarly, in the latest literature in the field of *Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language* (henceforth TCFL), the majority of the studies that discuss cohesion focus on grammatical cohesion (Chen, 2005; Huang, 2005; Liu, 2005; Xiao, 2001; Yang, 2004; Zhao, 2005a & 2005 b), and only a few focus directly or indirectly on the use of lexical cohesion in learner writing in *Chinese as a Foreign Language* (henceforth CFL) (Cao, 2002; Sun, 2007; Tian, 2006). In her discussion of the influence of text linguistics on vocabulary teaching, Cao (2002) points out that teaching vocabulary in rich context can greatly enhance instructional effectiveness and efficiency. She states that the starting point of teaching vocabulary is to provide CFL learners with authentic and natural context, because it is the context that defines the meaning of a word. As part of the context, the meaning of a word is determined by co-textual factors, such as the style of writing, the genre, the syntax and the semantic relations that the word forms with other co-occurring words. Using context to demonstrate lexical links formed between words and sentences is also one of the most effective ways to develop learners' awareness of creating lexical cohesion in their writing. When investigating the use of cohesive devices in CFL learner writing, Tian (2006) found that CFL learners tend to rely heavily on the use of simple lexical repetition to create cohesion within text, and that they have considerable difficulty with employing synonyms and antonyms to create lexical links between sentences. Tian points out that this is largely due to a lack of the use of synonyms and antonyms in teaching materials. She, therefore, suggests that textbooks or teaching resources need to provide CFL learners with exposure to a variety of lexical cohesive devices such as synonyms, antonyms, superordinate and hyponyms in text so that they can learn and imitate how to use these devices in their own writing. She also notes that many textbooks fail to provide learners with theme-related word lists. For example, when teaching 大学教育, words that relate to this topic, such as 高校, 教师, 教授, 学费, 就业 should also be introduced into the context so that CFL learners can learn these words more effectively by creating associations and semantic connections among topic-related vocabulary. Although these stud-

ies shed light on the use of lexical cohesion in CFL learners' writing and provide some teaching suggestions for improvement, they are still far from being at the stage of providing a quantitative description of the use of cohesion in Chinese language. Furthermore, few of these studies seek to identify the problems CFL learners face in employing lexical cohesive devices appropriately in writing and to suggest remedial measures for them.

To begin with, these investigations have not, so far, provided detailed and systematic descriptions of lexical patterns because of the methodologies adopted, and the amount and types of data employed. For example, in his book *Discourse Cohesion and Coherence*, Hu (1994) examines various types of lexical cohesion in Chinese text. Hu's work is probably the first systematic description of lexical devices that contribute to the organization of Chinese text. Drawing upon Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model, and based on structural features of Chinese language, Hu categorizes cohesive links into four types: referential, structural, logical and lexical. He further points out that the cohesive relation also play an important role in other functional domains, such as transitivity at the semantic level, the thematic structure at the syntactic level, and intonation and sound patterns at the phonological level. Hu's multi-level model of textual cohesion further develops Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion framework and, therefore, makes a great contribution to cohesion studies on Chinese language. Despite Hu's theoretical insight into the multiple-level nature of cohesion in Chinese text, some aspects related to his research data may need to be further extended. Firstly, the examples that Hu presents in his book are taken from a variety of textual sources; some are conversational, some descriptive, and some argumentative. As a result, they may not be helpful in describing systematically some of the predominant lexical features specific to certain types of text. Furthermore, some of the sample texts that he uses in his study may not reflect linguistic features of contemporary Chinese, as many of his examples are from works of literature such as 红楼梦 and 子夜. The former was written in the middle period of the Qing Dynasty, and the latter in the 1930s. In addition, since his study is not based on a large-scale Chinese corpus, there may be other cohesive devices commonly employed in Chinese texts not identified in his study. Therefore, there is a need to explore further the phenomenon of cohesion in Chinese text.

In relation to research methodologies adopted in cohesion studies in the TCFL field, a further issue lies in data sufficiency. For example, Sun (2007), drawing upon Hoey's (1991) analytical framework, compares the use of lexical cohesion in narrative Chinese texts written by a Vietnamese learner and a native Chinese speaker. Although he examines different types of lexical cohesion in both texts and compares the patterns of use of these devices between the two

writers, the data he used comprises only two compositions. His research data, therefore, is not sufficiently large to claim that the gap between the writers represents the collective features of the use of lexical cohesion in Vietnamese learners' texts, as the article's title suggests. In terms of text type, what he used is narrative, while the framework he adopted is Hoey's (1991) lexical repetition model, which is mainly used for analysing non-narrative texts, as Hoey (1991) himself suggests.

Thus, it seems that more systematic and holistic approaches are needed to explore patterns of use of lexical cohesion in both Chinese text and CFL learner text. By carrying out an investigation that addresses these issues of systematicity and holism in the research approach, we hope to explain why the teaching of writing in Chinese as a Foreign Language has long been among the most challenging issues facing teachers and learners of the language. On the basis of this research, teachers of CFL writing may be provided with a clearer understanding of the operation of lexical cohesion in Chinese text that may inform the teaching of writing to CFL learners.

2 Methodology

2.1 The NCEE and the HSK Corpora

This study uses two small-scale corpora. As Hoey (1991) cautions, analysis of lexical patterns only applies to non-narrative texts; this study similarly focuses on non-narrative text in Chinese. Specifically, the non-narrative texts in this study are compositions written by Chinese students for the *National College Entrance Examination (*NCEE*)* and CFL learners for the *HSK* (Chinese Language Proficiency Test*)*. The former is used as text samples to establish a reference corpus of native- speaker Chinese writing and the latter as an interlanguage corpus of CFL writing.

The selection of the two small-scale corpora also takes into account the principle of establishing a *tertium comparationis* (common platform of comparison or shared similarity) between texts and approaches (Connor, 2004; Connor & Moreno, 2005) when corpus-based text studies are conducted. The NCEE is a national examination taken annually in China by candidates seeking to gain admission to tertiary education at undergraduate level. Since it is the only means of entry into higher education, it is considered to be a high stakes assessment in China. The composition test is a key part of the Chinese examination, one of the five subjects tested in NCEE, with the overall purpose of examining students' ability to write some of the most commonly used essay types, such as narration, argumentation, and description. The current composition test is task-based writ-

ing. Students taking the test are required to write an essay of not less than 800 Chinese characters on a given topic or in response to an eliciting prompt. This study uses only argumentative text, which is the most common and representative type of text written in the test. All the texts in the NCEE Corpus have received full marks.

The HSK, the Romanized abbreviation of 汉语水平考试, is the national, standardized proficiency test designed and developed by the HSK Centre of Beijing Language and Culture University to evaluate the Chinese language proficiency of non-native Chinese speakers (including foreigners, overseas Chinese and people from Chinese national minorities). HSK Certificates can now be used to certify that the holder has acquired the required level of Chinese proficiency to enter a college or university as an undergraduate or graduate student. The certificates may also allow their holders to be exempt from Chinese courses at the corresponding level in some educational institutions. Similar to the NCEE composition test, the HSK composition test involves task-based writing. Candidates have to draft a composition of 400 to 600 characters in 30 minutes, according to the requirements of a task. To establish a *tertium comparationis* between the two groups, the study chooses HSK Advanced compositions of CFL learners as sample texts, which are argumentative texts in type. These compositions have received the grade of A, the highest level of the HSK.

The criteria described in this section were taken into account in the design of the two corpora in relation to their comparability. The attributes of the finalized corpora are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1 Text attributes of the NCEE and the HSK Corpora

Text Attributes	The NCEE Corpus	The HSK Corpus
Text length	about 800 characters	400-600 characters
Text type	argument text	argument text
Grade	full marks	A
Number of texts	50	50
Text-written situation	examination	examination

2.2 Procedure

After compilation of the two small-scale corpora, a manual analysis of ten NCEE texts was carried out to test whether or not Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesion and Hoey's (1991) categorisation of lexical devices apply to Chinese non-narrative texts. The results of this manual analysis suggest that the categories proposed by Hoey (1991) - namely *simple repetition, complex repetition, simple paraphrase, complex paraphrase, superordinate and hyponym,*

co-reference have the capacity to categorise the types of cohesion found in these ten sample texts. Definitions of the cohesive devices, with examples, are provided in Section 3 that follows.

On the basis of the taxonomy of lexical cohesion in Chinese texts, a tagging system was developed to annotate all the sample texts in the two corpora. Table 2 shows various types of statistical data that were extracted from the two corpora.

Table 2: Various types of statistical data extracted from the two corpora

Code	In each individual sample	Code	In 50 samples
A1	the frequency of each type of lexical cohesive device used (per 100 Chinese characters)	A2	the average frequency of each type of lexical cohesive device used (per 100 Chinese characters)
B1	bond density (the number of bonds formed per 100 Chinese characters in one text)	B2	the average bond density (the number bonds formed per 100 Chinese characters in 50 text)
C1	the ratio of bond-forming sentences to non-bond-forming sentences	C2	the average ratio of bond-forming sentences to non- bond-forming sentences

2.3 Approaches to data analysis

Since the length of the CFL learners' texts is commonly shorter than that of the NCEE texts because of the developing nature of their writers' language proficiency, it is not valid to compare simply the total number of lexical cohesive devices used in the texts of both corpora without considering this factor. To compensate for this possible problem, the study adopts the following formula to calculate the occurrences per 100 Chinese characters, so that the comparison can be facilitated across the two corpora.

Formula One

$$\text{Frequency} = \frac{\text{the total number of cohesive ties} \times 100}{\text{the total number of characters}}$$

After the frequency of each type of lexical device was obtained from each single piece of NCEE and HSK text, the average values of the frequency of each type of lexical device used in the two corpora were then calculated using the following formula:

Formula Two

$$AF\ x = \frac{FT1x + FT2x + \cdots + FT49x + FT50x}{50}$$

AF means the average frequency, x a certain type of repetition, F frequency, T sample text, and the number 50 in the denominator position indicates the total number of sample texts used in the corpus.

Similarly, bond density and the ratio of bond-forming to non-bond-forming sentences, represented by B1 and C1 respectively in Table 2, were also calculated using Formula One, and their average values, represented by B2 and C2 in Table 2, were then calculated using Formula Two.

This study adopts Hoey's (1991) method of analyzing the *bonding* in a text, which involves examining and measuring the interconnectedness between sentences. According to Hoey (1991), a *bond* is established whenever there is an above-average degree of linkage between two sentences, and a bond can be defined as "a connection between any two sentences by virtue of there being a sufficient number of links between them" (p. 91). Hoey argues that although the number of links required to form a bond varies according to the length and type of text (p. 91), the link threshold should not be less than three to avoid "the greater likelihood of two repetitions occurring in a pair of sentences by chance" (p. 190). For this study, the cut-off point for claiming a bond is, therefore, not less than three links between a pair of sentences.

In this study the frequencies of *bond-forming sentences, non-bond-forming sentence,* and *bond density* are used to characterize the organizational patterns of the texts. For example, if a pair of sentences has at least three pairs of lexical items that are repeated in a certain way, which either build lexically upon what has gone before or provide a basis of semantic relation for subsequent statements, such sentences can, therefore, be said to form a bond and be called bond-forming sentences. A sentence can be described as a non-bond-forming sentence when there is no bond formed, which means less than three lexical links are formed with other sentences. Since the "density of repetition linkage between sentences

is a measure of their closeness of connection" (Hoey 1991, p. 125), the number of bond-forming and non-bond-forming sentences, therefore, can be firstly an indication of how closely the sentences in a text are lexically interconnected with each other. Secondly, at the semantic level, this number also indicates the level of intelligibility of a text, in terms of the extent to which a reader can interpret those connected sentences as holding together in some way.

3. Categories of lexical cohesion in the NCEE Corpus

In this section, the six types of lexical cohesive devices suggested by the manual analysis of NCEE Texts 1-10 are briefly explained with examples taken from these texts. To indicate how lexical items repeat, sentences are numbered according to the order they appear in the text and are put in brackets at the beginning of each sentence in given examples, and the repeated items are highlighted in bold in the text.

Simple repetition

Simple repetition occurs when a lexical item that has already occurred in a text is repeated.

Example 1 (taken from NCEE Text 5):

(Sentence 17) 当他发现大厦设计存在漏洞，**大厦**可能在狂风中被折断时，他毅然向市政当局提交了调查报告。

(Sentence 18) 一切的荣誉、金钱、掌声都似乎离他远了，但他却在广播中发出了真挚的话语：“我不乞求原谅，只求**大厦**能尽快加固。”

大厦 in Sentence 18 is a simple lexical repetition of 大厦 in Sentence 17, since they have the same referent, both referring to the same building designed by 他.

Complex repetition

Complex repetition occurs either when two lexical items share a lexical morpheme or a word, but are not formally identical or when they are formally identical, they have different grammatical functions.

Example 2 (taken from the NCEE Text 6):

(Sentence 23) 虽有夸张和虽有夸张和唯心主义的色彩，但却能看出人们对于“心”的**重要性**的认识。

(Sentence 25) 由此可见，一份安静的心情是多么**重要**。

In this example, the word 重要性 in Sentence 23 and 重要 in Sentence 25 form a complex lexical repetition, because the paraphrase of the former includes the latter: 重要性 can be explained as 重要的性质.

Example 3 (taken from NCEE Text 8):

(Sentence 2) 如果你是一名律师，你的亲人犯了罪，在法庭上你是依法办事，一切按法理讲，还是运用你的口才，抓一些漏洞，为亲人尽量摆脱罪名，这实在很难**选择**：一边是法理，一边是人情，该顾哪边。违背哪一边你都会不安。

(Sentence 4) 选择正义，有罪就该罚，这才是你的正确**选择**，切莫感情用事。

In this example, the word 选择 in Sentence 2 is a verb, while the word 选择 in Sentence 4 is a noun, although the two are formally identical, they have different grammatical function, hence they are regarded as an example of complex lexical repetition.

Simple paraphrase

Simple paraphrase occurs when a lexical item can be substituted by another in context without loss or gain in specificity, and with no discernible change in meaning.

Example 4 (taken from the NCEE Text 7):

(Sentence 11) 狄更斯和爱迪生就是靠坚持而取得最后的**胜利**的。

(Sentence 13) 可见，坚持能够使人取得事业和学业上的**成功**。

The word 成功 in Sentence 13 is a simple paraphrase of 胜利 in Sentence 11, as their meaning is the same within the context.

Complex paraphrase

Complex paraphrase occurs in two situations:

1) it occurs when a lexical item is repeated in the form of its antonym

Example 5 (taken from NCEE Text 7):

(Sentence 1) 人们都想在事业或学业上有所成就，但是，只有一部分人取得了胜利，而相当一部分人却陷入**失败**的痛苦之中。

(Sentence 6) 可见，一个人要想取得学业上或事业上的**成功**，除了个人的努力之外，坚持也是实现这一目标的重要条件。

失败 in Sentence 1 and 成功 in Sentence 6 are antonyms, so they are examples of complex paraphrase.

2) it occurs if an item "is a complex repetition of another and also a simple paraphrase (or antonym) of a third "(Hoey 1991, p. 64), in such circumstances, it is reasonable to acknowledge that the second item is a complex paraphrase of the third one.

Example 6 (taken from NCEE Text 9):

(Sentence 1) 如果你随便找一个中学生，问他什么是对数，什么是洛仑兹定律，什么是原子核式结构，他一定可以把这些东西给你讲得头头是道，让你惊叹当今青少年个个都是**科学家**的料。

(Sentence 6) 学生们便因此被搁在高高在上的“象牙之塔”，只搞着**高端学问**。

(Sentence 23) 但同时，我们还要培养学生的创新意识以及独立思考能力，使他们能在平凡的常识中总结出**科学**规律，又或者让他们大胆质疑常识，不要囿于常识。

In this example, the word 科学 in Sentence 23 is a complex repetition of 科学家 in Sentence 1; it is also a simple paraphrase of 高端学问 in Sentence 6. In this situation, we can say that 科学家 and 高端学问 form a complex paraphrase link.

Super-ordinate and hyponymy

Super-ordinate and hyponymy occur when a more general word follows an earlier item in the context and both of them contain similar information within the context of a text.

Example 7 (taken from the NCEE Text 9):

(Sentence 14) 在远古时代，先人们仰望星空，探斗转星移的奥秘，品云淡云聚的风采；到现在，我们通过**望远镜**与另一个星球招手，通过**显微镜**感知微观宇宙。

(Sentence 15) 可以说，没有观察与帮助我们更好观察的**工具**，好奇心也会闭上心房上的窗，落满灰尘。

Within the context, the superordinate word 工具 in Sentence 15 forms two repetition links with the hyponymic words 望远镜 and 显微镜 respectively.

Co-reference

Co-reference occurs when two items are interpreted as having identical referents.

Example 8 (taken from NCEE Text 3):

(Sentence 28) 晋代历史学家陈寿的父亲因犯错误，受到**诸葛亮**的严惩而郁闷致死。

(Sentence 32) 可他竟能抛开个人的爱恶，如此“歌颂**仇人**”，大讲实事求是，也绝非“认知”出现了毛病。

The word 诸葛亮 in Sentence 28 and 仇人 in Sentence 32 refer to the same

person, hence they form co-reference repetition.

4. Findings and discussions

4.1 Differences in the frequencies of each type of lexical repetition

This section compares the average frequencies of the lexical devices used in the two corpora and discusses possible causes of some of the noticeable gaps.

Table 3: The average frequency of each type of device in the two corpora

Category	The NCEE Corpus	The HSK Corpus
simple repetition	6.22	6.21
complex repetition	0.47	0.56
simple paraphrase	2.75	1.75
complex paraphrase	3.19	1.57
superordinate-hyponymy	0.9	0
co-reference	0.11	0.08

The most noticeable gap, as shown in Table 3, is that no instance of the superordinate-hyponymic relation is found in the HSK texts, while in the NCEE texts the frequency is 0.9. The next difference lies in the frequency of the use of paraphrase. In the NCEE texts, the frequency of complex paraphrase (3.19) is double that in the HSK texts (1.57), and the average value of simple paraphrase in the NCEE texts (2.75) is much higher than that in the HSK texts (1.75). These differences can perhaps partly be explained by the likelihood that the NCEE writers have a much higher level of lexical competence, and consequently have more advanced text structuring and meaning-making skills.

When discussing the question of how lexical competence can be determined, Meara (1996) proposes that lexical competence can be measured by both the size of a learner's repertoire of lexical items and the ability they have to organize semantically related words. Nation (1990) and Nation and Waring (1997) point out that their appropriate and accurate use within a text indicates that an L2 learner understands the spoken and written forms, grammatical patterns and collocations, as well as their semantic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic and register connotations. Clearly, knowing how to incorporate words into a text and to build up connections between words appropriately according to their semantic relations is one component of lexical competence.

Superordinate-hyponymic repetition, in essence, is about meaning inclusiveness. For example, in English, the meaning of *table* (a hyponym) is included within that of the more general categorising word of *furniture* (superordinate). In other words, these lexical items can be organized and associated with each other according to their semantic relations. On the face of it, understanding this relation and its organizational role may not be that difficult for CFL learners as the majority of them are adult learners. However, the way in which vocabulary is presented and explained to CFL learners may pose a problem. For instance, Gao (1997) points out that many CFL learners who are native speakers of English are confused by some mismatches between some Chinese words, which may be a superordinate in Chinese, and their English translations, which are translated as a hyponym or vice versa.

In relation to this issue, when discussing how errors arise in CFL learners' texts, Zhu (2009) also points out that the CFL learner may not know the exact contexts where superordinates and their related hyponyms are used. These factors, therefore, may contribute to the lack of superordinate and hyponymic repetition in the HSK texts.

Table 3 also shows obvious differences between the texts of the two corpora in their use of the devices of complex paraphrase and simple paraphrase. The average frequency of use of complex paraphrase in the NCEE Corpus is 3.19 per 100 Chinese characters, more than double its use in the HSK Corpus, which is 1.57 per 100 characters. Similarly, the average frequency of use of the device of simple paraphrase in the NCEE Corpus is also much higher than that in the HSK Corpus. Factors that contribute to these obvious differences may relate to methodologies used in teaching synonyms and antonyms in the TCFL field. Simple paraphrase is, in essence, mainly about the synonymous relation between two lexical items. Likewise, complex paraphrase refers to synonymous and antonymous relations identified on the basis of the established definition. Native speaker Chinese students acquire the skills of understanding and using synonyms and antonyms naturally in their own cultural environment by learning and practicing how to use them in the contexts of both everyday texts and examination compositions. For CFL learners, however, their main sources of learning is through study materials or classroom instruction; thus, the ways in which synonyms and antonyms are presented in these materials and the way in which they are taught are crucial.

Since the development of the TCFL field is still at an early stage, many of the definitions of synonyms and antonyms in teaching materials, textbooks, and methods of discrimination adopted for TCFL classrooms and their related teaching approaches are not suitable for CFL classroom instructions, a situation that

has caused confusion and difficulties for both teachers and students. For example, Li (2010) points out that most dictionary entries of synonyms and antonyms, which may have been thought to cause confusion for TCL learners, are chosen by compilers and researchers. However, the most confusing words in the CFL classroom are those identified by CFL learners themselves, which means that the existing literature doesn't always provide practical help to either teachers or CFL learners. Zhao and Li (2001), Zhou (2004) and Zhang (2007) propose that the scope of research on synonyms and antonyms in the TCFL field should be expanded, and that, in order to inform the needs of CFL learners, the perspective of the research should be shifted from the needs of native speakers and oriented specifically toward second language learners.

In addition to this, other factors such as learning strategies may also contribute to the existence of the gap in the use of the two types of paraphrases. Luo (1999), Wang (2009) and Zhang (2008) suggest that CFL learners often use simplification or avoidance strategies in examination contexts. By analyzing his corpus, Wang (2009) identifies three main learning strategies that intermediate level Vietnamese learners adopt - simplification, avoidance, and inference. He found that among the four groups of synonyms below, a considerable number of students would choose to use 懂，感觉，以为，产生 instead of using their synonyms in certain contexts:

(1) 懂，明白，理解，了解
(2) 感觉，觉得
(3) 认为，以为
(4) 产生，发生

Wang (2009) also discusses the different root causes of learners not using the synonyms of some of these words. For example, for Group (1), the reason might be L1 interference, because the four Chinese words can all be translated as *hieu* in Vietnamese, which made Vietnamese students think that these fours words are nearly the same, and since 懂 is simpler than the others, they tend to use it more. For Group (4), Wang thinks that it may be due to problems with vocabulary teaching. Although both 产生 and 发生 have the meaning "something comes into being or appears", their collocations in different contexts are quite different. The former is usually used together with words like 影响，反应，情绪，效应, while the latter is often followed by words such as 变化，分歧，冲突，事故. If students are not taught about or exposed to such collocation patterns, they may regard them as identical or interchangeable. Wang (2009), therefore, suggests that

the teaching of vocabulary needs to take into account CFL learners' learning strategies, translation and explanation in dictionaries and teaching materials, the methodologies and approaches CFL teachers adopt, and even the influence of the CFL learners' learning environment. For instance, in some dialects spoken in *Guangxi Autonomous Region*, 懂, 明白, 理解, 了解 are interchangeable and local people tend to just use 懂 to convey the meanings that the other three express (Wang 2009, p.26).

4.2 Differences of bond density in the two corpora

As discussed in 2.3, bond density is one of the indications of the organizational patterns of a text. Therefore, it is important to compare the average bond density in the two corpora to see how and why they differ from each other.

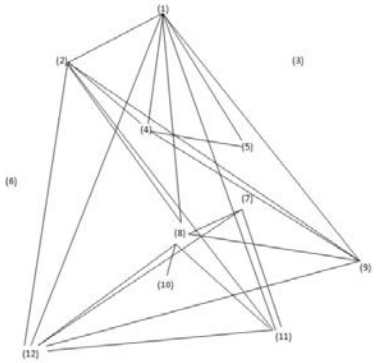
Table 4: The average bond density in 50 texts in the two corpora

	The NCEE Corpus	The HSK Corpus
B2 (per 100 characters)	3.13	1.35

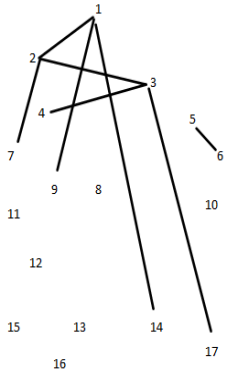
The two sets of B2 in Table 4 show that the average number of bonds formed in 50 NCEE texts is almost triple that in the HSK texts. The gap may imply that the CFL learners have difficulty in employing different lexical cohesive devices to build up connections between sentences. Figure 1 illustrates the difference in bond density between the two corpora.

Figure 1: Difference in bond density between NCEE text 4 and HSK text 1

The net of bonds of NCEE Text 4



The net of bonds of HSK Text 1



The two nets of bonds suggest a marked difference in terms of the interconnectedness between sentences. In NCEE text 4, the higher bond density reflects that the interconnectedness is complex, yet it appears to occur in an organized way. By complex, we mean that there are bonds created in a linear way between adjacent sentences, such as (1) - (2), (4) - (5), (7) - (8) - (9), (11) - (12); there are also bonds that are formed in a non-linear way between non-adjacent sentences, such as (1) - (4), (1) - (5), (1) - (9), (2) - (11), (2) - (12), (8) - (11), (8) - (12). By "organized way", it is meant that the bonds are structured in a way in which each bond has a certain role to play in the development of the main theme. For example, the bond between Sentences (1) and (2) is used to set up the topic, whereas the bonds between Sentences (8) - (9) and (8) - (10) support a claim within a paragraph. In contrast, HSK Text 1 has a low bond density; hence it is less organized and the sentences are less interconnected to each other.

In light of this study, this gap may be partly explained by the CFL learner's lower lexical competence. Hoey (1991) maintains that "given this partial inverse relationship between lexis and the semantic organization of text, it becomes imperative to investigate how lexical cohesion and text organization affect each other" (p. 220). The gap in bond density between NCEE and HSK texts may indicate that the writers either lack the capacity to choose cohesive devices that are lexically and semantically related to each other, and/or have difficulty using such devices effectively.

The root cause of this gap may be due to the lack of practice in organizing lexical items and semantic relations in CFL writing instruction. Wu (2011) points out that writing competence is a comprehensive reflection of a writer's aptitude, such as mental and psychological abilities, and a group of learned skills, such as language skills, analytical skills, and cognitive skills. Although CFL learners may have the same level of intelligence as native Chinese speakers, and they may have a high level of writing competence in their first language, they still need to practice these writing-related skills in order to think and write effectively in Chinese. Providing this type of practice requires teachers have a well-designed syllabus and effective activities, and it requires students to understand the importance and effectiveness of these activities. On the basis of this theoretical framework, Wu (2011) conducted an experiment by involving his CFL learners in some pre-writing preparation activities. The result shows that this type of intervention activity helps learners to improve their writing skills, including the development of argument, the organization of ideas, the use of vocabulary, and other components such as grammar, punctuation, text style, and word limits.

4.3 Differences in the ratio of bond-forming to Non-bond-forming sentences in the two corpora

Table 5: The average ratio of bond-forming to Non-bond-forming sentences

	The NCEE Corpus	The HSK Corpus
C2 (per 100 characters)	1.6:1	0.96:1

Table 5 shows that in the NCEE texts, the average ratio (of bond-forming to Non-bond-forming sentences) is nearly twice the ratio in the texts of the HSK Corpus. In the NCEE Corpus, the average ratio of the 50 texts is 1.6:1, while in the HSK Corpus the figure is 0.96:1, which means that on average, the NCEE texts have a majority of sentences that form bonds with other sentences, while in the HSK texts, less than fifty per cent of the total sentences form bonds with other sentences. This difference indicates that the CFL learners are less competent in using lexical cohesive devices to organize the text and to develop the topic.

When discussing the properties of the net of bonds in text, Hoey (1991) notes that "sentences that have an unusually high level of bonding from the remainder…might be regarded as central" (p. 113), while "sentences that manifest no bonds may be deemed marginal, in that what they have to say neither builds lexically upon what has been gone before nor provides the lexis for subsequent statements" (p. 105). To help to identify central sentences, Hoey (1991) uses a tabular form to record the number of bonds that each sentence forms with its previous and subsequent sentences. The following tables (6 and 7) record such numbers in NCEE Text 4 and HSK Text 1 based on the information of nets of bonds shown in Figure 1. For example, 9 (4, 1) means for Sentence 9 in NCEE Text 4, it forms four bonds with its previous sentences, and one with its subsequent sentences.

Table 6: Sentence coordinates of NCEE Text 4

1	(0, 7)	7	(0, 3)
2	(1, 5)	8	(2, 5)
3	(0, 0)	9	(4, 1)
4	(2, 2)	10	(1, 0)
5	(2, 0)	11	(4, 1)
6	(0, 0)	12	(6, 0)

Table 7: Sentence coordinates for HSK Text 1

1	(0, 3)	9	(1, 0)
2	(1, 2)	10	(0, 0)
3	(1, 2)	11	(0, 0)
4	(1, 0)	12	(0, 0)
5	(0, 1)	13	(0, 0)
6	(1, 0)	14	(1, 0)
7	(1, 0)	15	(0, 0)
8	(0, 0)	16	(0, 0)
		17	(0, 0)

In Table 6, it can be seen that there are seven central sentences in NCEE Text 4: Sentences 1 (0,7), 2 (1,5), 7 (0, 3), 8 (2, 5), 9 (4, 1), 11 (4, 1), and 12 (6,0). The proportion of central sentences in this text is 58% (7/12), while in HSK Text 1, only Sentences 1, 2 and 3 can be regarded as central sentences, and the percentage of central sentence is 18% (3/17). Table 8 summarizes the percentages of marginal and central sentences in NCEE Text 4 and HSK Text 1:

Table 8: Marginal and central sentences percentage in NCEE Text 4 and HSK Text 1

	NCEE Text 4	HSK Text 1
Marginal sentences	17%	47%
Central sentences	58%	18%

The contrast shows a low proportion of central sentences in HSK Text 1, which indicates that the essay is less developed and less well-organized due to its lack of lexical interconnectedness. Indeed, referring back to Figure 1, it can be seen that there are only three central sentences that effectively contribute to the development of the main theme while the majority of the sentences seem to drift away from the main ideas or topics; consequently, they contribute little to the development of the main argument. For such learners, as Hoey (1991) suggests, they "will need telling that repetition usually provides the grounding for new information" (p. 244). In other words, such learners need to be aware that an adequate level of cohesion (of course, in various forms using a variety of lexical cohesive devices) is essential to providing a necessary context for subsequent sentences.

5. Pedagogical implications

Firstly, the implications from this study should lead to more attention being paid to raising learners' awareness of using lexical cohesive devices. It may be helpful for them to acquire bond-making items in their language learning environment, such as putting more emphasis on synonyms, antonyms, paraphrases, and superordinates and their hyponyms in a particular context, and how they interconnect to each other. This awareness will eventually help novice writers to develop their vocabulary in a more active way, in which they not only increase the size of their vocabulary, but also improve their vocabulary organization skills by learning to create semantically related word networks. This could be achieved by engaging learners in pre-writing preparation activities. Taking the topic 自己创业还是开公司 used in the HSK Corpus as an example, the teacher could provide an outline such as the following:

Example 9:

大学毕业后进公司好还是自己创业好?

1. 大学毕业生应该先进公司学习管理经验和培养社交能力，然后自己创业。
2. 刚从学校出来的年轻人没有经营公司的经验，直接创办企业可能很快就会失败。
3. 刚完成学业的大学生也不太懂得与人打交道，马上开公司遇到挫折。
4. 在公司工作，可以学会如何打理业务和如何与人交往，这时再开创自己的事业，成功的可能性更大。
5. 所以大学生毕业以后应该先提高自己负责业务的能力和交际能力，再发展自己的事业。

Then the teacher could work with students to identify all the lexical cohesive links used in the above outline and ask the students to summarize it as in Table 9.

Table 9. Lexical cohesive links in the above outline

Idea	Lexical item				
1	大学毕业生	管理	社交	然后	创业
2	刚从学校出来的年轻人			直接	创办企业

3	刚完成学业的大学生		与人打交道	马上	开公司
4		打理业务	跟人交往	这时	开创自己的事业
5	大学生毕业以后	负责业务	交际	再	发展自己的事业

It can be seen that although the sentences in the above outline are not long and complex, at least four repetitions are created between every two ideas, which indicates that the use of bond-making items is the key to improving the organization of text. By explicitly teaching the notion of lexical devices and their role in creating cohesion in a text, it may lead students to learning these devices more actively and effectively. Consequently, they may consciously and tentatively use some of these lexical devices in their writings.

In addition to this, introducing learners to the organization of topic-related words may also be an effective way to improve their lexical competence. By doing so, students may have more opportunities to be exposed to various aspects of word usage such as spoken and written forms, grammatical patterns, collocations, pragmatic and sociolinguistic features, register, and connotations. For example, below is an outline composed by a Japanese student in a pre-writing activity:

Example 10:

1. 今年春节我才知道 H1N1 很厉害;
2. 暑假时，有好几个同学感染了 H1N1，以后我也在饭店被隔离了;
3. 我有急事，要求批准我出去;
4. 秋天我终于打疫苗，才放心了。

The teacher could use this as an eliciting material, asking learners to write down a word list that is closely related to the following topic:

病毒-流感-传染-传播-感染-症状-隔离-预防-疫苗…

The list can go on as long as it is still at the CFL learner's proficiency level. Although these are not all lexically or semantically related, they are topic related and, therefore, are easier for the learner to associate them in a context and study them systematically. Also, students may be asked to discern some of the synonyms that appear or are related to this context, for example:

What is the difference between 厉害 and 严重? Can it be replaced here?

What is the difference between 传染, 传播 and 感染?

Are 隔离 and 出去 antonyms in this context? Why or why not?

This may be a more effective way to teach synonyms, as it provides learners with a specific context in which every aspect of the usage of a certain word is defined and restricted. If possible, the teacher can also provide a different example in which a synonym for a certain word is used. By subjectively contrasting and analysing these examples, students may find it much easier to grasp the meaning and the usage of the pair of synonyms.

The discussion in this study also suggests that when developing textbooks or teaching materials, consideration should be given to the contexts in which lexical items are used, the specific connotations that they have, their accurate translations in the learner's first language, and how they interact with other words within the same semantic network. For example, mismatches in translation often confuse CFL learners and consequently create a barrier to their being able to create a well-organized semantic network among a group of semantically related lexical items. One set of examples that demonstrate this kind of mismatch is the Chinese words 参观, 访问, and 看. In many text books these words are simply translated as 'visit'. It is true that in English the word 'visit' can either be followed by a location noun such as 'museum', or by an animate noun such as 'a friend'; however, each of these three Chinese words has its own specific collocations according to context. Such inaccurate translations are very confusing, and consequently hinder CFL learners from grasping various aspects of these words such as the context in which they should be used, the meaning, the collocation, and the relation with their synonyms.

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Understanding Language Anxiety and Ways to Alleviate it in Mandarin Classrooms

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Abstract: Language anxiety affects second language learning. Understanding language anxiety and how it plays a role in language learning is the first step toward addressing the issue. Language anxiety stems from different sources. The current paper summarizes six common sources of language anxiety from previous literature and also discusses the sources particularly relevant to learning Mandarin as a second language. The author then proposes ways to alleviate language anxiety from each source and discusses how to reduce language anxiety in acquiring the four skills, as well as in grammar and vocabulary learning. The paper intends to provide pedagogical suggestions to language teachers on how to help learners reduce their language anxiety and improve their language learning experience.

Keywords: language anxiety, affective factors, individual differences, L2 pedagogy, L2 acquisition

提要：语言焦虑影响第二语言学习。了解语言焦虑及其在语言学习中的具体反映是应对语言焦虑的第一步。语言焦虑来源于多方因素。本文首先总结了文献中提出的语言焦虑六大来源，然后讨论了中文第二语言学习中特有的语言焦虑来源。随后，本文就语言焦虑的各个来源，提出了语言课堂中可使用的应对方法。并且讨论了如何减轻学习语言四大技能，及学习语法和词汇时产生的语言焦虑。本文希望为第二语言教学者提供减轻语言焦虑的方法，从而提高学习效果。

关键词：语言焦虑，情感因素，个体差异，二语教学法，二语习得

1. Introduction

Researchers have identified language anxiety to be one of the major factors that affect learners' language learning (e.g. Chen & Chang, 2004; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Zhang & Wang, 2002). When defined in the context of foreign or second language learning, language anxiety refers to "a distinct

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complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language-learning process" (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986, p. 128). Researchers (e.g. Philip, 1991; Young, 1999) find it is easier to provoke anxiety in foreign or second language learning than in other subjects. Philip (1991) explains that language is part of one's self image and has a strong social element. Adult language learners would probably find themselves in a vulnerable situation when they do not have enough vocabulary or grammar to express their mature thoughts in the target language (Young & Kimball, 1995). Therefore, to enhance learners' language learning, it is essential for a language instructor to understand language anxiety, identify and cope with it in a foreign or second language classroom.

Instructors should note the distinction between what researchers call facilitating and debilitating anxieties. Facilitating and debilitating anxieties are two types of language anxiety (Scovel, 1978). The former encourages learners to take the challenge of the task, and the latter sets obstacles in language learning. However, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) point out that facilitating anxiety is less influential and the extra effort brought by facilitating anxiety is not necessarily rewarded with increased achievement. Therefore, the current paper addresses only the issue of debilitating anxiety. The paper first explains the conceptualization of language anxiety, and then discusses the potential sources of debilitating anxiety in a foreign or second language classroom. The paper also addresses additional potential sources of anxiety in Mandarin language learning. Based on the understanding of the sources of language anxiety, the paper offers some suggestions for reducing debilitating language anxiety in Mandarin language learning classroom.

2. Understanding Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) identify three areas of language anxiety: a) communication apprehension; b) test anxiety; and c) fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom. These three areas of language anxiety work independently and simultaneously to affect language learning. Communication apprehension is manifested as having difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups or in public, or in listening to a message (Horwitz et al., 1986). People with high communication apprehension may avoid or withdraw from conversations. In a foreign or second language learning context, communication apprehension and learners' self-perceived competence may interact and affect learners' willingness to communicate (e.g. MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002; Peng 2007; Zhou, 2012). Fear of failure in quizzes and tests in a language classroom leads to test anxiety (Gordon & Sarason 1955). Students with high test anxiety tend to

perceive any less than perfect performance as a failure. They may set unrealistic goals for themselves and get frustrated or anxious by even a tiny mistake. Oral tests tend to provoke even higher anxiety because communication apprehension and test anxiety take effect at the same time in an oral test. Fear of negative evaluation derives from the apprehension of evaluation from others (Horwitz et al., 1986). Students with fear of negative evaluation constantly feel as if they are being evaluated by teachers or classmates. The fear does not only exist in tests, but also in speaking in a target language. It provokes anxiety and leads to poor performance in a language classroom.

Generally speaking, language anxiety is negatively correlated with learners' language performance. Tobias (1980) proposes a model of three stages where language anxiety takes effect: input, processing, and output. Language anxiety acts like a filter at the input stage. It blocks and reduces the amount of input information going into learners' cognitive processing system. Therefore, for an anxious learner, language anxiety causes delay or less information going into the processing stage from listening or reading. At the processing stage, "anxiety can influence both the speed and accuracy of learning" (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 35). Language anxiety also hinders the information which has entered the processing stage from being processed. Therefore, even less is learned by anxious learners at the processing stage. Based on what they have learned, learners need to produce output at the output stage. However, language anxiety again influences the quality of their performance. They may stumble and utter broken sentences in speaking or produce very short sentences in the performance of writing. Language anxiety causes discrepancy between learners' actual competence and performance. Therefore, anxious learners may perform below their actual competence. On the other hand, language anxiety also undermines learner's willingness to communicate in the target language. Lower willingness to communicate may lead to lower actual frequency of use of the language and allow fewer opportunities to practice the target language (e.g. Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004; Cao & Philip, 2006; Zhou, 2012).

3. Identifying Sources of Language Anxiety

3.1 Sources of language anxiety in research

At early stage of language learning, learners may encounter various kinds of difficulties and problems in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and other areas. Facing these difficulties and problems, some learners may develop anxiety, which leads to poor performance, and poor performance may in turn generate more anxiety. This forms a vicious circle. Therefore, identification of sources of

language anxiety in a foreign or second language classroom is essential to finding ways to cope with language anxiety and enhance students' language learning. Young (1991) proposes a list of potential sources of language anxiety (p. 427): a) personal and interpersonal anxieties; b) learner beliefs about language learning; c) instructor beliefs about language teaching; d) instructor-learner interactions; e) classroom procedures; and f) language testing.

Personal and interpersonal anxieties relate to learners' low self-estimate, low self-perceived ability levels, and competitiveness between the learner and others (Young, 1999). Learners with low self-perceived ability levels usually possess higher anxiety levels (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). Bailey (1983) emphasizes the impact of competiveness on language anxiety. She points out that over self-comparison of language learners with others or with self-expectation would lead to anxiety.

Learners' unrealistic beliefs about language learning arouse language anxiety when the beliefs come into collision with reality. Learners in Price's (1991) study believe that language learning requires a special aptitude. Some learners put great stress on speaking with an excellent accent, or are over-confident that two years is enough to speak a language fluently (Young, 1991). Also some students in Chen and Chang's (2004) study believe the target language is too difficult and they cannot handle it. These beliefs provoke anxiety in language learning.

At the same time, an instructor's beliefs about language teaching may also cause learners' anxiety. Chen and Chang (2004) report that instructors who believe in the teaching styles of lecturing, talking fast, and refraining from using the blackboard, would make students anxious. Instructors who believe that students need to be corrected constantly for any of their mistakes may also easily provoke language anxiety among students. Students may become anxious when their instructor plays the role of a drill sergeant rather than a facilitator (Young, 1991).

Interaction between instructors and learners contributes to language anxiety, too. The interaction which most easily leads to anxiety is the manner of error correction by instructors (Young, 1991). Correcting errors in front of the class or making learners sound "dumb" will easily make them anxious. Instructors need to find a less intimidating way for error corrections, especially with anxious students. A friendly and relaxing classroom atmosphere also helps to alleviate language anxiety and increase learners' willingness to use the language and interact with the instructor.

Classroom procedures which may generate anxiety includes having students speak in the target language in front of the class, giving frequent oral quizzes, and calling on students to answer questions unprepared. Language testing is also a possible source of language anxiety. When students find the test content is not

what they have been studying for, or test tasks are unfamiliar to them, they may become anxious (Young, 1999).

3.2 Sources of language anxiety in a Mandarin classroom

Mandarin, a less-commonly-taught language, may actually provoke higher language anxiety with more possible sources than other languages (Le, 2004). The gap between the Chinese culture and western cultures, and characteristics of Chinese culture itself may also contribute to high language anxiety in Mandarin learning.

Learners' belief about Mandarin is one of the major sources of language anxiety. Shi's study (2007) reports that the strongest factor provoking the learners' anxiety is the belief that Mandarin is a difficult language, especially vocabulary and grammar. Le (2004) also reports an overall belief among learners that Mandarin is a "very difficult" or "difficult" language. When learners find they need more time and effort to learn grammar in Mandarin, and even more time to be able to speak the language fluently, they may become anxious. The four tones in Mandarin generate an almost "mission impossible attitude" for accurate pronunciation, especially at the early stage of learning. According to Le (2004), actually a higher percentage of learners values an excellent pronunciation in Mandarin than that of American students learning German, French and Spanish. As a result, the difficulty caused by the tone system in Mandarin increases anxiety in learners who believe in the accuracy of pronunciation in speaking. In addition, Chinese orthography increases the difficulty in learning Mandarin, especially for students without an East Asia background. Chinese orthography is strict on one line or one dot of a character. Tiny but frequent mistakes of characters may frustrate learners and make them feel a lack of aptitude to learn the language. Language anxiety may also be aroused from here.

Instructors' beliefs in language teaching are also an important source of Mandarin learners' language anxiety. A Mandarin teaching classroom, especially one with an instructor of Chinese culture background, may potentially be influenced by the Chinese value system, where teachers play the role of the academic authority in the classroom (Lai, 1994). Therefore, instructors in Mandarin classrooms may tend to believe the necessity of intimidation in teaching and more strongly value learners' performances on quizzes and tests. Instructors influenced by the educational system in China may tend to act as a "drill sergeant" instead of a facilitator. The classroom is likely to be more teacher-centered, instead of learner-centered, and calling on students to answer a question is possibly a typical way for a teacher to ensure attention from the students. These potential factors may contribute to high language anxiety in a Mandarin learning classroom.

Competitiveness can be one of the sources of language anxiety for learners without Chinese background in the same classroom as heritage learners. Heritage learners usually speak some dialect of Chinese or have contact with Mandarin speakers in their families. Kondo-Brown (2005) finds substantial better performance of heritage learners with parents speaking the target language in grammatical knowledge and the skills of listening and reading compared to non-heritage students. This fact is very likely to provoke high language anxiety among non-heritage learners sitting in the same classroom.

Culture background contributes to high language anxiety in Mandarin learning for both heritage and non-heritage language learners. Learners without an East Asian background may find Chinese culture to be far different from their own cultures, which may arouse additional anxiety, especially when they have to deal with language learning and cultural adjustment at the same time. However, the anxiety may diminish along with increased contact with the target language and familiarization with the culture. While for learners with an East Asian background, the background itself may arouse high anxiety (Le, 2004). East Asian cultures value the personality trait of being reserved, and attach great importance to saving one's face, that is, public image (Peng, 2007). The value system in East-Asian cultures may cause learners of such background to be easily anxious in language learning.

4. Alleviating Language Anxiety in Mandarin Classrooms

Based on the six sources proposed by Young (1991) and the sources from Chinese culture, instructors can find ways to alleviate language anxiety in Mandarin classrooms. Instructors can also find ways to help language learners to reduce anxiety when learning grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills in Mandarin.

4.1 Alleviating language anxiety stemming from the proposed sources

In order to alleviate learners' language anxiety stemming from personal and interpersonal factors, it is necessary to first make learners aware of the existence of language anxiety in the classroom and directly address this problem. Crookall and Oxford (1991) suggest addressing anxiety directly to demonstrate an attitude "which considers that both students and teacher can share the problem, and both can deal with it together" (p. 144). The simplest method to achieve this goal is to adopt the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz (Horwitz et al., 1986) and let the students do the questionnaire either on the first day of the class or sometime during a semester. From these items, learners can

realize the existence of anxiety in a language classroom and feel at ease to address and discuss this problem with teachers or peers. Following the questionnaire, the instructors can share the results with the class to talk about which items may be most likely to arouse language anxiety among them. This activity helps learners to understand that experiencing anxiety is common in a language classroom and their classmates have the same feeling as they do. Competitiveness is also one of interpersonal factors. It is helpful if instructors can help learners to establish practical and short-term goals. Setting a short-term goal may release language anxiety caused by competitiveness. Another effective way to help learners to reduce the sense of competition and build confidence in a Mandarin classroom is to separate heritage and non-heritage learners into different tracks.

Helping learners to develop realistic beliefs in language learning is another way to cope with language anxiety. Campbell and Ortiz (1991) suggest an activity named "The myths and the realities of foreign language learning" in their Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop. It is a questionnaire containing items examining a number of popular notions about the study of a foreign language. The questionnaire needs to also include items especially addressing Mandarin learning, such as the beliefs about accuracy of tones and Chinese orthography. Students need to know that language learning is a process and it is inevitable to make mistakes on Chinese characters and pronunciation, including tones. Instructors, as also language learners themselves, can share their own language learning experiences with the students.

Instructors' beliefs can also alleviate learners' language anxiety in Mandarin classrooms. The first thing an instructor can do is to understand the importance of a learner-centered classroom and adopt the role of a facilitator instead of a drill sergeant. Although a Chinese saying says "a good apprentice always has a strict master", instructors in Mandarin classrooms need to understand that mistakes are part of language learning and therefore allow students to make mistakes. Instructors can emphasize more on conveying meaning than grammatical accuracy, especially in speaking and writing practices.

Regarding methods for giving feedback, instructors may need to give students more positive feedback and avoid explicitly correcting students in front of the class. A less anxiety-provoking way to give feedback in front of the class is recasts. According to Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001), recasts are a type of implicit feedback which repeats a learner's utterance by providing the correct forms of the target features and at the same time maintain the central meaning contributed by the learner. Therefore, recasts may provide necessary feedback, minimize the possibility of provoking language anxiety, and maintain the conversation flows at the same time. The activity of Mistake Panel from Crookall

and Oxford (1999, p. 147) can be another good way to handle mistakes and help learners to adopt a humorous attitude on errors. They suggest either the teacher or the students collect mistakes over a few class sessions or make up mistakes by themselves. Each mistake is written on one card. Then the learners are divided into groups and start rating each mistake based on the following criteria: amusement (how funny they are), creativity (how original they are), logic (how reasonable is the mistake in terms of the language), communicative intelligibility (how well can one still understand the message, despite the error), and learning contribution (how much can be learned from this error). The game helps learners learn to be at ease with errors and at the same time also learn from these errors.

Instructors can also change classroom procedures to minimize language anxiety by using pair or group work and giving enough information on tests. Long and Porter (1985) conducted a study on group work and confirms that group work helps to promote a positive affective climate in a language classroom. Learners may feel less competitive when working in pairs or groups, and feel less anxious when reporting in class because they may feel they are representing the group. Quizzes and exams in language classrooms are usually achievement tests to examine whether the learners have acquired what they are supposed to learn. Therefore, it is important to always test what have been taught in class. Donley (1999) suggests always informing students of the format of a test and percentage of points of each part. Learners may feel less anxious when they know what and how they are going to be tested.

Explaining Chinese culture to learners may shorten the time needed to reduce the difficulty to get accustomed to the target culture when learning Chinese in a community speaking the target language. It is also important for instructors to understand the potential high anxiety in heritage learners of East Asian background, and work more on alleviating their language anxiety.

4.2 Alleviating language anxiety from grammar and vocabulary

Le (2004) and Shi (2007) report that grammar and vocabulary are the two areas which Mandarin learners attach most importance to. Learners become anxious when they feel grammar or vocabulary is too much or too difficult to learn. Ways to reduce the anxiety in grammar learning include simplified input, visual aids, better error correction methods, and appropriate amount of instruction. Tobia's (1980) model of three stages shows that language anxiety starts to take effect at the input stage and acts as a filter. Simpler input may reduce language anxiety and allow input to enter into the processing stage as much as possible. Lee and VanPatten (2003) suggest that the characteristics of simplified input for second language learners are slower rate, higher-frequency vocabulary, and repe-

tition of grammatical structures. Therefore, when a new vocabulary item or grammar pattern is introduced, follow-up activities need to be employed more than once. Visual aids also provide additional exposure to vocabulary and grammar. To supplemental oral input, instructors can choose to write on a blackboard, prepare handouts, or use computer aids. Other reasons for grammar to cause anxiety are frequent grammatical errors, too much material, and/or lack of grammar instruction (VanPattern & Glass, 1999). Again, it is important for instructors to deal with grammatical errors judiciously. Recasts and the Mistake Panel mentioned above can be good ways to handle the errors and minimize language anxiety. Grammar material needs to be reduced if learners become anxious over the overwhelming material they have been given. On the other hand, lacking grammar instruction can provoke anxiety, too. Most students believe that grammar is necessary and beneficial and may become anxious if instructor does not provide grammar instruction. Therefore, in a Mandarin classroom where communicative teaching method dominates, grammar input is also necessary and important.

Visual aids and word association can be two ways to reduce anxiety in vocabulary learning. Koch and Terrell (1991) asked the learners to rate classroom activities based on the feeling of comfort or nervousness. Using pictures to present vocabulary and acquisition of vocabulary through association are the two techniques rated as comfortable. Pictures may provide additional help by building a connection between the concrete image and the abstract Chinese orthography, especially for visual learners. Take the Chinese word 豐盛 'sumptuous' as example, a picture of a feast with a full table of dishes may help learners to associate the orthography with the image and easily recall its meaning. Another way to learn vocabulary is to help learners establish association among different characters. For example, for the word 脸 'face', the radical 月 means flesh or body parts. Instructor can associate it with other previously learned words carrying the same radical and meaning body parts, such as 肚 'stomach', 腹 'belly', 腿 'leg', 脚 'foot'. A simple explanation of etymology may help learners understand the character and remember the orthography. The character 豐 'harvest' is composed of 山 "mountain" and double 丰 "grains" at the top, meaning mountains of grains, and 豆 'a vessel'. The whole character means mountains of grains in a vessel; therefore, it is a harvest (Wieger, 1965). The etymology may also help learners feel more relaxed and more interested in learning characters, and may alleviate possible language anxiety in vocabulary learning.

4.3 Alleviating language anxiety on four skills

4.3.1 Listening

Listening is one of the areas that are most likely to provoke anxiety. Campbell (1999) reports that both males and females are more anxious about listening than other skills. There are several ways to reduce anxiety. A slower speaking rate is an effective way to reduce language anxiety in listening. Visual aids as mentioned above can also help to alleviate anxiety. Another effective way to reduce language anxiety in listening is to provide pre-listening activities to make input comprehensible (Vogely, 1999). The pre-listening activities can be a summary or outline of the text to be heard, a skim of the comprehension questions before listening, or a discussion about what learners know about the topic. For example, before listening to a passage about insurances in America, an instructor can assign the following two tasks as a pre-listening activity: a) Please work in pairs and talk about what kinds of insurances you or your family have purchased; and b) Please discuss whether it is necessary to purchase these insurances, and Why? The pre-listening activity may help learners recall the related vocabulary and sentence patterns, which helps to facilitate listening comprehension and reduce anxiety. Vogely (1999, p. 115) also lists some sample listening comprehension strategies: a) guess the meaning of words through context; b) use existing knowledge of the world; c) make use of visual cues; d) recognize cognates; e) listen for specific information; f) listen for the main idea; g) recognize the structural format of the discourse; h) recognize the function of the discourse; and i) recognize transitional words and phrases.

4.3.2 Speaking

Speaking is an important aspect in language learning, but it easily provokes anxiety. In order to make learners feel at ease when speaking, it is important to create a sense of community in the class for learners (Price, 1999). Opportunities for learners to get to know each other may help them establish cohesion and feel they are working together as one community. Group work can be another way to practice speaking and at the same time provide a secure feeling for learners. Representing a group to speak in class reduces the feeling of being confronted and evaluated. The time allowed for learners to prepare before speaking up in class also helps to reduce anxiety. In speaking, instructors need to focus more on what are being conveyed than the correctness of pronunciation and grammar. Overt error corrections may increase anxiety and interrupt the flows of communication. Instructors can employ recasts to give feedback and at the same time keep the flows of conversations. Overt corrections of tones will also increase

anxiety. Sanders (2008) claims that Chinese teachers should try to provide students with "the widest currency of acceptance throughout the Mandarin-speaking world" (p. 15). Therefore, again instructors need to put more emphasis on meaning.

4.3.3 Writing

To alleviate language anxiety in writing, instructors need to emphasize the process instead of the outcome of writing. It is a good way to teach students to start from brainstorming and outlines to help them get prepared for writing tasks (Leki, 1999). Two or more drafts for one writing task may make learners feel less anxious about evaluation, as they can improve themselves through drafts. Allowing students to write pinyin occasionally for the words they don't recall helps learners to focus on meaning expression and worry less about the forms. Instructors can provide choices of topics for learners to write, so that they can choose a familiar and interesting topic and worry less about not having enough to write about. Computer may also be a way to write with low language anxiety. Chatting rooms, online forums can allow learners to express their opinions in an informal way without feeling being confronted and evaluated based on the correctness of forms.

4.3.4 Reading

Reading may provoke anxiety, too. Ahmad (2013) and Li (1998) posit that sources that may trigger anxiety reading in a foreign language include unknown vocabulary and unfamiliar topics. In learning Chinese, unknown vocabulary is the major contributor to the anxiety because of the difficulty in learning Chinese characters and lack of cognates (Li, 1998). Therefore, as discussed before, instructors can use visual aids and word association with radicals to help learners' acquisition of Chinese words. Learners of Chinese may complain they understand each word and sentence, but cannot connect the dots to understand the passage. Lack of background or cultural knowledge may be the reason. Providing background or cultural information about a reading passage is also important. By introducing cultural background, instructor can help students feel less anxious about reading.

5. Conclusion

Language anxiety is commonly detected in a foreign or second language classroom. It greatly influences learners' language learning at the stages of input, processing, and output. The sources of language anxiety are various, including

the six sources proposed by Horwitz (Horwitz et al., 1986). The unrealistic beliefs of learners and instructors, and the interaction between them are the factors contributing most to the high language anxiety in a Mandarin classroom. Chinese culture can be the additional source for high language anxiety in Mandarin learning. In order to reduce language anxiety, instructors need to work on the language anxiety stemming from the above sources, as well as the anxiety from grammar and vocabulary teaching, and learning the four skills.

This paper summarizes research conclusions on language anxiety and its sources, and offers some suggestions for dealing with language anxiety in a Mandarin classroom. More future research is needed to examine the effectiveness of the proposed suggestions on alleviating language anxiety and provide general guidelines for language teachers in their own classrooms.

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《世界汉语教学》（Chinese Teaching in the World）1987 年创刊，为世界汉语教学学会会刊，由北京语言大学对外汉语研究中心承办，中国著名学者朱德熙教授、林焘教授、陈亚川教授、吕必松教授、赵金铭教授历任杂志主编或代主编，现任主编是张博教授。本刊被《中文核心期刊要目总览》确定为中国“语言学 / 汉语”类核心期，同时也是《中文社会科学引文索引》（CSSCI）来源期刊、《中国学术期刊（光盘版）》和 CNKI 中国期刊网收录期刊、美国 Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts （LLBA）收录期刊。

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《世界汉语教学》是汉语作为第二语言教学与研究的权威期刊，在海内外有广泛的学术影响。据中国人民大学书报资料中心的统计数据，2009 年本刊的转载率排名居于语言类期刊的第二位。另据《中国人文社会科学期刊学术影响力报告》（2009 版）的统计数据，《世界汉语教学》学术影响综合值在汉语类语言学期刊中排在第三位。

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利用网络喜剧小品培养初级语言能力[1]
Using Sketch Comedy Skits to Develop Language in Lower Level Chinese Classes

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摘要: 本文讨论如何利用短小有趣的网络喜剧小品提高初级中文班学生语言输出的质与量，特别是叙述能力。在充分参考前人相关研究的基础上，展示如何使用链式陈述，集中提问操练等方法，在课前预习、课堂操练和课后评估三个阶段，有步骤，有侧重地教导学生利用叙述策略，将视频材料中的戏剧性和故事性表达清楚。本文同时也考察并反思了教育技术和视频教学的结合情况，探讨如何充分利用现有技术提高课堂教学质量和互动程度。

关键词: 视频材料，网络，喜剧小品，叙述，课堂教学，初级中文

Abstract: This article introduces the utilization of sketch comedy skits that are commonly available online to help lower level students enhance their language output capacity, specifically the ability to describe and narrate. Based on an extensive review of previous studies, the article discusses how to employ techniques such as chain-narration and intensive question drills in a structured environment during pre-class preparation. In-class drills and post-class evaluations are then used so that students can be prepared to comprehend and make use of the dramatic and narrative devices found in the video to retell the story and thus develop proficiency. Reflecting on the integration of educational technologies and teaching with video materials, the article also considers improving the level of effectiveness and interaction in CFL classrooms with the technologies and materials available at hand.

Keywords: video materials, Internet, sketch comedy skits, narrate, classroom teaching, lower level Chinese

[1] 本文有幸得到主编张正生老师和两名匿名评审的指正，在此对他们的宝贵意见和建议表示衷心感谢。作者也有幸和中文教学界的多位学者探讨相关问题，借此机会也一并对他们表示感谢。文中疏浅和纰漏之处，望各位同仁包涵并多多指教。

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一、引言

若使用得当，视频材料能够促进对外汉语学习。一般的视频材料，如电影、电视剧、新闻片等，故事情节复杂，文学成分较高，涉及到的词汇和语法点也不容易掌握，所以教学设计倾向于在中高级阶段使用而跳过低年级（Walker, 1982; Zhang, 2009）。近年来，随着时代的发展，微电影以及迷你短剧开始在网络世界崭露头角。它选材广泛、制作精良、结构短小却富含戏剧性、语言简单又不失生动。充分加以利用，或许能填补视频材料教学在初级中文阶段使用的空白。本文以网络喜剧小品《屌丝男士》（下简称《男》）为例，论述如何利用视频，在初级中文教学中培养语言能力。分三部分。第一部分文献综述首先列举使用视频材料的优势以及原因，然后讨论课程设置和教学设计问题，即如何充分利用视频材料培养语言能力，特别是叙述能力。同时也考察教育技术在视频材料的制作和使用过程中扮演的角色。第二部分介绍笔者在课堂教学中对视频教材的使用以及教程制作的方方面面，包括选择题目、摘取语法结构和文化知识点、设计教学方案、制作习题、引导操练等等。最后一部分讨论学生反馈和老师经验，总结教学活动取得的成果和遇到的问题，并思考下一步努力的方向。

《男》是一部情景喜剧，由许多彼此独立的小短剧组成。每个故事时间不超过一分半钟，其生动的语言、富有感染力的表演、以及各种具有时代气息和代表性的场景，真实却又不失艺术地反映了当代中国社会的许多方面。

二、文献综述

作为声音、图像和情节的有机结合，视频材料在对外汉语教学活动中具有许多独特优势 (Da & Li, 2008; Zhou, 1999)。一段富含教学价值的视频，能够结合事件场景和人物表演，直观生动地展现语言在描述事件、获取信息、表达愿望、交换看法以及规劝他人等方面的具体交际功能，帮助学生接触富有生活气息的地道用法，加深对词汇句型等语言内容的理解和掌握，并试图设身处地去体会与语言文化密切相关的思考维度和话语特色 (Xu, 2009)。比如，初级汉语教学录像带《学习中文》里某个片段涉及到如何判断语境，然后用带有讽刺意味的“不谢”回答他人不得体的感谢 (陈&郑, 1997)。又，围绕电影编写的汉语教材《北京故事》和《陌生的朋友》中，作者充分利用视频材料的优势，着重操练了许多富有语篇或者语境特质的词汇、句型以及固定用法 (马, 1989 &1993;)。此外，在介绍诸如“不搬家还行”、“我才不相信你说的话呢”等语言点时，难以用单纯文字讲解和缺乏语境的课后练习让学

生掌握，使用视频可以起到事半功倍的教学效果(Tang, 1996, p. 293)。

视频材料常通过艺术方式展开故事情节，展现人物冲突、描绘场景、渲染气氛等，具有高度的戏剧性。围绕视频设计的教学活动可以很方便地利用这一点，在学生和材料之间建立知识关联和情感关联，有效激发学习兴趣，提升学习效果 (韩, 2005; 郝, 2004; 张, 2011)。专业制作的视频，如中国第一套大型对外汉语教学片《你好北京》，巧妙利用各种喜剧情节，带出丰富的文化知识点，充分展现目标词汇，短语以及语法结构的语用功能，学者评价为“十分耐看...可说是习、赏兼得。”(张, 1995, p. 112) 。非专业视作的视频，如“一个难忘的周末”、“一次糟糕的约会”等学生作品，在老师精心设计和指导下，紧密结合课本内容和生活经验，调动学生创作和表演的积极性，鼓励他们结合已有知识进行创作，通过撰写剧本、拍摄视频、课堂分享等活动巩固所学内容，培养语言能力 (Zhang, 2013)。

视频材料还能通过声音和动态画面的混合输入，有效减少认知负荷 (Plass & Jones, 2005; Chun & Plass, 2000)。根据双重编码理论（Dual Coding Theory），和语言相关的认知活动建立在专门处理符号信息的语言系统和处理图像信息的非语言系统之上，两套系统彼此独立且互相协作，分别产生符号编码和模拟编码(Paivio, 1991, 2007)。在教学活动中如能建立符号与图像之间的关联，引入声音信号加强对符号结构的刺激，可促使学习者掌握从两套系统同时提取信息的能力，更为灵活地将信息运用在语言表达中，并帮助他们在部分甚至完全遗忘一种编码的情况下，用另一种编码恢复对信息的记忆，从而强化理解，减轻学习负担 (Swaffar & Vlatten, 1997)。关于这一点，对外汉语词汇学习方面已经有较为清楚的研究。突出例子之一是音视频单词卡(Zhang, 2009)。学生既可以像观看视频一般地观看卡片上的生词、拼音、注解等文字信息，又能如使用磁带一样聆听信息的中文朗读，还能一边读，一边听。结果表明，卡片除能增加学生和词汇的接触机会之外，也可以照顾不同的学习风格（如有人偏好视觉图像，有人偏好声音信号）。老师不妨利用视频材料天生具有“绘声绘色”的特点，辅以适当的教学干预和学习材料，便于学生借助双重编码，相对轻松且更为持久有效地记忆信息。

利用视频教对外汉语首见于七十年代早期台北国际联合汉语培训项目 (Buck, 1974)。较早且较有影响力的研究首推吴伟克(Galal Walker)的视频文本(video-text)教学法，主要针对高年级学生 (Walker, 1982)。其教学步骤可概括为先阅读、再讲解、然后问答、最后叙述。老师先让学生阅读视频材料的文字脚本，然后一面讲解内容情节，一面播放视频，适当时停下来，方便学生提问和做笔记。再依据视频中的某个场景，某句对话等细节创作一段基准叙述 (base narration)，通过集中提问操练法 (intensive question drills)，变换多

种句式对从不同角度对这段叙述进行提问，最大限度利用这些小片段，强化语法和发音，练习口语。接下来老师指定某位学生讲解同一段视频并向同学提问，自己则在一旁观察、引导和纠错。最后，学生用新教的生词和语法结构，参考老师先前提出的基准叙述，复述视频片段。

该方法的产生有效弥补了传统教材的不足。彼时，即八十年代前后，学者们通过研究跨文化和跨语言交际发现，自然交际活动中的非语言交际，包括肢体动作、说话者和听众的距离、面部表情以及眼神交流等等，所占比重相当之大，甚至远远超过了语言交际 (Berkowitz, 1982; Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990)。而外语课堂一贯做法是强调语言内容本身，往往不自觉地忽略甚至故意回避了自然交际活动所必然带有的情境反应和生活气息。相比之下，视频材料的优势便是制造身临其境的现场感和反复观看揣摩的学习机会 (Schneider & Bennion, 1983)。一段适合学生语言程度的视频材料加上若干精心设计的教学活动，不仅能让很多难以言传的文化信息得到充分表达，更为学生提供必要的心智图景，帮助他们将所学知识内在化，从屏幕上的故事和人物出发，向内审视人物心理活动，向外比较文化间的异同，然后尝试用目的语表达和思考 (Hodapp, 1978; Jensen & Vinther 1978, 1983)。在对外汉语教学界，这种方法很长一段时间内占据着视听说教学的主导地位(冯, 1995; 马, 1991)。

近年来视频材料教学在高级中文班上的应用得到进一步发展。据观察，暂且不论文化陶冶和美学欣赏，单单培养叙述能力这一支，便发展出许多种教学活动，比三十年前丰富了许多。一方面，有学者观察到某些视频课堂灌输被动知识有余而激发主动使用不足，提出视频教学要让学生 1）模仿视频内容并且学会主动地应用在日常交际中；2）开展课堂辩论，在陈述自己观点的基础上随机应变地回应老师或者同学的提问和评论；3）描述视频章节，加入个人观后感，如对文化背景的理解，关于故事情节的看法和遐想等（Tang, 1996）。另一方面，为充分利用视频教材的互动性，有学者设法让视频材料对课堂讲练的三个阶段进行全面渗透：视频材料不再是有益但可有可无的补充，而变成了主课前期导入，教学内容主体和教学活动导体(Zhang, 2013)。第一阶段侧重点是接触新内容，激活已有知识，寻找视频材料和现有教材间的关联。第二阶段着重是让学生“说话”，可以轮流说（学生扮演剧中角色）、别人说（转述别人的话）、重复说（复述情景）、概括说（总结故事）、解释说（详细展开情节）等等。第三阶段主要通过扩展、切割、替换、联想等手法，利用已有材料进行二次创作。

在初中级汉语教学里，情况有一些变化。虞莉发现，许多教学活动因为着力点在培养学生高级口语能力，如描绘、讨论、争辩等，所以强调语料的

深度和长度。那些篇幅较长，情节复杂且人物冲突频繁的电影更受青睐（Yu, 2012）。为充分汲取几分钟视频里的营养，学生必须耗费大量时间和精力，导致二十分钟视频大概需五十课时方可全面覆盖（*c.f.* Walker, 1982）。从现实角度出发，她认为针对初中级学生的视频教学为克服老师耗时、学生费力的弱点，不能照搬高级阶段的教学模式。在培养表达和交流能力为主的大方向下面，不去过分追求对视频细节的描述，有关视频的讨论点到为止即可。只要学生观影之后有所感，有所言，能够和同学分享自己的理解和看法即可。通过研究，她还发现以电影为主的视频材料对中等程度以及偏下的学生而言，主要的缺点不仅在于影片的词汇和句型重复率过低，也由于这些"高级地道"的词汇和句型与普通教材的内容相距甚远，学生不容易将这些新内容归入自己的知识网络，有机整合到语言输出中。因此她主张老师绕开不常见的词汇和不熟悉的句型，带领学生在课堂上通过引导句，一对一问答，借助链式叙述（chain-narration）和积少成多（build-up）等操练方法，积零碎短句为长难整句，通过老师纠错、小组讨论、自我评分以及互相评分等方法，重点培养学生对视频片段的叙述能力，不强求学生完全理解视频的每一部分、每个细节。该教学法突出特点之一是十分注意教学周期的完整性，从课前预习到课后考察，从老师提供示范和支架（scaffolding）到学生期末的反馈和评语，每一个环节都紧扣教学目的，让学生用自己力所能及的语言回答简单问题，表达观后感。

当学生中文水平处于起步阶段，只能在老师建构的语境中回答某些特定问题，完成基本交际任务时，视频材料仍有用武之地。一次使用卡通材料的教学实验提供了一个优美的范例（Teng, 2001）。老师采用"前期导入"（advance organizer），在学生正式学习视频材料之前介绍相关信息，包括故事的时代背景、关键词、情节提要等，并通过描述在学生脑海中勾勒故事场景。第一遍观看视频时，老师关掉声音和字幕，让学生默看，猜测人物活动的目的和意义，努力辨认材料里的文化符号。然后是全班讨论：学生发表自己的看法，老师在一旁引导，帮助他们建立对视频的大致猜想。下一步，学生用正常方式观看，全力理解，检验自己的猜测是否准确并分享看法。接下来，老师讲解生词、语法和句型，分发课堂练习，让学生在理解视频的基础上，匹配人物和他们的话语，并根据故事情节发展，排列出正确的时间顺序。最后，通过一系列活动，如集体讨论、创作小短剧、两人一组创作对话、选择剧中某个人物进行描述等，巩固对视频内容的理解。为照顾学生中文水平，学生认读汉字的能力几乎不在考虑之中，教学对文化元素有一定倾斜，写作也占有相当比例。

使用视频材料进行教学，除了采用适当的教学方法以外，还离不开教育

技术。首先，老师需要给学生提供多次反复观看视频的便利条件。许多年前，视频播放设备尚未普及，语言实验室几乎是唯一的解决渠道：将一部分观影活动转移到此，能节约课堂时间，提高授课效率。如今 DVD（包括播放器和碟片）已经十分廉价，大型视频网站也相当成熟，观看视频已变成一件简单方便且几乎不需要任何成本的活动。普通的视频播放完全可以交给 YouTube 等网站。第二，老师应当借助技术，帮助学生理解、回忆和查找视频内容，避免误读。实践证明，很多学生观看视频时，因为同时面对许多不同性质，不同要求的任务，有可能会力不从心，顾此失彼，出现信息过载的现象（Zhou, 1999）。这是多媒体教学主要短板之一，视频材料教学尤甚 (Gromik, 2007; Seferoglu, 2007)。有学者发现学生观看一部中国电影后，受困于文化隔阂，不熟悉中国人相貌，再加上翻译的纰漏，一边要拼尽全力去认脸和记名字，一边又要接受背景信息，体会文化独特性，抓住故事主线发展。但结果反而连影片最基本的故事情节都把握不住 (Mu & Zhang, 2005)。他们的解决方法是编写电子化教程（digitalized textbook），制作图像、录像片段和声音片段的索引，然后系统地编排成“映画书”模块。该模块有文本索引，视觉索引以及问题讨论三大部分。文本索引用超链接的形式将文本和影像以及短片对应，主要包括人物姓名和事件情节。视觉索引归纳影片的主旨，通过并置两幅静态图片或视频，以对比方式呈现某个情节或场景。讨论部分借助回答问题、对应图文、排列事件等形式加强学生对材料的理解。涉及到的技术工具包括四个方面：课程内容工具，将课程内容储存在互联网上；沟通工具，包括论坛、电邮、聊天、日历提醒等；评估和活动工具，如测验、自我测试、留/交作业、学生主页等；以及学生工具，主要用来查看分数和学习进度。

除此之外，有学者为了实现视频材料和 PowerPoint 软件的结合，专门撰文研究如何仔细切分 DVD 光盘内容，让视频的每个细节，每个片段都精确地与文本材料融为一体 (Xu, 2009)。经过专业软件处理的视频具有文本特性，学生和老师能如使用电子书一般，向前或向后跳跃和略读，查找关键字，增添注释，同时方便地调出声音和影像。更为前沿的方法之一是搜集大量视频，提取其文字脚本建立语料库，然后通过一系列复杂算法，让用户可以对语料库进行各种带有附加条件的搜索。搜索结果以超链接形式显示，点击便可观看对应的视频片段 (Jeng, Wang & Huang, 2009)。

三、教学任务和设计

根据以上文献综述所得到的结论，经验和操作方法，结合低年级学生实

际语言能力和学习情况，笔者特意放松对脚本文字的理解和听力训练，以免学生将精力过多放在理解和记忆生词方面。这样做能保证教学活动分配足够多的时间给巩固课本知识，了解文化内容，培养口语表达等主要教学目标。一方面依靠传统课本，进行正常教学，另一方面抽出时间使用视频材料，有机结合两者，让视频从不同角度补充课本内容并推动语言学习。具体而言，教学设计主要落实以下四方面：

1）教学目标基于问答式操练法，逐步引导培养学生的叙述能力，用较为有限的词汇和语法，有层次有结构地把陈述对象表达清楚。教学强调语篇策略和叙述工具的使用，突出叙述任务，让学生掌握各种技巧，包括以时间为序，以观察角度转变为序，以人物立场变化为序等，对事件进行罗列枚举，比较对照。实际语言交流中的许多技巧，如话题的引入、过渡和插入，唤起听众注意的引导语，表明叙述人情况的自述，以及纯粹拖延时间，让说话者有思考机会的语言填料，都可在适当时给学生介绍。

2）串联零散语言知识，将其分门别类。用故事联想，情景重现，辨别线索等方法，突出语言学习的动态过程以及构建语言表达的行为过程。教学要特别留意知识的全面性和系统性，让学生先零距离接触生动丰富的生活场景，再借助回忆，在脑海中重复和场景有关的语言要素，将某几个知识点串联成连贯的叙述，最终整合各种零散知识，建立系统化且带有层次和步骤的语言输出。

3）深挖视频材料丰富表现能力，不仅限于眼前所见。因为材料长度很短，大多在一分钟以内，至多不超过两分钟，对镜头之外的故事添枝加叶地联想，能够激发学生好奇心，活跃课堂。老师可以通过一系列假设性问题引导学生展开想象，揣摩人物内心活动，推测各种场景里的故事的不同发展，创造性排序，去仔细品味语言，包括镜头语言和脚本语言，是如何产生冲突，张力以及跳跃的，寻找自身知识系统里的漏洞和盲点，达到拓展能力和查漏补缺的效果。

4）注重评测和分享。以往研究表明，视频材料画面生动，内容丰富，稍不注意就有可能喧宾夺主，语言教学变成文化讨论或者影视欣赏。教学设计要注意引导，确保可以在某个特定的范围内组织语言而尽量回避那些容易让课堂偏离中文学习的讨论。提醒学生既然自己的语言能力尚不能达到陈述复杂思想的程度，则应主动选择能够谈论的话题，切不可完全受喜好左右而选择英文或者索性保持沉默。此外，对于《男》剧以及其他网络喜剧中固有的中国式幽默，若学生有费解之处，老师不妨对幽默段子的文化背景进行点到为止的介绍，帮助学生理解。课堂教学的重点始终紧扣培养语言能力这一大目标。老师可事先给出已学过的句子结构，关联词以及关键词作为叙述框架，

确保语言活动在框架中进行，并提供评估标准，提醒学生时常参照。此外，学生之间互相提问和彼此分享也相当重要。老师应该提供机会，让学生通过小组讨论和团队合作完成较为复杂的任务，并在社交媒体上分享。

课时安排方面，笔者认为两个课时（每课时五十分钟）最为理想。一个课时难以全面覆盖，而三个课时又会过多占用正常教学时间。两课之间最好间隔数日，方便学生消化理解。

四、准备视频和学习材料

视频材料需要处理才能更好顺应教学设计要求。第一步是选取合适的片段。《男》是搜狐视频制作的一部现代都市轻喜剧，演员阵容主要是当代中国热门的草根文化人物，时有当红名人客串。他们主要利用民间笑话和互联网幽默段子为故事原本，表演一本正经却难掩故意的呆傻，透着都市小白领和蚁族面对生存压力时，不自觉的夸张和神经质。剧中穿插着各种流行文化元素，所使用的音乐、服饰、话题等都相当时髦。采用大量的市井语言、无厘头动作和双关表达，勾勒出被消费社会拒绝却又消费上瘾的青年一代。该剧由若干彼此独立的小段子组成，没有统一连贯的叙事结构。男一号扮演的角色，时而是职业男性，时而是居家小男人，时而是准备考研的大学生，时而又是街头的小商贩。身边搭戏的演员也根据剧情需要不断变化身份。除去片头片尾，一集约有 14 分钟主体内容，以每个短剧平均时常一分半计算，约包含 10 个小短剧。目前共有十二集上映。

笔者采用 Windows 操作系统自带的 Movie Maker 软件，将材料切割成独立单元，每个单元单独存为一个文件，并对每个片段的内容，对话和场景等信息进行笔录，提取关键词，汇总整理成电子文档。接下来对片段进行挑选，入选四十个，每个片段给出编号，便于标记和查找。取舍标准主要根据故事剧情和语言内容，力求在不增添过多生词和陌生语言点的前提下，找到既适合学生现实语言状况，又和某一课主题或语法点相关的片段。笔者中文课所用教材为《中文听说读写》（Integrated Chinese），一年级分上下册，共二十个单元。通过对视频和单元内容进行研究和比较，笔者为每一单元找到若干对应视频。为巩固学习效果，加强记忆，同一段视频可能在不同单元多次出现。第三步对某些涉及到多个场景，画面感较强的片段，专门挑选影片里能够表达故事情节和戏剧冲突的时刻，进行视频截图。这些截图将被插入到 PowerPoint 以及课后练习中，方便老师利用静态图片直观地概括影片。第四步是将入选的视频片段和截图等归纳整理到一个网页上，方便学生观看和下载，但不提供给学生文字脚本。

除注释生词和简略讲解语法之外，学习材料的准备活动还包括制作基准叙述，讨论题目和课后练习等。以《公车让座》片段为例。该片段对应《中文听说读写》第十八课。故事讲公车上一位大妈没有座位，正站着，突然听到背后不远处有一个小伙儿，让她过来坐。大妈慢慢走过去以后，小伙却让身边的一位大爷站起来，让出座位。大妈坐在了大爷的位子上，小伙似乎觉得自己做了件好事。留下心安理得的大妈和十分困惑的大爷。片段长约四十秒，文字脚本见附录一。

出于对教材和学生情况的熟悉，笔者意识到即便看似如此平常的对话，其中的丰富层次和复杂结构，特别是情绪化的感叹词（哎哟、哎），戏剧化的口语（你说、你们也），以及固定表达（这都应该的）等都不在一年级范围以内。如果不经过一定处理，直接让学生观看恐怕会产生负面效果。尤其是“上这边来坐”和“您上这坐来”，灵活的词序和虚化灵活的“来”字，要是展开讲，容易让学生觉得中文语法既零乱又随性。为此特意拟出一些问题，供课前预习使用，提问的同时也帮助理解。某些通用词汇，如“故事”、“小伙”等，老师已经提前教给学生，见附录二。同时，老师应该向学生明确，戏剧表演，特别是喜剧表演并不等同于日常生活，即使这些表演时常发生在熟悉的生活场景中。《公车让座》以及其他视频里多少带有荒诞的成分，只是艺术表现手法，博取观众的笑声而已。

五、教学课时一

和课本相比，视频材料总有一些“不在范围”，即超过当前语言水平的生词，语法和句型等。这既可以成为视频材料教学的独特价值，也有可能和口语训练相抵触。鉴于此，第一课的活动一方面要探讨总结视频内容，另一方面又要和课本结合，有意识地将语言输入往课本内容靠近，帮助学生利用有限的语言知识去驾驭一些看似复杂的话题。除了注意控制预习的难度和相关度之外，笔者还试着透过预习材料，让学生对接下来的活动和练习做到心中有数，进而能更好地集中精力，发展叙述能力。仍以《公车让座》为例。在即将完成第十八课教学时，笔者将视频材料链接和视频材料教学的课前预习的讲义发给学生，要求他们观看以后完成讲义上的问题。下一次上课时播放视频，让学生口头回答，纠错的同时提供标准答案。对于以“为什么”结构的问题格外照顾，力图让学生说出完整的因果链。如果一开始比较困难，则可以采用积少成多的方法，从关键词开始，逐渐拓展成整句，再加上关联词并复述几次。如回答“开始的时候，大妈为什么没有位子？”，应设法学生说出如下回答：（划线部分代表第十八课的词汇或语法点）

1）因为公共汽车上人很多，又没有人愿意给大妈让位子，所以她没有位子，只能站着。

或者：

2）公共汽车上有很多人，又没有人觉得大妈站着会难受，所以就没有人给她让位子。

或者：

3）大妈的身体很棒，所以我们不用担心。站一下不会被累坏。

实际教学中，部分学生以为说出“公共汽车有很多人，所以她没有位子”，便能过关。此时老师不能放松要求，应该进一步跟进，可以如下操作：

老师：公共汽车上（重读）有很多人。那有人愿意让位子吗？

学生：没有。

老师：没有什么？

学生：没有人愿意让位子。

老师：给谁让位子？

学生：给大妈让位子。

老师：句子。

学生：没有人愿意给大妈让位子。

老师：没有位子，她只能怎么样？

学生：她只能站。

老师：是“站”还是“站着”？

学生：站着。

老师：（指向黑板上事先写下的“因为”，“又”），因为.....

学生：因为公共汽车有很多人，又没有人愿意给大妈让位子，所以她没有位子，只能站着。

老师此时最好继续跟进，不轻易放弃已经得到的语言成果，可以用类比的方法引导学生进行引申和发挥。

老师：所以，大妈只能站着。这是“不好的公共汽车”（用手势和表情说明此表达是一种即兴和幽默）。如果大妈在“好的公共汽车”，她会怎么样？

学生：她会坐着。

老师：为什么？(指向黑板上事先写下的“虽然”、“但是”、“站着”)

学生：虽然公共汽车有很多人，但是有人愿意给大妈让位子，所以她有位子，不用站着。

因题目数量较多，老师不用按顺序提问，实践证明随机发问效果更佳。已经回答的问题，也可重复使用，既能加强记忆，也能给最初没有回答该问

题的学生又一次机会。

接下来全班专门讨论情景复述。笔者发现，一般而言，答案偏向两个极端。部分学生多少带有畏难情绪，回答不过聊聊数语。“三个人，在公共汽车上”很具有代表性。另一种倾向是先用英文构思，然后在翻译软件和词典的帮助下转成中文，却不太注意灵活应用已经学过的中文知识，结果错误连连。如“一个完整的人巴士”让人不知所云。私底下询问方知是“A bus full of people”的软件翻译结果。针对这两种情况，笔者认为学生单独回答负担过重，暴露出来的问题的种类和形成原因也因人而异，不宜讲评。于是将他们编为以三人为单位的小组，可以自由组合也可以接受指定。有五分钟时间讨论和汇总三人答案，在班上分享。所有小组完毕后，老师一一点评，指出典型错误并进行纠正。小组中有一人朗读答案，另一人记录老师点评，第三个人负责将老师评讲过的报告输入电脑，隔天以电子邮件形式发给老师。

此外，为降低对视频的陌生感，老师可以让学生回答讲义问题之前，设法利用视频材料帮助学生回忆已学过的内容。“公共汽车”便是一个较好的切入点。

老师：你坐过公共汽车吗？

学生：坐过。

老师：坐公共汽车好不好，为什么？

学生 1：坐公共汽车好，因为很便宜。

学生 2：坐公共汽车不好，因为太慢了。

老师：所以我们可以说（在黑板上写下“Adj 是 Adj”）

学生 3：坐公共汽车好是好，可是太慢了。

老师：不错。那什么公共汽车最好？（在黑板上写下“又...又...”）

学生 4：公共汽车又便宜又慢是最好。

老师：便宜但是慢，不好吧。而且，你不能用“是最好”。

学生 4：公共汽车又便宜又快，最好。

老师：对了。如果公共汽车又便宜，又快，又方便，那就最好了。

老师应该善于利用任何话题，非常熟悉已学过的词汇和句型，能够在各种场合将适当的知识点融入教学，让学生明白即便是“坐公车”这样稍微陌生的话题，也能用已有的知识进行把握。

六、教学课时二

第一课时到第二课时有数日间隔。老师和学生均可利用这段时间继续对视频材料用功。第二课时主要任务是在熟练问答的基础上培养叙述能力，结

合零星关键词和语篇策略，逐步扩展语言输出长度和复杂度。如果既定任务难度较大，无法当堂完成，可考虑顺延到下一课。老师在课前根据学生提交的情景复述，撰写基准叙述，上课时以幻灯片形式呈现，标注重点词句，提醒学生注意利用各种句式和句子结构，主动尝试不同的叙述策略。老师对《公车让座》某几个场景的基准叙述如下：

1）现在我要找三个人。两男一女（i.e., 两个男的一个女的）：小伙，老大爷和老大妈。小伙今年二十多岁，长得很帅或者有一点儿帅，都可以。老大爷差不多七十岁。大妈也是六七十岁。大爷和大妈看上去差不多一样大，长得不好看也不难看。我说清楚了吗？记得住吗？就是三个人，两男一女。小伙好像是大学生或者刚刚开始工作。大妈和大爷好像已经不上班了。他们穿什么衣服呢？让我想想，他们就穿平常的衣服吧。小伙可以戴眼镜，这样就更像大学生了。
(Note: the proximate expressions to narrate fictitious and/or uncertain situations)

2）你们三个人。来，大妈您站在这里，站在小伙的前面，背对（with one's back to)着小伙，站着。对了，很好。然后，小伙你到大妈后面去坐着。坐好，好。大爷那您就坐在小伙的对面。开始的时候，大妈麻烦你看着窗（Chuāng, window）外。小伙你看着大妈。现在你们准备一下。我说开始，我们才开始。听明白了吗？有没有什么问题？
（Note: the ways to describe the positions of people in a setting)

考虑到学生目前的语言能力，某些和文化细节有关的语言成分被简化或者省略。现实生活中导演不太可能完全按照基准叙述那样和助理沟通，这是应该提醒学生注意的地方，让他们明白初级教学口语和日常口语之间难免会有距离。第一段描写有利于复习先前学过的近似表达方法，观察并学习人们说出心中愿景时带有的试探性和不确定性。第二段描写突出人物的姿态和彼此之间的方位。老师着重强调两段描写里表示语篇策略的功能表达，如“就是”、“像是”、“来”、“对了”、“小伙你”，等等，目的是要让学生明白，这些看上去不太起眼的细节，可以让叙述变得更为生动自然，值得学习者熟练掌握。基准叙述呈现完毕以后，学生对视频已经相当熟悉，接下来老师通过积少成多的提问策略，一步步地引导学生复述故事。这不仅是简单的问答的活动，而是通过利用语篇策略，让学生体会，如何聚焦陈述，将焦点从一个场景过渡到另一个场景，并插入自己的见解、看法、疑惑、感受等等。这是一场十分耗时耗力的活动，不但考验老师是否真正熟悉教材，在串联已学过内

容的同时回避超出范围的内容，而且考验学生对所学知识掌握的牢固程度。因篇幅所限在此不展开，仅交代关于最后一幕的语言操练。

老师：大妈后来（重读，事先写在黑板上）坐下了，她坐在哪儿了？

学生：她坐在位子上了。

老师：谁的位子上？

学生：大爷的位子上。

老师：句子

学生：大妈后来坐下了，坐在大爷的位子上。

老师：那老大爷呢？

学生：他看大妈。

老师：看大妈，还是看着大妈？

学生：看着大妈。

老师：高兴吗他？

学生：不高兴。

老师：句子。

学生：他看着大妈，他不高兴。

老师：（指向黑板上写下的“心里”）

学生：他看着大妈，他心里不高兴。

老师：第二个“他”（手势做出引号状)可以不要。

学生：他看着大妈，心里不高兴。

老师：很不高兴还是有一点儿不高兴。

学生：有一点儿不高兴。

老师：他又（重读）看了谁？

学生：他又看了小伙。

老师：他又看了一眼（重读）小伙，那小伙高兴吗？

学生：小伙很高兴

老师：句子（指着黑板上的“后来”）。

学生：后来大妈坐下了，坐在大爷的位子上。大爷看着大妈，心里有一点儿不高兴。他又看了一眼小伙，可是小伙很高兴。

老师：那大爷明白怎么回事吗？（指向事先写下的“一...都...”）

学生：他一点儿都不明白怎么回事。

老师：一起。

学生：后来大妈坐下了，坐在大爷的位子上。大爷看着大妈，心里不高兴。他又看了一眼小伙，可是小伙很高兴。大爷一点都不明白怎么回事。

笔者发现，让学生说出最后一段叙述在使用视频教材初期确实困难。主要原因是学生习惯了用一问一答的方式和老师交流。突然被推向成段成篇的叙述活动，很多人显得力不从心：他们不但对叙述事件常用到的句子结构，关联词以及语篇工具不够熟悉，而且短时记忆中文语言的能力也十分有限，很难将脑海里超过二十个字以上的句子完整说出来，时不时说了前半句，忘了后半句。老师除了在黑板上提前板书关键词和句法结构以外，还要提醒学生在“积少成多”的问答练习时及时做笔记，以免他们到后来连点成片的阶段突然忘记。正如文献综述里许多学者指出的那样，要让学生达到上文操练的语言水平仿佛逆水行舟，阻力相当大。比如“一...都”结构，在课上换了好几个学生才得到完整正确的答案。不过，和最后学生的能力成长相比，这些努力是值得的。尽早培养大段说中文的意识和能力，不但可以促进学生继续深入学习中文，还能进一步强化他们的学习方法和技巧，特别是处理陌生语言输入的能力，这对强调语料地道真实的高年级尤为重要。

七、课后评估

单纯的课堂操练基本上只能限于问答形式，容易让学生对来自老师的教学支架过于依赖，忽略主动拓宽知识面，探索叙述策略和反复锤炼自身语言的重要性。因此它虽是培养叙述能力的重要环节，但在发展复杂表达和高级思维能力方面作用有限。针对这种情况，教学设计应该充分重视评估以及测试，让视频材料真正成为教学内容的有机组成部分。笔者在此略过多选、填空、判断是非等题型，专门论述写作评估。这不仅是因为填空多选等题型的出题套路比较固定，还因为写作活动留给学生更多发挥空间，有利于他们更好地复习和巩固，也相对更加困难，更加耗时。

就写作评估的形式而言，初级阶段的课后活动建议以呈现（presentation）和再现（representation）两点为基本向外发散，督促学生用汉语在书写中思考和表达。“呈现”忠于原故事，学生对其进行概括和陈述，包括背景、人物、事件、动作、冲突、内心活动等。“再现”侧重点是学生观看材料之后产生的感受和联想，包括对人物的看法，对结局的理解，对情节发展其他可能性的想象等。老师需为呈现活动和再现活动制定各自的评分标准，供学生参考。此标准对所有呈现或者再现题目通用，方便让学生尽快熟悉活动要求，老师也能节省精力，不必为了不同的视频材料制定不同的标准。每道写作题目应设定最低字数，并附带若干句型、语法点和词汇供学生参考。写作成绩计入总分。不计分的学生作文以电子布告栏（BBS）的形式公布，有利于同学间相互对比和竞争。

就写作评估产生的语言输出的质量和长度而言，老师应该鼓励学生知难而进，大胆使用课堂中讲到的叙述结构和语言点。笔者的实践表明，大多数学生虽能凑齐字数，也能有意识地靠近参考句型和语法点，但语言的复杂程度普遍欠佳，叙述策略的应用不尽人意，容易出现平铺直叙，有一说一的流水账现象。这或许不能简单地从学习动力上寻找答案，应该和学生接触的语料（主要是课文）注重会话而淡化叙述有关。以《中文听说读写》为例，一年级第一部分共有课文二十篇，其中四篇为叙述性质，第二部分课文数量不变，但叙述文章减少到只有一篇。比例失调的结果是，学生除了老师提供的基准叙述之外，对叙述任务的了解和操练都严重欠缺，拉清单式的写作于是成为许多学生唯一觉得有把握的叙述方法。这也侧面反映了使用视频材料进行教学的突出优点。

八、和教学有关的教育技术

虽然视频材料教学本身牵涉到教育技术，但无论从硬件要求还是软件配套而言，播放视频很大程度上已经正常化。体现在日常教学中，视频材料教学和教育技术的结合似乎从八十年代到现在并没有太多实质性进展。当时的录像机，遥控器以及定格画面功能，到如今也仅发展成为电子化视频而已。虽能通过超链接方便地精确定位，省去倒带的麻烦，学生和教育技术的互动依然非常有限。笔者曾尝试让学生为每段视频添加英文字幕。不过很快发现，除了耗费更多时间和精力操作电脑之外，添加字幕和将脚本翻译成英文在语言学习上并无本质差别。反而是完成作业的过程中，学生在电脑上进行的写作，查字典，和同学以及老师沟通等活动，展现出了教育科技的独特优势。和传统纸笔写作相比，打字当然更快更容易。学生因此可以更加集中精力培养叙述能力，不必过多地纠缠书写文字等细节。此外，电子文档带有字数统计功能，对学生完成规定作文字数是一个有益的督促。

应该看到，当初一个颇具规模的中文教学中心只能负担起一台录像机，并且为了节省成本昂贵的录像带，不得不在录取节目时仔细挑选的时代早已过去。大型视频分享网站 YouTube 官方数据显示，该网站每月播放 60 亿小时的视频，每分钟接纳 100 小时的视频上传。如此巨大且免费的视频资源已经让许多教育者看到潜在利用价值，其中较为突出的是 FluentU。这是一家专门利用 YouTube 视频进行语言教学的网站，它从广告、电影、电视剧以及教学录像中选取了许多具有语言教学价值的视频片段，对语言内容按程度进行分级，配以中英文字幕、词汇表、单词卡片和句型练习等。

沿着这条思路，笔者相信让学生自拍视频应该是下一阶段视频材料教学

的主要发力点。从教学角度看，既然学生通过上述活动，手中积累了大量文本（包括课前预习，课堂练习和评估活动等环节的），那么让他们拍摄相关视频然后分享则能够进一步巩固学习成果，对语言学习发挥长效作用。从技术上讲，如今因为智能手机的普及，拍摄以及上传高质量视频只需举手之劳。有学者让学生指定范围内自选题目，拍摄一段一到三分钟的视频短片(Chen, 2008)。每个学生都要贡献想法，参加脚本创作和出镜表演。从研究任务要求、选择题目、选择队友、学习语法和词汇，到创作剧本、排练和演出，学生需团结协作，接受老师指导，而老师则从发音、声调、语法、表现、创意等几方面对学生的作品进行评估。这项活动取得了良好的效果，和其他类似实验结果一致(Gersten & Tlustý, 1998; O'Donoghue & Cochrane, 2010)。

最后一个问题是教育技术的负面影响，即学生使用翻译软件的问题。这种现象在平时作业里偶有发生，但视频材料教学中出现频率有较大上升。这和活动本身的性质有密切关系。如上文所述，既然要求学生在数字环境下开展活动，查电子词典和用翻译软件造句便只有一步之遥。面对许多集翻译和字典功能为一体的软件，学生或许不太容易抗拒使用翻译软件的便利。同时，许多学生发现自己现有的语言能力无法表达心中的英文构思，于是想走翻译软件的捷径。对这一点要疏堵兼备。平时老师应反复告诫学生不得使用翻译软件，一旦被发现后果将十分严重，并通过实例演示翻译软件容易露出破绽的地方，如陌生且错误的语法，超出课本范围的词汇等。老师也可以将课本的重点内容，包括词汇、句型、语法等列为“得分点”，告诉学生在语言输出里必须包含一定数量的得分点才能达标。经验表明，使用翻译软件的同时又兼顾课本内容是难以实现的。这是堵的方面。疏导方面主要是及时针对学生的语言问题进行讲解，并提醒他们避免使用某些表达以免语言能力出现匮乏。老师发现问题之后，要能够针对问题背后的深层次原因，举一反三地评讲。

九、结论

视频是现代生活的重要组成部分。它集声音和动态图像为一体，既包含了相当数量的文本，也能够引发人们用各种话语去转述、谈论以及想象。在拍摄、观看和分享视频日益方便的今天，视频材料教学应该再次受到对外汉语教育者重视。和七、八十年代前辈相比，我们拥有的教育技术更为先进和多元，如何尽早在中文教学里展开和语言输出相关的视频教学也变得更加迫切。不同于动辄包含十几个人物，几千字台词的大制作，精心制作的微视频或许更为适合中文教学的实际情况。目前已经有相当数量的网络短剧可供选

择，相信在不远的将来老师也能开发出完整系统的教学材料对其充分利用。

最后，笔者所选的视频材料都来自视频网站，教学活动仅限于自己的课堂，因此没有考虑版权问题。但随着视频材料教学的普及和进一步发展，必然涉及到教学材料的分享和著作权的保护，其中可能会产生一系列知识产权问题。中文老师在繁忙的工作研究之余，单枪匹马地去面对这些复杂的法律问题显然是不太现实的，希望各级别的中文教师协会能够提供相应的法律指导和支持。

附录一

短片脚本

小伙：哎，怎么没人给老人让个座儿啊。大妈，来来来。您过来坐，上这边来坐。

大妈：谢谢。

小伙：哎哟，这么大岁数了你说。没人给让个座你们也。

大妈：谢谢。

小伙：这公共文明啊.....您上这儿坐来。

大妈：谢谢。

小伙：（面向大爷）哎，麻烦您起来一下。起来一下，看什么啊？

大爷：我给让座？

小伙：对啊。（面向大妈）来，您请坐。

大妈：好，谢谢您啊。

小伙：没事儿没事儿，这都应该的。

大妈：谢谢。

（大爷摘下帽子，很不解又有些气恼地看着正在低头看手机的小伙儿）

附录二

课前预习材料

I. Please preview the video and answer the following questions.

1. 故事里有几个人？
2. 故事在什么地方？
3. 当时是白天还是晚上？
4. 谁第一个说话？
5. 谁最后一个说话？
6. 大妈今年多少岁（用 approximate number 表达），小伙呢？大爷呢？
7. 大妈后来高兴吗，小伙呢？大爷呢？

8. 大爷看上去不高兴，为什么？（被字句）
9. 开始的时候，大妈为什么没有位子？
10. 开始的时候，大妈是站着的，后来呢？为什么？
11. 大妈说了几次“谢谢”？
12. 什么时候我们要说“这都应该的”？
13. 是谁让大爷站起来的？
14. “这么大岁数了”是什么意思？
15. “上这边来坐”的“上”是什么意思：a) 上学；b) 上午；c) 报纸上；d) 上面
16. “我给让座”的 full expression in the video 是 a) 我给她让座； b) 她给我让座；c) 我给你让座
17. “让个座”就是“让座”，那“说句话”就是_____， “喝水”可以是_____，睡觉就是_____，买票可以是_____。
18. 如果有人对你说“谢谢您啊”，你应该说什么？

II. The following sentences are taken from the video. Please identify the "owner" of each sentence and organize them in the right order with a number (*e.g.*, 1, 2, 3...).

____说：哎哟，这么大岁数了你说（#_____）
____说：我给让座？（#_____）
____说：好，谢谢您啊（#_____）
____说：这公共文明啊（#_____）
____说：来来来。您过来坐（#_____）
____说：看什么啊（#_____）

III. Re-act the scene

Now, you are a film director and want to make a video identical to what you just watched. 1) Please give directions to your assistant, who is in charge of casting. Tell her in Chinese how many and what type of actors/actress you are looking for (not including background actors).
2) Please tell the actress and two actors in Chinese how they should position themselves when the camera starts to roll.
(Note: at the end of the unit you will rewrite this question to compare your progress)

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对外汉语纠错反馈研究的单位界定及过程分解分析

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摘要：纠错反馈研究是第二语言习得领域的一个重要分支。本文试图通过实验手段系统分析对外汉语课堂的纠错反馈过程。实验对 71 例纠错反馈片断(corrective feedback episodes)进行系统编码、分类，并为下一步的纠错实验研究建立纠错单位界定标准及基线数据 (base-line data)。本文主要报告三个方面的调查分析：首先是对纠错诱因的分析，即汉语作为第二语言课堂随机错误类型的分类、编码及分析；其次是对汉语课堂的纠错过程进行分阶段分解分析，如纠错反馈的基本组成部分，纠错实施的不同阶段及不同功能等；最后是通过系统分析建立一个纠错分析系统，其中包括（1）对学习者错误的编码系统；（2）纠错单位的界定与计算方法；（3）纠错类型特征分析；（4）不同纠错类型的效应的对比分析。

关键词： 纠错反馈、纠错意识、纠错技巧、纠错效应、输出调整

Abstract: As a subfield of second language acquisition, corrective feedback (CF) has been studied extensively. In order to establish CFL criteria for analysis of CF units and obtain baseline data for the subsequent CF studies, this article explores the data from 71 incidental corrective feedback episodes (CFEs) found during a session of CFL classroom interaction. Three sets of results will be reported and discussed: (1) analysis of corrective feedback triggers in terms of error types, CFE boundary marking, and coding criteria; (2) analysis of the CF resolution process in terms of basic components of each corrective feedback unit, different stages and functions of the corrective feedback process within a CF unit; and (3) proposal for a system for CF unit analysis unique to CFL, including coding and boundary marking of CF units, counting and tallying CF units, analyzing features of different types of CFs, and finally (4) comparing and contrasting CF effects in terms of output modifications.

Key words: corrective feedback, CF awareness, CF technique, CF effect and output modification

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一、 引言与文献回顾

纠错反馈研究是第二语言习得领域的一个重要分支。近二十年来，从理论到实证研究都对纠错反馈的作用有了新的认识及展，是领域研究的重要议题之一。纠错反馈研究涉及的方面很广，Jin (2013)曾对这一议题进行整体回顾。受到篇幅限制，本文文献回顾主要集中在两个方面：第一是学习者对错误的“意识”(noticing effect)：即学习者如何通过纠错反馈获得信息，调整注意资源，使自己意识到语言表达中的错误；第二是研究纠错反馈的效用，包括常用的纠错类型、纠错所提供的正例(positive evidence)、反例(negative evidence)及其可能导出的纠错结果。

就学习者对错误的“意识”(noticing effect)而言，多数的纠错反馈研究认为：纠错过程涉及复杂的认知处理过程。研究者试图探索错误“意识”的两个方面：一是学习者能否在教师纠错的同时进行必要的认知处理，进而意识到自己的语言错误；二是如果能够意识到，学习者会如何利用这一信息？最早开始进行此项研究的学者是 Chaudron。他在 1977 年对法语双语项目的课堂研究中发现：在纠错时，尤其是重述纠错(recast)，只重复错误部分，不增加新的内容较易引起学习者的注意并有可能将纠错提供的正例结合到下一步的表达中。如果纠错时增加新信息，学习者的错误意识则不如前者。这一结果告诉我们：锁定纠错范围可以引起学习者对错误的意识。之后，Lyster & Ranta (1997)对学习者不同类型的反馈反应(uptake)进行了统计分析。这一研究不但证实了 Chaudron (1977) 的结论，同时还发现学习者对两种纠错反馈导出的反馈反应 (uptake)数量较高：一是互动中语义协商常用的要求澄清(clarification request)问题，如：“.....是什么意思？”等；二是在交际中直接要求重复(explicit elicitations) ，如：“什么？我没听清，请再说一次。”等。这也就是说使用以上两种互动语言协商方式可以在交流中进行有针对性的、直接、即时的提示，容易引起学习者对错误的注意。在此基础上，Lyster & Ranta (1997) 提出：即使学习者在当时对于反馈没有即时反应或者没有跟着教师重复，不一定等于学习者没有意识到正误表达之间的差异，也不等于反馈没有起作用。其后 Carroll (1995, 2001) 发现：以上提到的几种纠错反馈也有其内在弊端。例如：要求说明(clarification request)：“你说什么来着？”；重述(recast)：甲说：“我去过上海豫园。”乙回答说：“是吗？你去过上海的豫园。”等技巧，由于其本身的交际特点，较难为第二语言学习者“意识”其纠错的用意，而认为是交际中一来一往的配合表达。因为这种反馈也是母语者之间常用的交际策略，容易导致第二语言学习者误以为说话对方在加强、说明交流内容或对内容进行解释，而不会意识到对方要求学习者在语言形式上作出调

整；有的学习者甚至还可能误以为对方的要求说明或示意不理解是由非语言原因或背景噪音而造成的。

由此，Long (1996) 指出，重述纠错法，虽然有效，但由于学习者的错误意识度不同，常有可能被学习者视为是同一意思的不同表达方式，而不认为是一种间接的纠错反馈手段。此外，要求说明(clarification request)或重述(recast)等纠错手段可以在两种交际情况下使用，一是在完全合乎语法的表达之后进行确定，另一种是发生在不合语法的表达之后。这两种情况既可能发生在母语者之间，也可能发生在母语者与非母语者之间的对话中。此外，Long (1996) 提出学习者对反馈的“意识”异常重要，这影响到注意资源的有效使用以及纠错信息在工作记忆系统中的有效处理，因此需要对学习者进行一定程度的策略训练。

以上研究告诉我们：提高学习者的纠错意识十分重要，对学习目标语言起一定的辅助作用，但是在实施操作上及检测纠错意识上仍存在极大挑战。可见，要想探索学习者领悟错误的“意识”并能对其进行科学操作衡量（operationalization）并不是一件容易的事。

就纠错类型与纠错的结果而言，这方面的研究主要集中在纠错技巧描述及其纠错的结果比较。其中包括：什么纠错技巧提供有效的正例与反例，可导致多少学习者对纠错的反应 (CF uptakes)，什么纠错技巧导致学习者的输出调整 (output modification)。对于纠错技巧，多数研究致力于描述不同的纠错技巧类型及其特点。根据 Leeman (2007) 的研究，目前对纠错技巧的描述大多着眼于三个方面：一是不同纠错技巧所提供的反例，也就是如何让学习者意识到自己的错误[1]与正确形式的差异之处；二是纠错技巧所能提供的正例，也就是在纠错同时，提供一个正确形式；三是纠错技巧是否导出学习者的纠错反应 (uptakes) 如：“明白了”或点头示意，或学习者调整自己的表达，专业术语称之为：输出调整 (output modification)。

九十年代末，Lyster & Ranta (1997)对法语双语课堂的纠错反馈进行了系统研究。他们把纠错过程分为两个方面：教师纠错过程(teacher feedback)及学生反馈反应(learner uptake)。Lyster & Ranta (1997)将教师纠错过程中使用的技巧归纳为六种，后来又合并为四种。目前在第二语言领域内为大多数学者认可的纠错技巧有：显性直接纠错(explicit/direct CF)、规则解释(rule explanation/metalinguistic feedback)、要求自我修正(elicitation for self-repair)，

[1] 根据 Corder (1967)，第二语言错误可分两种：一种是”error”，是有系统的、有规律可循的第二语言学习者错误。另一种是”mistake”，是随机的、杂乱的错误。本文研究的错误是指前者，也就是有规律可循的学习者错误。

要求说明/澄清(clarification requests)，要求重复(repetition request)、重述(recast)等。与此同时，实验也将学习者反馈反应分为两大类：反馈修正类(repair)及仍需修正类(needs repair)。反馈修正类又分四种：重复(repetition)、句中融合(incorporation)、自我修正(self-repair)、同学修正(peer-repair)。仍需修正类都是不同类型的无效纠错，这里不做详述。Lyster & Ranta 的这一实验为反馈研究建立了一个基本理论框架，但在纠错单位界定上，纠错过程分析上不够深入，如纠错片断的单位构成太简单，纠错中提供的正、反例在纠错中的作用不够清楚，纠错效应的衡量不够细节化，纠错反应与输出调整的关系也不够清楚。

Jin (2012, 2013) 提出：对纠错效应的比较可以从三个方面入手：一是学习者的接受反馈后的输出调整或修正 (output modification or repair)，即学习者根据教师提供的纠错的信息进行部分或全部输出表达调整；第二种是口头示意。学习者用口头方式回答对方，表示理解或接受对方的纠错反馈，如“明白了”，“懂了”等；第三种是非语言形式的点头示意，表示接受对方的纠错。就以上三类纠错效应而言，学习者在教师纠错后所作的输出调整(output modification)最有价值。这是因为输出调整不但能直接反映学习者对纠错的意识 (noticing effect)，而且能直接评估反馈的效应，最后，输出调整又是一种语言习得的见证，属于语言重构(restructure)的一种形式。输出调整还可以进一步帮助第二语言学习者建立第二语言系统 (second language system)（McDonough，2005）。因此，分析输出调整至关重要，可以帮助研究者了解什么纠错技巧可以实现什么效应。

近几年来，学术界出现了越来越多的针对纠错效应进行的实证性研究。这类研究主要采用实验组、控制组比较纠错反馈的效应。有代表性的，以课堂为基础的研究包括 Muranoi（2000）的调查。研究者通过任务后期的任务总结评估结果来看不同纠错技巧对英文冠词的习得影响。Muranoi 将被试分为语法解释组、纠错反馈组，如要求重述(repetition request)，以及无反馈组。结果发现：重述组(recast)的成绩与无反馈组的成绩之间有统计意义上的差别，Muranoi 由此认为任何类型的反馈，只要提供一种，都会对学习者的目标结构的习得有帮助。 此外，这一实验还证实了没有专门的语法教学解释的间接隐性纠错（如要求重复、重述等）是有其作用的。有相同结论的研究还有 Doughty & Varela (1998) 的研究。实验对比了专业 ESL 课程中学习者使用过去时及条件句的习得。实验使用两种课堂类型进行分析与对比：一堂课有口头纠错反馈；而另一堂则没有纠错反馈。口头纠错反馈主要采取加强性重述(focused recast)，方法是教师先用句尾升调重复错误，如果学习者还

不能改正错误，教师再提供正确句。实验结果发现加强性重述是一种有效的间接纠错方法。

最近，Jin 等(2012)采用三组汉语作为第二语言的初级学习者研究了汉语方式补语的习得过程。33 个学习者分别接受三种不同的纠错反馈教学处理（pedagogical treatments）：规则讲解（rule explanation）、自我修正（self-repair）以及重述（recast）。结果发现： 三组之间在前测、后测及后续测上并没有统计差别，说明三种教学处理都有一定的即时效用（三周教学处理的效果）。但是在比较输出表达及识错、改错的延时效应时（5 周后的效果），实验发现：自我纠正最为有效，重述其次，最后才是规则讲解。这一结果进一步证实以上两个实验的结果：自我纠正、重述、规则解释类的纠错反馈都是有效的反馈手段，但是在延时效应上，似乎自我纠正的效果最佳。

除了调查纠错反馈的类型与结果外，有的学者还采用学习者的纠错辨识能力来检验纠错反馈技巧的突显效应以及学习者对纠错的“意识”（noticing）。例如， Roberts（1995）在他的日文课堂实验中对课堂过程进行全程录像，然后请三位学生自愿观摩教学录像并指出教师在何时改正学生错误。结果发现在 92 个纠错总数中，学生所能意识到的教师纠错反馈数量仅达到 24% - 46%，还不到总数的一半。相反，在 Mackey et al. 等（2000）的实验室研究中，她发现学习者对纠错的反馈反应可以达到 80%。但两个实验的数据相差甚远，无法用来参考。

以上研究一方面告诉我们纠错的正例、反例都很重要，即使学习者在当时没有意识到对方的纠错，反馈提供的输入正例，也就是正确表达，也许仍然能够对学习者学习目标结构起一定的辅助作用，其结果主要表现在对表达输出的调整上；另一方面也说明：纠错反馈研究虽然层出不穷，理论模型也不少，但是，到目前为止，研究者对纠错反馈的分析还不够系统。对纠错反馈的描述性研究及实证性研究并不全面，在方法论上也存在极大挑战。例如：对纠错反馈单位如何界定，纠错过程可进行哪些分解分析？纠错实施包括哪些程序？纠错过程由几个阶段组成？每个阶段的功能是什么？不同纠错技巧在课堂上是如何实施的？可采用什么突显加强手段？不同的输出调整具有什么效应？此外，以上提到的实证研究大多是以西方语言为基础的调查，以汉语为基础的系统研究还为数不多，如汉语纠错单位的组成、错误成因、汉语课堂的纠错方式、汉语中介语的口语与书写错误的类型、汉语课堂纠错技巧及效应等。

在以上文献回顾的基础上，本文试图对对外汉语课堂的纠错反馈过程进行系统的分析研究。这一研究主要集中在汉语的口语表达上，将通过三个子实验完成。第一个实验由两个专业人员对 30 分钟的汉语课堂的纠错过程进

行系统编码、分析，建立研究所需的纠错单位界定及基线数据 (baseline data)；第二个实验由 60 位汉语学习者参加纠错意识的问卷调查；第三个实验是由 38 个学习者参与的对 30 分钟汉语课堂录像的纠错辨识及其纠错意识分析。本文是第一个实验的分析报告，主要进行三个方面的调查分析：首先是对汉语作为第二语言课堂的随机错误类型进行分类、编码及分析。其次是对汉语课堂的纠错过程进行分解分析，如纠错反馈的基本组成部分，纠错实施的不同阶段及不同功能等；最后是通过系统分析建立一个纠错分析系统，其中包括（1）对学习者错误的编码系统；（2）纠错单位的界定与计算方法；（3）纠错类型特征分析；（4）不同纠错类型的效应分析及比较。本文作者认为：若无以上三个系统及基线数据 (baseline data)的建立，其后的两个实验组数据统计研究就无法完成。

二、 实验方法及分析单位

1、数据收集方法与分析过程

本实验采用量化及质化分析，分两个阶段完成。第一个为数据收集阶段，第二个是数据分析阶段。数据收集由专业录像人员完成。教学录像的参与者为一位有 10 年以上经验的教师与一位具有高级(OPI AL)中文水平的大学生完成。该课堂为留学语言项目的一堂单班课(one-on-one session)。教学内容选用题为《儿子》的课文。授课方式是就主题进行 30 分钟的师生讨论练习。目的是让学习者在实际交际讨论中练习前一堂课所学的目标结构及词汇，并使用所学语言形式进行有话题主导的，从句子到段落层次的有效输出(pushed output)[2]。在表达输出的过程中，教师提供不同的纠错反馈。这一阶段的教学活动（30 分钟）是以语言形式为中心(focus on form)的讨论活动。教师在语言形式上的纠错反馈较为集中。

第二阶段的数据分析由两位第二语言习得领域的专业人员分别完成，目的是为下一阶段的实验建立可测纠错单位及测量基线（baseline）。数据分析共分五步：第一步是转写 30 分钟的教学录像；第二步是鉴别、确定、统计教学录像中的纠错片段(corrective feedback episodes or CF episode)，并确定每个片段的纠错反馈单位(CF units)；第三步是根据专业人员定出的纠错反馈单位标准分析、编码每个纠错单位的纠错类型及其内部结构：纠错诱因及纠错过程；第四步是分析每个纠错反馈单位的第一个程序，即错误成因。包括

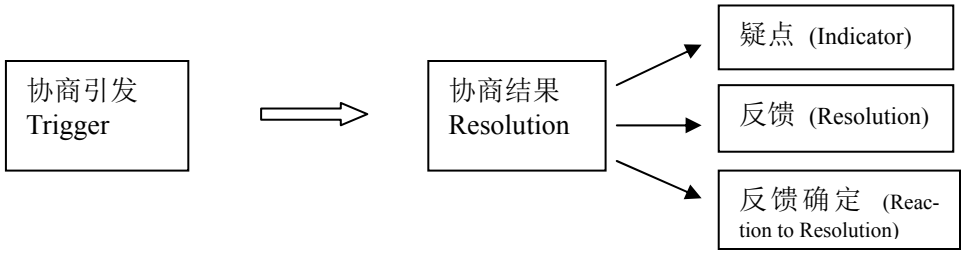
[2] 有效输出(pushed output)的概念来自 Swain (1995)的文章。这里是指稍稍超出学习者现有水平的语言表达。

归类、编码、统计不同层次的语言错误并建立归类、编码标准；第五步是分析纠错单位中的第二个程序：即纠错过程的四个子程序或四个阶段。其中包括辨识错误点的策略，实施纠错时所使用的不同纠错技巧的分类分布，特性及功能，分析、统计学习者对纠错的接收反应，如：有无输出调整，何种输出调整等，最后描述、归类教师对学习者纠错反应的反馈。

2、纠错反馈单位界定标准

如同第二语言习得领域内其他学者(Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Mackey, 2006)，本文作者认为：纠错反馈是语义协商(negotiation for meaning)的一种特殊形式。语义协商与纠错反馈的区别在于两个方面：协商参与者与协商内容。语义协商的参与者可以是母语者与母语者，也可以是母语者与非母语者。协商内容的类型很多，从交际内容到语言形式，无所不包。而纠错反馈的参与者则多数是教师与学习者，学习者与学习者之间，偶尔也会是母语者与非母语者。纠错反馈的内容多数是针对交际时语言形式出现的“差异” (gap) 或“漏洞” (hole) 而进行的协商沟通。按照Swain（2005）的理论，“差异”是指母语者与非母语者在语言表达上的差异，也就是第二语言学习者的语言使用错误；“漏洞”是指非母语者在表达时一时找不出合适的词来表达自己意思的现象。由此，本文提出：纠错反馈是语义协商的子类。反馈纠错单位可以依照 Varonis & Gass （1985a, 1985b）; Gass (1997) 已经建立的语义协商单位进行描述、界定。语义协商过程包括两个阶段：协商引发(trigger)与协商结果(resolution)（见图 1）。

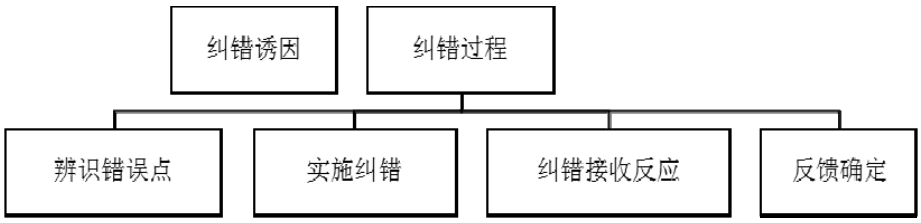
图 1、语义协商的程序流程



纠错反馈如同语义协商一样，也有其内部结构，但功能集中在纠错上。例如：每个纠错反馈单位均包括两个主要组成部分（见图 2）：一是纠错诱因 (CF trigger)， 二是纠错过程 (CF resolution)。纠错诱因是指交流互动过程中由于非母语者表达中出现的语言错误或差异而导致的教师的纠错决策。错误包含

语音、词汇、语法、语义、语用、篇章等层次的错误。纠错过程是指母语者或教师针对错误实施的纠错技巧及学习者对教师反馈的反应。每个纠错诱因包含至少一个或数个错误点。每个纠错过程又包括四个阶段： 辨识错误点(indicator)，实施纠错(correct error)，纠错接收反应 (reaction to corrective feedback)，反馈确定(feedback to reaction/affirmation)。本实验的纠错反馈分析将依照以上单位界定进行归类、统计。

图 2、反馈纠错过程流程



纠错反馈是一个循环过程。例（1）与表 1 是针对实验中一个纠错反馈单位进行的举例说明。

（1）S：今天的课文讲述一个……一个很有意思的故事，因为……因为……父母他们……因为他们的儿子不算他们，他的儿子的相貌不算他们。
T：**不随他们**。
S：不随他们。
T：对啦。

从纠错单位的定义来看，例（1）既是一个纠错反馈片段又是一个纠错反馈单位，其中包括两个程序。教师判断错误是这一过程的第一步，是教师纠错的起点。如何准确并决断地确定学习者的错误，并巧妙、及时地示意错误是这一阶段的关键。如（1）中：学生说：“因为他们的儿子不算他们，他的儿子的相貌不算他们。”在学习者说出“不算”这一动宾搭配错误时，教师就已经侦测到纠错诱因，并开始进入第二个纠错程序：纠错过程。在纠错过程中，师生共同经历了四个阶段。首先，教师在交际互动中准确地辨识学习者的错误点， 如：“不算”应为“不随”；第二，在锁定错误点之后，教师立即决策采取什么纠错技巧，并马上实施。如在例（1）中，教师决策采用简短清楚的直接纠错，并同时用语调突出关键词“**随**”；第三，学习者意识到教师的纠错后，立即做出反应，并马上调整自己的输出，调整的方法是重复教

师的正确例句："不随他们"；最后，教师听到学习者的输出调整后立即为学习者提供一个肯定反馈说："对啦"。

表 1、纠错片断单位内部的分解分析

纠错诱因 (trigger)		S: 今天的课文讲述一个……一个很有意思的故事，因为……因为……父母他们……因为他们的儿子**不算**他们，他的儿子的相貌**不算**他们。
纠错过程(CF resolution)		T：**不随他们**。 S：不随他们。 T：对啦。
1、	辨识错误点(ID error)	S: 因为他们的儿子不算他们，他的儿子的相貌不算他们。
2、	实施纠错 (apply a CF)	T：不随他们。
3、	纠错接收反应 (respond to the CF in the form of uptake or output modification)	S：不随他们。
4、	反馈确定(affirmation)	T：对啦。

三、结果分析

本实验的录像数据分析由两位专业人员完成。在打分类差(inter-rater ratio) 为.92 的基础上辨识纠错片段，在本实验的 30 分钟教学录像中，专业人员共找出 71 例对语言形式的纠错片段（不包括语音纠错），也就是 71 例纠错反馈单位。这也就是说，有经验的教师可以在短短 30 分钟内实施 71 次左右的纠错反馈；差不多每 40 秒就进行一次不同方式的反馈，有的间接，不打断交流；有的直接，明确点出错误。针对 71 例纠错单位，专业人员的分析着重在三个方面。首先，专业人员对 71 例单位的纠错诱因进行分类统计，并对每个单位的错误类型从词汇、语法、句子层次进行分类编码。第二，在分析每个纠错单位时，专业人员将重点放在纠错过程中使用的纠错技巧类型及分布分析方面。这是因为纠错技巧决定学习者能否意识到错误，即时改正错误，重构已有的第二语言系统。第三，在分析纠错效应上，专业人员以

有效输出调整(modified output)为计算单位,共找出59例有效输出调整(output modification)，也就是说学习者有意识地根据教师提供的正例调整其表达。统计显示：调整输出率可以达到将近83%。差不多每半分钟就有一个有效的输出调整。

此外，实验的质化分析显示：纠错过程十分复杂，从教师辨识错误点起到学习者接收反馈，教师需要做出的决策很多。如点出错误，需要根据学习者的学习行为确定，可以直接，可以间接。教师的纠错实施，可以根据错误点的范围及复杂度采用不同的技巧：如直接纠错，协商修正，规则解释，正误对比，重述等。这里纠错范围要根据人类信息处理的特点、学习者的语言程度等决定范围的大小，集中注意方式，突显程度。实施方法因人而异。学习者接受纠错的反应是多样的，可以是非语言的点头示意，也可以是使用目标语的输出调整。研究发现最有效的反馈应为输出调整，可以是即时也可以是延时的。教师对学习者的输出调整的反馈也大有不同。有的轻描淡写说声“唔”，有的则大声由衷地说“对啦”。以下将从纠错反馈的两个程序分析纠错的过程。

1、纠错诱因分析：随机语言错误的辨识、分类与编码

本实验对71例纠错单位中的错误首先进行界定、分类（见表2中各项分类描述），然后根据错误分类再进行编码、统计。这里值得提醒的是：本实验的错误类型分析是针对错误成因做出的归纳，主要是用来分析教师在纠错程序中如何判断随机口语错误并决策如何纠错。因此，本实验的语料收集局限于口语练习的单班课，错误分类并不是一个涵盖所有汉语中介语错误的错误分类分析。下面逐一分析各类错误。

表2、纠错诱因过程中的语言错误分类、描述、统计

错误类型	界定	总数
词汇层次错误	以词汇使用不当为基础的错误：如近义或近音替代、词义记忆不清、惯用语不全、缺少适度表达的词汇、词汇使用不符合语言水平等	20例
语法层次错误	以语法搭配不当、使用有误、或成分缺失为基础的错误：如动宾搭配、动补搭配、动补宾搭配、主谓搭配、介词使用错误、语法成分缺失等	35例
句子层次错误	以句中语序、关联词、句型使用不当为基础的错误。如语序错误、连词使用不当、句型使用有误及不合语言水平的句型使用错误	16例

词汇层次错误分类与编码：

词汇错误达到 20 例，大致可以分为三类：一是近义词/近音词替代类，如使用语义或语音相近的词替代目标词(见表 3)。如将“亲子鉴定”说成“亲生鉴定”，“力量”说成“气力”，“集”说成“节”等；二是词语记忆不清，说出大概轮廓，如将“想方设法”说成“先想设法”；三是惯用语缺词，如：将“谈何容易”说成“谈容易”；四是缺少准确的描述性或解说性具体词汇，造成语义不清，如将“很贫穷”说成“情况很糟糕”；五是用词不符合学习者已有的语言程度或语义精准度，教师用简单的定义提示，如“都是很小的男孩，怎么说？”“男婴”。

表 3、词汇错误总结

错误类别	编码	学习者反例	教师提供的正例
1、近义词替代(word substitution)	WS	*亲生、鉴定、气力、发生、节、深厚的关系	亲子鉴定、力量、发现、集、深厚的亲情
2、词语记忆不清，部分正确 (fragmented/incorrect chunks)	FC	*先想设法	想方设法
3、惯用语缺词(incorrect idiom use)	II	*谈容易	谈何容易
4、缺少准确的描述性/解说性词语(lack of better terms)	LBT	情况很糟糕	很贫穷
5、词汇缺乏精准度或不合已有水平 (level inappropriate words)	LIW	都是很小的男孩，怎么说？	男婴

语法层次错误分类与编码

汉语中介语的许多语法错误很容易被误认为是词汇错误，但若认真分析，两者实有差别，不能混为一谈。汉语的语法虽然没有词缀变化，但讲求

词与词之间的得当搭配，语法成分间的正确语序，这对英文背景的非母语者来说挑战很大。本实验发现，有经验的教师对学习者的语法错误十分敏感，纠错率达到 35 例。从分类结果来看，语法层次的错误大致可分五类（见表 4）：

表 4、语法错误总结

错误类别	编码	学习者反例	教师提供的正例
1、动宾搭配 (verb object)	VO	*他们的儿子不**算**他们 *他的母亲也做外遇	他们的儿子不**随**他们 不是做，是有外遇
2、动补搭配 (verb complement)	VC	*更容易地赢了 *所以我没听过没看过	更容易地打赢 没听说过
3、动补宾搭配 (verb complement object)	VCO	*应该是医院抱错，照顾... *他们有办法可以赢了	不是，他们抱错了孩子 可以打赢官司
4、主谓宾搭配 (SVO word order)	SVO	*她知道她不随她的父母 *她的头发咖啡色	她的相貌... 她的头发是咖啡色的
5、语法成分缺失或用错 (grammatical errors)	GE	*他们说什么不承认 *所以在这个情况上 *他们就有可能犯了一样的错误 *他们没故意 *她和别的女儿	他们说什么也不要承认（教师做向下手势） 可以说，再犯... 他们不是... 可以说她给另外一个...

一类是动宾搭配不当或有误。学习者将语音或语义相近的成分相互代替，造成动宾搭配不当或有误。如：“不算他们”的“算”虽然本身是一个正确动词，但是由于动宾搭配错误而造成歧义，并不合上下文话题。这类错误看似词汇使用错误，其实是动宾搭配关系有误。还有一类也是具有代表性的动宾搭配错误。如学生说的“*做外遇”(have an extramarital affair)的“做”不能与“外遇”搭配，而汉语只能说“有外遇”。

二类是动补搭配错误。如：学生说“*更容易地赢了”，很可能是受到英语母语的影响(to win)，但中文必须用动补结构“打赢”表示动作的结果。还有一例是“没听过没看过”，这并不是地道的汉语表达，因此教师将其改为“没听说过”。

三类是动补宾搭配错误。如：学生将“抱错”视为不及物成分，所以说“医院抱错”，但是此话不合汉语语法，必须加宾语，应改为“他们抱错了孩子”。

四类是主谓或主谓宾搭配错误。如：“*她的头发咖啡色”是学习者规则扩大化使用的一种情况，因为中文形容词做谓语时，不能加“是”。但是学习者可能将这一规则扩大使用在名词做谓语的情况。另一种情况是主谓宾搭配不清楚、不达意。如：“她不随她的父母”，这里主谓搭配“她不随”不清楚是说相貌、性格还是脾气。因此教师改为“她的相貌...”并要求学生自己完成句子，因为前边学生已经使用过宾语，因此不必完全提供正例。

五类是典型的语法错误。如：“*他们说什么不承认”缺失“也”而不合语法。还有一例是“*所以在这个情况上”中的方位词“上”应为“下”，“他们没故意”的“没”应为“不是故意”。

句子层次的错误分类与编码

句子层次的错误包括语序、句子连词使用、句型结构使用错误以及与语言水平不符的句子结构（尽管有时没有错误）等。这类纠错共有 16 例。从分类结果看，这类错误可以分为 4 类（见表 5）：

一类错误是语序错误。如：“因为他们六年朝夕...”中，时间量词的位置不应在动词前，教师改为：“先说他们朝夕...”；

二类是句型连词的使用错误。如：学生没有用连词，只说了“他们完全不要”，但教师马上提醒使用连词结构“可以说尽管...”，这样学生随后将前后两句话结合为“尽管孩子没有血缘关系，但是他们...”。

三类是句型结构使用错误。如：学生将不合上下文的成分加入句子“尽管孩子没有血缘关系，但是他们偏偏...”。这里“偏偏”与结构不配。因此教师要求“不要偏偏”。

四类是与语言水平不相符的表达。如：学生说“但是这个错误还存在。”虽然这种表达基本正确，但是不合高级学习者的表达标准。因此教师反馈说“还记得吗？ 我们学过一个句型是可能存在。我们学过‘未尝’...”。学生紧接着说：“未尝不会存在。”

表 5、句子结构错误总结

错误类型	编码	学习者反例	教师提供的正例
1、语序(word order)	WO	*因为他们六年朝夕… *但是他们三年等待	先说他们朝夕… 他们等了足足…
2、句子连词使用 (sentence connector)	SC	*他们完全不要	可以说尽管…
3、句型结构使用 (sentence patterns)	SP	*才发现他不是他们的血缘 *虽然她们不是他们的亲生女儿，但是他们的关系还很近 *尽管孩子没有血缘关系，但是他们偏偏…	他们才发现孩子跟父母没有什么？ 所以说虽然他们没有血缘关系，但是她们毕竟有什么样的亲情呢？ 不要偏偏。
4、与语言水平不符的句子结构 (level inappropriate sentences)	LIS	*但是这个错误还存在。 *美国的领养美国孩子的政策	还记得吗？ 我们学过一个句型是可能存在。我们学过“未尝”… 可以说关于领养美国孩子的政策

2、纠错过程统计、分析

纠错过程共分四个阶段进行统计分析。其中包括：辨识错误点、实施纠错、纠错接收反应、反馈。下面逐一分析。

第一阶段：辨识错误点(identifying errors)

前面提到，30 分钟的教学录像中共出现 71 个反馈纠错片断，也就是说

有 71 个纠错反馈单位，其中不包括教师实施的语音纠错[3]。事实上，学生输出中出现的语言结构错误点远不止 71 个，大约多至 110 到 120 个，但该教师选择了 71 个错误进行纠错反馈。其中包括 20 例词汇层次纠错，占总数的 28%；35 例语法层次的纠错，占总数的 49%；16 例句子层次纠错，占总数的 22%（见表 6）。就纠错类型的分布来看，本实验的结果与 Mackey et al. (2000) 的调查结果有所不同。Mackey et al. (2000) 的调查显示：英文语言的纠错分布为：词汇纠错可达 83%，语音纠错 69%，但语法纠错仅有 33%。对这两个不同的研究结果可以从两个方面解释：首先，汉语的纠错分布与西方语言不尽相同也许是受到了不同课堂的影响。本实验的课堂属于单班课，学习者较愿意接受教师的纠错；其次，汉语、英语纠错分布不同很可能与不同类型的语言相关。虽然汉语没有词缀系统辅助完成语法功能，但汉语的语法功能往往通过语序及词汇搭配来完成，这对以英文为母语的学习者来说不是一件易事。因此，汉语中以词为基准的语法错误较多，纠错自然集中在此。这也反映了为什么本实验的纠错分布以语法纠错为主。

表 6、纠错单位中的错误类型及分布

错误类型	举例	统计
词汇层次错误	S：实际上他的父亲没有外……他的母亲没有外遇，因为他们……他们……他们先进一步做血型检查，然后他们他们做一个**亲生**…… T：**亲子鉴定**。 S：亲子检查。	20 例/28%
语法层次错误	S：他们……他们没……他们……错犯，就是犯了错，因为他们不注意他们的医院的出生的婴儿，就是他们没…… T：他们没照顾好。 S：他们没照顾好刚出生的婴儿。	35 例/49%
句子层次错误	T：可以说尽管…… S：尽管孩子没有血缘关系但是他们偏偏……	16 例/22%

[3] 语音纠错分析不是本实验的重点，因此，不包括在本实验的分析中。

从分析错误点的分类及特点来看，汉语中介语的错误分析是一个复杂的过程，词汇层次的错误与语法及句子层次的错误较易混淆。培训教师进行有效的错误鉴别可以提高教师的纠错能力。

第二阶段：实施纠错 (applying corrective feedback techniques)

纠错反馈过程的第二个阶段是实施纠错，这一阶段是纠错过程的核心，决定纠错的成败与否。从本实验的 71 例纠错反馈单位来看，参与本实验的教师在课堂上主要采用了四种反馈纠错技巧（CF techniques）：直接纠错(direct correction) 40 例，占总数的 56%；协商修正(prompt/self-repair) 22 例，占总数的 31%；规则解释(rule explanation) 8 例，占总数的 11%；重述(recast) 1 例，占总数的 1.4% （见图 4）。由于不同学者对这几类纠错技巧的界定不一，因此有必要在此利用本实验出现的纠错体例先界定每种技巧，再举例分析其实施方式与分布走向，并讨论不同类型间的区别特征。

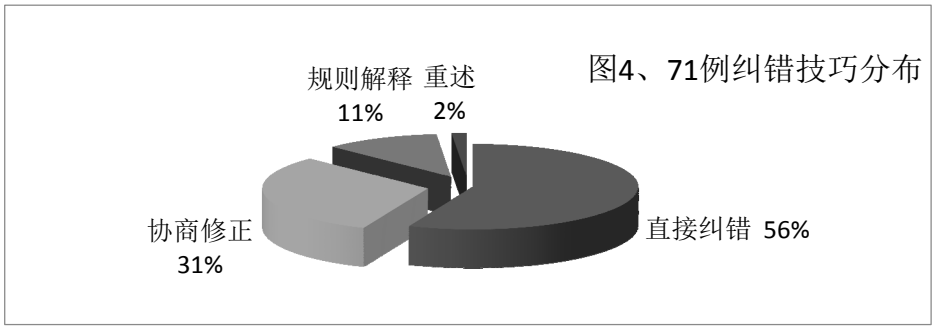


图4、71例纠错技巧分布

直接纠错

直接纠错占全部纠错反馈的 56%。直接纠错技巧是教师使用直接切入的方式纠正学习者的表达错误。这类纠错技巧的特点是教师有时使用明确的纠错指导语，有时使用加强语调，如在错误点上有意升高语调，使用肯定语气，直接针对反例中的错误点实施不同的纠错措施，没有协商余地。在纠错的同时，教师还提供部分或全部正例。根据其实施方式可以分为三类：

一类是明确否定(direct negation)，如 例(1)：教师使用“不是..., 应该是...”等指导语直接点出错误。这类纠错的特点是在错误点前往往有明确的指导语，如；“应该这么说...”，“可以说...”，“不是..., 而是...”。指导语的作用是在纠错前将学习者的注意力集中在错误的语言形式上，让学习者意识到差异(notice the gap/hole)。在将注意力集中到目标语言形式(focus on form)上以后，紧接着提供一个正例(positive evidence)。如（2）：

（2）S：在这个官司中，兰荣玲有优势，因为医院……公司……官司……医院官司错了那么……那么严重的错。
T：**应该这么说，不要**医院官司，医院犯了那么严重的错误。
S：医院犯了那么严重的错误，……

二类是直接切入错误，没有附加的指导语。这类纠错往往与重述有相似之处，但又不一样，纠错点非常清楚，切入点均在句中，字数制在两到四字，非常集中。一般纠错都在词汇及语法关键点上。从语气、表情及语调等都可以让学生清楚地知道：教师的反馈是针对学习者表达中的结构错误，并不是交际中的语义协商，如（3）：

（3）S：亲子检查。
T：**呃……亲子鉴定**。
S：亲子鉴定，然后发现他的儿子并不是他们的亲生儿子。

三类是利用指导语建议替换词或结构来进行纠错，例如：教师用“可以说……”,“要说……”等方式进行错误纠正。如（4）：

（4）S：因为……医院官司的……不是权力但是他们的……他们的气力……
T：**可以说：他们的力量**。
S：他们的力量比较大。

除了以上分类外，直接纠错的最大特点是提供明确的错误修改的正确形式 (correct form)或正例，此外，教师的修正指示语气确定，没有疑问形式，也没有协商的余地。

协商修正

协商修正纠错占全部纠错反馈的31%。协商修正反馈的特点是教师通常不使用教学指导语，教师的教学角色并不突出。师生以两个交流者的方式协

商纠错。在此期间，教师要利用各种诱导改错的技巧。这类技巧的一个特点是教师通常不提供正例的全部，即正确形式。即使有时有必要提供，也只是用个别字提示或提供部分正例，如一个词或结构的开头一两个字，用来提示并与学习者协商。另一个协商修正的特点是要求学习者自我修正，因此提示词的后边语调往往拉长，上升，期待对方补充完成。由于在纠错过程中，教师的重点是提示、协商错误点，并要求学习者进行自我纠正，这类纠错的特点往往以填空式或疑问式出现，所以在锁定错误点，直接利用反例方面有时效果不突出。 如在（5-8）中，有时学习者并不一定领会教师的用意，因而不易导出纠错反应或输出调整。有时即使导出，输出调整也不一定正确， 如（5）中，学习者的输出调整“不随他们亲生的”就是一种不正确的输出调整。由此可知，完成句子式纠错，无完整的正例的提供是协商纠错的一大特点，也是区分协商修正与直接纠错等其他类型的纠错技巧的关键特征。

（5）T：**不是亲……**
S：不随他们亲生的，而且他们。

根据本项调查，协商修正可以分为两个子类：一类是诱导修正(induced self-repair): 这类技巧的特点是为学习者提供修正错误的关键成分,但不是全部，然后等待学习者填充空白，以便自我完成修正，如（5）；二类是语义协商修正（negotiated self-repair）：这类纠错技巧通常使用交际时常见的语义协商程式(Long & Sato, 1983)：从“疑点”出发，利用交际中常使用的语义协商技巧，提出质疑：如，语义澄清(clarification request) ：“什么？”“我不太明白你的意思，请再说一次？”“你能再说一次吗？”；确定理解 (confirmation checks)：“你是说…”。根据本项实验中不同的协商方式，二类的语义协商修正可分为三个子类：

- A 类是针对错误，为学习者提出修正建议， 如（6）：

（6）T：**那么我觉得是，比如说是猜疑。**
S：他们猜疑他……有外遇。
T：非常好，那实际上母亲真的有外遇吗？

- B 类是利用信息提问引导修正，如（7）中“相处多长时间”，以期学习者做出修正调整：

（7）S：因为孩子跟父母朝夕相处他们……
T：**相处多长时间？**

S：相处六年所以他们不要放弃他们。

- C 类是利用是否疑问句，以确定理解的方式引导学习者调整输出，如（8）中："医院只有她一个孕妇吗？"诱导修正与语义协商纠错的共同特点是仅利用各种方式提示错误，有时仅提供少部分正例或与正例相关的信息，但并不提供完整的正例。

（8）T：没关系，那你想在兰荣玲生孩子的时候，**医院只有她一个孕妇吗？**
S：只有一个。

规则解释

规则解释只占全部纠错反馈的 11%。这类反馈的特点是通过解释、提示语言规则或使用语言学术语来提醒学习者，引导学习者修正错误。这类纠错一般有较为清楚的指导语或暗示（见 9-12），有部分或全部正例提供。教师的角色很清楚，不与学习者进行协商，但错误点十分明确，命中率相对较高：输出调整可达到 100%。规则解释类纠错可以分为四个子类：

一类是简单规则解释(simple rule explanation)。教师在纠错时，利用简单明了的规则解释来修正错误。这里简单的意思是使用几个字词来完成解释，如：用的时候要加"得"，"没有'了'"，"先说……"。如（9）：

（9） S：因为他们六年……
T：**先说他们朝夕。**
S：他们朝夕相处六年所以他们的 qinxi……

二类是要求使用某一规则或结构来提示使用正确的，更为复杂的语言结构。常用的结构提示有："还记得吗？""我们学过一个句型","我们学过……"。如（10）：

（10）T：**还记得吗？我们学过一个句型"可能也存在"，我们学过"未尝**"。
S：未尝不会存在。

三类是使用语言学术语提醒、确定、帮助学习者的表达，如：使用"反义词"来帮助学习者确定他应选择的词汇。如（11）：

（11）S：劣势是我们的生词，劣势是优势的反……

T：**反义词**。
S：他们有劣势。

四类是是利用手势、黑板等辅助，引起学习者对规则的注意。如教师指黑板上的第 12 个关键词，“可以说 12”，如（12），教师利用手势示意错误。

（12） S：医院犯了那么严重的错误，所以在这个情况上……
T：**（教师做向下手势）**
S：下，情况下……肯定兰荣玲会打赢官司。

重述

重述只占全部纠错反馈的 2%。重述的方式是以正确的形式重新复述句子。这类纠错的特点是很像两个对话者的真实交流，通常没有指导语，锁定错误点的反例从语气到语调虽然有，但是不易突显，也不与学习者进行协商。唯一的优势是有正例提供。如（13），尽管教师点出了主语“医院”，但是学习者也许误以为教师的重述是交际互补而没有进行输出调整。

（13）S：他们有劣势。
T：**医院有劣势**。
S：他们有劣势，因为他们犯了那么大的错误。

总之，以上总结分析了四类在汉语课堂中出现的主要纠错类型、纠错技巧及作用。我们发现不同类型的纠错实施的效果可以根据四个标准来评估考量（见表 7）。一是正例标准：纠错反馈有否提供正例或正确形式，正例的提供是部分还是全部；二是指导语标准：纠错时有否简单、明确的教师指导语；三是协商修正标准：纠错时，教师是否与学习者进行各种语言协商，是否利用部分提示（填空法）要求自我修正；四是反例标准：纠错时教师有否提供锁定错误点的显性、直接反例，也就是直接明了地示意：“不对”或“可以说”，“用 21 号（句型）等。我们认为，以上四个标准可以协助建立纠错的评估因素分析系统。标准项涵盖越多，纠错效果似乎就越有效。

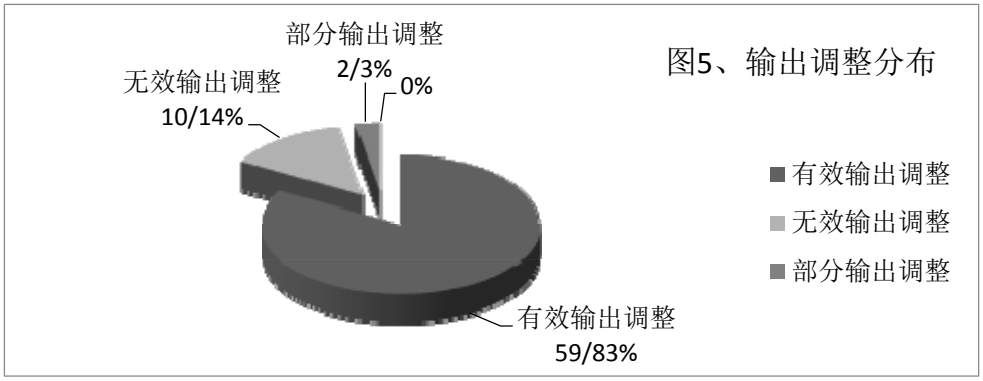
表 7、评估纠错技巧的四个标准

纠错类别标准	正例标准	指导语标准	协商修正标准	反例标准
纠错类别	有否正例（部分或全部）	有否指导语	有否协商修正	有否锁定错误点的反例
1、直接纠错	有（部分或全部）	有（应该是…，可以说…等）	无	有（不是…）
2、协商纠错	有（部分）	无	有（4 种）	无
3、规则解释	有（部分或全部）	有（先说…再说…，用…句型）	有（还记得吗？）	无
4、重述	有（部分或全部）	无	无	无

第三阶段：纠错接收反应

纠错反馈过程的第三个阶段是纠错接收反应，也就是学习者接受纠错后对纠错做出的反应。在此，本实验将分析重点放在纠错接受反应阶段输出调整的数量及质量方面。

分析结果发现，本实验的 71 例纠错反馈单位(CF units)共导出 59 例成功的输出调整(output modification=OM)，成功率为 83%；2 例部分输出调整(partial output modification=POM)，约占 3%。与此同时，纠错反馈还导出 10 个无效调整（failed output modification=FOM），失败率为 14% （见图 5）。下面我们分析这三类纠错反应的具体体例。



有效输出调整(OM)

有效输出调整(OM)是指学习者在纠错反馈后做出的正确的语言调整。这种调整可以表现为单次、多次或扩展式等不同类型，每种类型反应一定的纠错效应。次数越多，效应越高，扩展越多，就越有纠错效应。

单次输出调整：也就是输出调整一次以后，学习者不再重复。如（14）：

（14）S：*别的原因……。
T：另外一个……。
S：**另外一个原因**是因为这些配偶要，不是救别的， 就是他们要可能帮助别的孩子。（单次输出调整）

多次输出调整：

学习者接受纠错后，多次正确使用纠错后的关键词及结构。如（15），学习者的在关键词“不随”的输出调整达到三次以上，这样的纠错效应显然较单次效应要高。

（15）S：今天的课文讲述一个……一个很有意思的故事，因为……因为……父母他们……因为他们的儿子*不算他们,他的儿子的相貌不算他们。
T：不随他们。
S：**不随他们**。（OM 一次）
T：对啦。

S：他的相貌**不随他们**（OM 二次），所以他们的……左邻右舍风言风……风言风语是怀疑他的……他的儿子**不随他们**的（OM 三次）。（多次输出调整）

扩展性输出调整：

学习者接受纠错后，不但重复纠错关键结构，而且还能扩展到一些长的句式，这种扩展性输出及知识转换也对学习者的二语习得大有帮助。如（16）：

（16） S：*他们不是故意知道他们犯了这个错误。
T：应该这么说，他们不是故意犯了这个……
S：**他们不是故意犯了这个错误，他们偶然犯了这个错误。**（扩展性输出调整）

部分输出调整(POM)

部分输出调整（POM）是指学习者接受纠错后做出的部分正确的语言调整。如（17），“亲子检查”中的前两字是对的，但是后两字不对。

（17）T：亲子鉴定。
S：**亲子检查**。（部分输出调整）

无效输出调整（FOM）

无效输出调整（FOM）是指学习者接受纠错后并没有做出正确的语言调整。如（18），虽然在第一次学习者能够模仿重复“谈何容易”，但综合练习时又出现了错误。

（18）S：好像这样的情况不容易。
T：很好，可以新的方式，谈何……
S：谈何容易。
T：再来一遍，老百姓和医院……
S：*老百姓和医院打官司**谈容易**。**（无效输出调整）**

为了了解纠错效应与纠错技巧的关系，本实验分析了 61 例学生的有效输出（全部或部分）与教师所使用的纠错技巧之间的关系。结果显示，直接纠错导出的输出调整为最高，为 35/40，87.5%的直接纠错均能导出输出调整效应（全部或部分）；协商纠错为 14/22，有 63.7%的输出调整效应；规则解释

为数不多，只有 8 例，8/8，但是效应是 100%；重述也是如此结果。从错误类型来看，语法错误的输出调整为 33 例，占总数（35）的 54%，词汇纠错的输出调整为 17 例，占总数（26）的 28%，但是句子纠错的输出调整为 9 例，占总数（16）的 15%。其中无效输出在句子层次的比例最高 7/16，占 10 例无效输出调整的 70%，这说明句子层次的纠错命中率相对较低。值得注意的是，在 61 例有效输出中，提供全部正例的纠错有 53 例。凡是有全部正例提供的纠错，均有 100%的输出调整。此外，从不同层次的纠错看来，语法纠错的总数为 35 例，导出输出调整的纠错为 33 例，无效纠错为 2 例，成功率为 94%；词汇纠错的总数为 20 例，无效纠错为 4 例，成功率为 85%；句子纠错为 16 例，但无效纠错为 7 例，成功率为 43.7%。至少从本实验看，直接纠错、规则解释及重述是有效的纠错手段，都能导出输出调整。语法、词汇层次的纠错也较句子层次的纠错更容易导出部分或全部输出调整。

第四阶段：反馈确定

反馈确定是纠错过程的最后一个阶段。其主要功能是为学习者进一步提供对错后语言调整的反馈，以便确定输出调整是否成功或可接受。从本实验的数据来看，反馈确定的方法有如下几类，示意学习者这个纠错循环已告结束。一类是提供口头确定：如：“对啦”、“非常好”、“好极了”等；二类是开始一个新的问题暗示前边的输出调整没有问题，如：“为什么？”、“那么你觉得是为什么呢？”、“那也就是说……”；三类是根据教师要求进行加强，如“再来一遍”、“再来”等，要求学习者做一次综合性输出加强，并由此示意继续进行互动讨论。

四、结论

从以上分析结果得知，本实验通过对 71 例纠错单位的量化及质化分析，为汉语课堂的纠错研究提出了纠错单位的界定标准及纠错过程的基线数据(baseline data)。首先，在纠错反馈的单位如何界定的问题上，本实验提出了具体的纠错单位界定及其内部结构分析方法；第二，在如何评估纠错技巧问题上，本实验建立了一个纠错评估标准；第三，在什么因素影响纠错效应的问题上，本实验找出了三个影响因素。下面逐一讨论。

1、纠错反馈单位的内部结构

本实验对纠错反馈研究的第一个启示是：纠错反馈可以根据课堂数据建

立纠错单位及界定标准，同时也可建立纠错分析的基线数据。分析结果告诉我们：纠错反馈过程确实如同语义协商过程 (Varonis & Gass 1985a, 1985b), Gass (1997)，是一种可描述、可测量、可分析的有效单位(measurable unit)。首先，纠错反馈可以从纠错片段 (CF episode) 入手分析。其内部结构不但由可区分的纠错程序及纠错阶段组成，而且程序之间先后有序。每个片段均含有至少一个或数个纠错单位(CF unit)。一个纠错单位一般由纠错诱因及纠错过程两个部分组成。纠错过程又可以分解为四个子程序或纠错阶段：即辨识错误点、纠错实施、纠错接收反应及反馈确定。每个阶段之间的关系明确，先后固定。第二，每个纠错程序的功能都明确固定。如：纠错诱因的功能是建立正误差异(gap)点，以期为下一步的纠错实施做准备。纠错过程的功能则是利用不同纠错技巧引起学习者的注意，调整学习者对目标语系统的假设及其语言行为。第三，每个子程序的内部成分既可以作为独立单位进行分析，又具有描述特征可供参考，如：辨识纠错点是一个独立的可区分的单位，其辨识标准为是否包含错误点，其描述特征为错误点属于什么类型的错误，在句中占什么位置等；实施纠错是另一个单位，其辨识标准为是否包含纠错技巧，其描述特征属于什么技巧，有否指导语，有否正例，有否协商，是否期待自我修正，反例锁定清晰与否，等。第四，每个纠错单位的效应均可以一个单位进行统计、分析其效度，如纠错反应(uptake)、输出调整 (output modification) 等。两者比较起来，以点头示意或口头回答对否为单位的纠错反应的效度显然不如有输出调整的纠错单位理想。这是因为前者的认知处理要求较低，而输出调整则要求学习者进行一系列的认知处理：从意识到“差异”，到调整内部规则系统，到再次输出等。输出调整也可分为单次，多次，或扩展性调整。其中，多次或扩展性调整最有价值，因为这类调整标志着语言的“重构”(restructure)。

因此，本实验认为：建立系统的纠错反馈分析单位及分析构架能够帮助第二语言领域及对外汉语领域建立统一的纠错研究方法及分析单位，也会加快汉语纠错反馈研究的步伐。

2、纠错技巧分析标准与评估因素分析系统

本实验对纠错反馈研究的第二个启示是：二语纠错研究应该建立一套可以测量的纠错技巧分析标准及评估因素分析系统。以上课堂数据分析证实两点：第一，纠错反馈单位中识别错误点与纠错实施是纠错过程的两个关键阶段，可以决定纠错的成败与否。第二，纠错技巧的四个表述特征就是纠错技巧实施的四个评估标准：即正例标准、指导语标准、协商修正标准及反例标准。这四个标准反映了纠错技巧应达到的二语习得涉及的几个认知功能。如

正例标准强调纠错是一种提供输入的机会。在纠错过程中教师为学习者示范正确的语言形式就是为学习者提供可理解输入(comprehensible input)，可以帮助学习者改正语言错误，习得目标语言。指导语标准的功能是帮助学习者建立语言纠错意识（CF perception）并突显错误在语言形式上的正误差异性(gap)，这对学生学习第二语言的语言形式及意义的对应性（form & meaning mapping）来说十分关键。协商修正标准利用人际交流的特点，让纠错过程显得自然，输出调整顺理成章，也让学习者主动参与到纠错过程中，主动反思并调整自己的二语语言系统。反例标准强调对具体“错误点”的范围锁定，这是因为只有当错误点的标记十分明确时，纠错才有效，输出调整才能到位，也才能促进二语习得过程中的“重构”(restructure)。

由此可见，本实验建立的四个标准也可以用来建立一套行之有效的教师纠错评估因素系统。通过利用四个标准进行分析，我们可以确定哪种纠错技巧较为有效，为什么有效等。例如：在本实验收集的课堂数据中，直接纠错的使用率最高（56%）。其原因可以解释为：因为直接纠错能够涵盖的评估因素较多。这类纠错不但含有正例，提供明确、清楚的指导语，而且还有直接锁定错误点的反例提示，如“可以说……”, “要说……”等。四个评估因素涵盖了三个，较易为课堂教师纠错使用。规则解释，虽然使用率不高（11%），其纠错命中率达到 100%。 其原因可以解释为：规则解释有着明显的语言形式为中心(focus on forms)的纠错目标，而且四个因素能涵盖三个，较易引起学习者的注意及语言调整，所以应是教师纠错的首选之一。协商纠错使用率相对较高（33%），仅次于直接纠错。因为这类纠错突出强调师生的交流协商，虽然不采用指导语，在正例提供上有所控制，但是期待学习者自我修正，有一定的挑战性，所以也不失为一种常用的纠错技巧。这一技巧的弊端是由于其错误点可能无法清楚锁定或限制，在导出输出调整或纠错反应上命中率有时不能保证，或出现无效输出调整等。

重述是课堂使用率较低的纠错技巧。仔细分析重述所含盖的评估因素后发现，重述与直接纠错，在特征上有一定的相像之处，唯一的不同是在指导语及语调的使用上。如同 Ellis & Sheen (2006)；Nassaji (2009) 提出：重述可依其强调程度视为显性/直接或隐性/间接纠错。我们认为：事实上，重述可分为两个类型：一个用于交际，一个用于课堂或其他教学场合。在平常的交际场合下，重述不需要指导语，而且不一定针对语言形式。重述的关键是在平等交流中解除交际内容上的障碍，偶尔也用来排除语言形式的歧义。而在课堂交际中，重述的作用是教学，主要集中在语言形式的调整上。由于其课堂场合及师生关系，指导语的使用很自然，因此，直接纠错可以说是一种课堂或教学专用的“教学重述” (pedagogical recast)，而普通交际中的重述是协商

的一种，可以称为“交际重述” (communicative recast)。在课堂上，这两种纠错均可能使用。这就是为什么有的研究发现：重述在课堂的使用率达到 55% (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)，但在我们的实验中仅占 2%。如果将直接纠错算为一种重述，本实验的重述可达 58%，与其他语言的实验结果几乎无大差别。由此可知，二语教学的纠错研究有必要将重述分为“教学重述”还是“交际重述”。在课上重述使用较少的现象可通过教学重述与交际重述的区别来解释。

3、影响纠错效应的三个因素

本实验对纠错反馈的第三个启示是纠错效应应该用学习者的输出调整为主要衡量标准。如前所述，学习者做出的输出调整是纠错效应中效度最高的一种纠错反应。这是因为输出调整是学习者在意识到语言正误差异后作出语言调整的最佳证据。输出调整也是语言习得过程中重构语言系统 (re-structuring process) 的其中一种形式。总结以上结果，我们提出：输出调整可以受到四个因素的影响：一是纠错时正例提供的方式；二是错误点是否范围集中；三是指导语或其他纠错方式是否简短清楚；四是纠错技巧的突显度。就纠错时正例提供的方式而言，本实验发现：在 61 例有有效输出的纠错单位中（59 例全部有效输出，2 例部分有效输出），如果在纠错同时也提供全部正例，这种有正例、直接明确的纠错技巧可以导出 100%的输出调整。除了肯定有输出调整外，有正例的输出不但能保证单次输出调整，而且有时也有多次或扩展性输出调整。如果纠错仅包含部分正例，也能帮助学习者导出一定的有效输出，但很少有多次或扩展性输出调整。

就错误范围而言，本实验结果证实，虽然四种纠错技巧都有一定的纠错作用，但是如果锁定的错误点范围集中，如不超过 1-6 字的纠错点似乎最为有效。从纠错范围看，本实验发现：61 例输出调整中，如果教师提供的纠错范围集中在 1-6 字左右，就都可以导出学习者的输出调整，如：“不是做，是**有外遇**”这一句的错误点有三个字“有外遇”，学习者的输出调整在 30 分钟内达到 10 次。

就指导语或其他方式的纠错而言，指导语或手势、语调提示的纠错效应都较高，可导出 65%-97%的输出调整。这类纠错的代表性技巧反映在本实验教师使用最多的直接纠错与协商纠错技巧上。这类纠错技巧有各种不同的类型，分别使用指导语、手势、语调协助集中突出错误点及其正反例的差异。其中指导语的使用控制在 0-10 个字。如：“可以说”，“应该这么说”，“我们用生词，白色的十三”。在 40 例直接纠错中，导出输出调整达到 39 例，成功率占 97.5%。除了利用指导语、手势、语调等纠错突显外，突出“元语言”规则的解释似乎也有助于导出输出调整。本实验虽然只有 8 例，但是 8 例都

有输出调整。这是因为商修正纠错往往使用填空法，如例（5）：教师在纠错时并没有马上提供全部正例："不是亲……"，说完后拉长语调，要求学习者完成后半部分。学生随之说："不随他们亲生的，而且他们。"因此，错误点往往不够清楚。22 例协商修正只有 14 例有输出调整，比例为 63%。

就纠错显度而言，学习者的输出调整是最好的纠错显度晴雨表。纠错显度是指纠错本身的感知突显度 (perceptual salience)以及学习者对正误表达差异的注意度 (noticing the gap)。本实验的分析告诉我们：直接点出错误点，缩小控制错误范围，让对、错形成鲜明强烈差异感都跟纠错显度有关。常使用的纠错突显手段，如：使用简短清楚的指导语、高语音、语调、放慢语速、面部表情增多、丰富等都会促进纠错显度。除了使用本实验获得的 61 例输出调整来衡量纠错显度外，最直接有效的检验是学习者对这类纠错的辨识能力 (CF identification)。这也将是我们实验二的中心议题。

综上所述，第二语言习得研究者必须按照语言习得的内在规律及认知过程去分析不同课堂、不同教师的纠错过程及纠错效应。本实验仅仅是探索、研究这一主题的开始，希望有更多的同仁采用不同的调查方法去完善、充实纠错反馈的分析，以揭开其内部运作之谜。

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Chinese Matters: From Grammar to First and Second Language Acquisition. Edited by Chris Wilder and Tor A. Afarli. Trondheim, Norway: Iapir Academic Press, 2010. ISBN 978-82-519-2536-5, $56.00, 212 pp.

Chinese Matters: From Grammar to First and Second Language Acquisition addresses topics on the syntax of Chinese and the acquisition of Chinese both as a first and as a second language. There are altogether nine papers in this edited volume presenting studies in three interrelated fields: syntax, L1 acquisition, and L2 acquisition. Eight of the papers concern Mandarin and one is about Cantonese.

The articles on syntax include Sio's study on the Cantonese *aa*, Afarli and Jin's paper comparing the usage of the existential verb *you* "to have" and its Norwegian counterpart *vere* "to be," and Wilder's investigation of the similarities between the coda construction in Chinese and the 'V2 relative clause' construction of German.

Sio's study examines the Cantonese element *aa* that occurs with nouns having human referents. It supports the Determiner Phrase (DP) Hypothesis (Abney 1987), which argues that nominal expressions are projections of determiners and that DP is the locus of referentiality. Sio analyzes two types of *aa*-nominals in Cantonese, more specifically *aa* [+human] noun: a prosodic template filler (*aa*1) and a syntactic marker (*aa*2). *Aa*1 is added to nouns in order to form a disyllabic template. For example, when *aa* is placed before the kinship term *mui*, the disyllabic *aa*-nominals, *aa-mui,* meaning younger sister is formed. It is *aa*2 that has the referential property when it is attached to a noun to form multisyllabic *aa*-nominals. For example, *aa2-saimui,* also meaning younger sister, is different from *aa1-mui* in that it refers rigidly to the hearer's younger sister. Such *Aa*2-phrases are incompatible with classifiers and thus Sio believes they are DP projections. Sio's study provides evidence of the presence of DP layers in article-less language such as Cantonese. It would be easier for readers if the examples are contextualized in the section where the referential property of *aa2* is discussed.

Afarli and Jin compare the syntax of presentative sentences in Norwegian and Mandarin Chinese. Presentative constructions in Norwegian and Chinese seem to be structurally quite similar, but a closer examination reveals that there are striking differences between the two. First, they find Chinese *you*-sentences differ fundamentally from their Norwegian counterparts with *vere*. Norwegian presentative sentences are properly analyzed as existential there be-sentences whereas the corresponding Chinese sentences are not. As for Chinese *you*-sentences, there are basically two types of structure, namely *Someone HAS*

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something at/on some place and *Some place HAS something at/on it.* According to Afarli and Jin's analysis, the first type does not belong to the existential there be-sentence category. The authors' thorough comparison of presentative constructions in Norwegian and Mandarin deepens our understanding of the syntactic differences between the two languages. However, it would be more desirable if the authors can be more consistent when using syntax terminology. For example, such terms as "subject" and "topic" are used interchangeably when they discuss Chinese *you*-sentences and *lai*-sentences. It would be better if they distinguish these two terms.

Wilder's paper presents evidence that coda is a type of relative clause which restrictively modifies the object or the postverbal subject of the matrix predicate. For example,

> Wo jiao-guo yi ge xuesheng [hen congming]
> I teach-ASP one CL student very intelligent
> "I have the experience of teaching a student who is (very) intelligent."

According to Wilder, the coda construction in this sentence, [hen congming], is a relative clause which modifies the object *xuesheng*. Such argument is in disagreement with an earlier proposal that coda construction is an independent clause containing zero pronoun. Wilder argues that the Chinese coda construction shows striking similarities with the Integrated Verb Second construction (IV2) of German analyzed in Gartner (2001), in that it presents the indefinites-only restriction. Using the previous example, if the indefinite *yi ge* is replaced by definite *na ge*, then the coda construction would lose the relative clause property. The analysis of the Chinese coda construction and the comparison with German IV2 construction is unique as Wilder explores the syntactic properties and views the coda as a relative clause in the syntactic sense.

These three studies of Chinese syntax are useful for linguists, especially those who are interested in comparative syntax, as well as language educators. Chinese language teachers can find useful information that helps to explain the differences in grammatical structures between Sinitic and European languages. It is crucial to learn from these studies the danger of oversimplification when grammatical structures are explained to foreign language learners using only the corresponding glosses or structures in their first language without offering any details about how to use them in specific context.

There are four papers that address issues in first language acquisition of Chinese: one study by Lee that examines the nominal expressions in early child Mandarin, a longitudinal study by Hsieh that investigates the locative preposition

zai in its postverbal uses in child Mandarin, a study about temporal reference of bare verbs by Su which explores the question whether Mandarin-acquiring children pass through a phase similar to the 'root infinitive' stage, and a bilingual study by Jin, Eide and Afarli focusing on Mandarin-Norwegian differences concerning the pro-drop phenomenon.

Lee's paper explores early nominal structure in child Mandarin, focusing on whether the full-fledged nominal is present, and what kinds of syntax-semantics mapping can be observed in early language, based on longitudinal data from two Mandarin-speaking children covering the period from 18 month to 27 month of age. Lee reports that Mandarin-speaking children begin with only the specificity phrase and the NP, and classifier-bearing nominals are developed at a later stage (by age two). Children are aware of the mapping between nominal structure and semantic distinctions in an early stage. Such results and conclusions are drawn from the longitudinal data collected in multiple ways, which is essential as Lee emphasizes the importance of using contextualized cues to analyze data. It makes this first language acquisition study stand out because such a research method has greatly enhanced the reliability and validity of the analysis.

Another longitudinal study in this volume conducted by Hsieh investigates Mandarin-speaking children's challenge when acquiring the post-verbal locative/directional phrases. His data show that a child first acquires the knowledge that only a special class of verbs allows the post-verbal *zai* to be locative in an early state (up to 3:10). The child learned later that whether the post-verbal *zai* phrase can be directional is subject to different verb types. Similar with Lee, Hsieh employs multiple ways to collect data. In addition, using the researcher's son as the subject for this first language acquisition study has the advantage of close observation of the developmental process.

Su's study of temporal reference of bare verb by Mandarin-speaking children aged between two and three examines whether and to what extent children pass through a stage in which they use sentences without a time adverb or an aspect marker. Su uses data from Tsing Hua Mandarin Child Language Corpus, and the preliminary findings indicate that there appears to be an analogue stage in Mandarin child language in which children produce predominantly bare sentences with modal interpretations, but the percentages of overt subjects with past or present tense references increase dramatically as the child grows older. Unlike the previous two studies, Su only uses data from a corpus, but the coding process is explained thoroughly in this study: only the spontaneous utterances with eventive or stative predicates are included. It would have been better if the researcher had explored the reasons for such a development process.

Jin, Eide and Afarli find Mandarin-Norwegian bilinguals dropped subjects at

a much higher rate when compared with monolingual Norwegian children. They also observe that when the subject talked with another bilingual, the frequency of subject drop is higher than when he talked with monolingual Norwegians. In addition, Jin, Eide and Afarli's data show that the percentage of object dropping is extremely low in the bilingual children's Norwegian. This is an example to illustrate how important it is to consider the context, especially the interlocutors, when examining children's speech.

The last two articles in this book both deal with learning Mandarin as a second language, focusing on points where Mandarin grammar is markedly different from the relevant L1 (English, Norwegian). Cabrera and Usaj's study examines the acquisition of the perfective marker *-le* in Mandarin by English speakers. They compare two groups of L2 learners: one group with study abroad experience and the other without. The results show that the more time spent in a study abroad setting the better the mastery of prefective *-le*. The researchers believe that the major reason lies in the amount of input in a study-abroad setting. Thus this study provides evidence to support the idea that spending significant amount of time studying abroad helps develop grammatical competency in the target language.

Jin's paper focuses on another well-studied aspect of Chinese grammar, the *ba* construction, which involves the pattern S + *ba* + OV in contrast with ordinary SVO sentences. She examines two L2 learners' acquisition of the syntactic and semantic constraints of the *ba* construction. Jin finds both informants to have acquired the knowledge of the constraints of *ba* construction. However, the informant who has learned Chinese at a younger age chose the correct word order for negative *ba* sentences while the other selected the wrong order. The researcher concludes that there is an age effect in the ultimate acquisition of the *ba* construction. It is very interesting to see the difference between the two informants' performance of using *ba* construction but there might be other factors influencing their acquisition process. The current research design makes it an unconvincing case concluding that age is the sole factor in the acquisition process.

In conclusion, this book is highly recommended to researchers and educators who are interested in Chinese grammar, the acquisition of Chinese grammar, and comparative syntax, especially those who have intimate knowledge about Cantonese, Norwegian, or German. It covers a wide range of topics in the field of Chinese grammar as well as first and second language acquisition. The editors organize the volume in a way that all the papers are related to each other and yet each represents a unique aspect in the three related fields of research. All of the papers deal with Chinese grammar, including those about first and second language acquisition. Each paper answers intriguing research questions, provides

evidence to much-debated issues, or supports existing hypotheses. Most of the papers included in this book take a comparative and acquisitional perspective. In addition, most of the issues addressed in this book, such as the coda construction in Chinese, Mandarin-speaking children's acquisition of the nominal structures, and L2 learners' acquisition of the *ba* structure, offer rich potential for further investigations.

The three papers dealing with first language acquisition document the spontaneous language production of Mandarin-acquiring or bilingual children. Such data allow accurate analysis of language use in certain contexts. However, both studies about second language acquisition use language test (multiple choices or translation test) to elicit data. Such data are based on L2 learners' judgment about language use instead of natural language production. The ability of making proper judgment based on the knowledge about grammatical structures is different from that of using such structures appropriately in oral or written performance. Hence, the findings of these studies would have been more convincing if the researchers had fine-tuned their method.

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