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Articles

- CALL 研究中的问题 (Issues in CALL studies) 1
 许德宝 (Xu, De Bao), 澳门大学 (University of Macau)
- 「非學不可」——與學生共築隨身教室
(The Omnipresence of the Chinese Language in Virtual Classrooms)..... 17
 游欣恩 (Yu, Stefanie), 維也納大學 (University of Vienna)
 劉冠賢 (Liu, Kuan-Hsien), 維也納大學 (University of Vienna)
- Does the Personalization of Multimedia Instruction Influence the Effectiveness of
Decorative Graphics during Foreign Language Instruction?
(外语教学中多媒体设计的个性化原则是否影响图像教学的效果)..... 29
 Wang, Yanlin (王彦琳), *Clemson University* (克莱姆森大学)
 Crooks, Steven M., *Idaho State University* (爱达荷州立大学)

Columns

- 促進聽力寬度教學之華語口音資源——「漢語聽力通」網站之建置
(Enhancing the Range of Listening Breadth with Various Mandarin Accents
— Development of the “Mandarin Chinese Listening Training” Website)..... 39
 信世昌 (Hsin, Shih-chang), 國立台灣師範大學 (National Taiwan Normal
 University)

Review

- Review of *Cultura-Inspired Intercultural Exchanges: Focus on Asian and Pacific
Languages*
(《Cultura-Inspired Intercultural Exchanges: Focus on Asian and Pacific Languages》
书评)..... 48
 Hill, Yao Zhang (张焱), *Clemson University* (克莱姆森大学)

Call for papers for the June 2016 issue



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CALL 研究中的问题¹ (Issues in CALL Studies)

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摘要： 本文根据现有的研究，归纳总结 CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) 的发生、发展、名称和定义、研究方法和理论框架、实践与反思、问题和争论、当前研究重点和发展趋势等，同时与中文 CALL 做比较。结果表明，中文电脑辅助语言学习²与 CALL 研究的发展基本一致，也出现过对 CALL 的反思和争议，同时也经历了与 CALL 研究相对应的发展阶段，比如（根据 Xu 2004、2005、2013）中文 CALL 的开创阶段（1970-1985）与行为主义、结构主义 CALL（1970s-80s、详见正文）相对应，起步（1986-1993）和发展阶段（1994-1999）与交际 CALL（1980s-90s）相对应，全方位开拓阶段（2000-2005）与整体教学 CALL（2000 以降）相对应，CALL 的新趋势（2006-2015）与社会 CALL（Web. 2.0 以后）相对应。本文研究的目的是有两个：一是总结 CALL 研究并与中文 CALL 做比较，二是归纳 CALL 的新趋势并尝试预测 CALL 研究的方向。

Abstract: Based on current available literature, this paper summarizes the issues in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) through examining its beginning and development, name and definition, research methodology and theoretical framework, debates and rethink, current trend and future direction, and comparison with Chinese CALL. The result shows that Chinese CALL went through the same phases as CALL studies did and experienced the same debates and reconsideration about CALL studies. Their correspondent phases are (according to Xu 2004, 2005, 2013): 1. Pioneering Stage in Chinese CALL (1970-1985) is correspondent to Behaviorist or Structural CALL (1970s-80s), 2. Starting (1986-1993) and Developing (1994-1999) Stages in Chinese CALL is correspondent to Communicative CALL (1980s-90s), 3. Omni-directional Development in Chinese CALL (2000-2004) is correspondent to Integrative CALL (after 2000), and 4. New Trend in CALL (2005-2015) is correspondent to Social CALL (after Web. 2.0). The purpose of the study

¹ 本文部分内容曾在第九届国际华文网络教学研讨会（ICICE-2015，MIT，i.e., Xu 2015）TCLT 论坛上发表。

² 本文交替使用中文 CALL 与中文电脑辅助语言学习，同指一个意思。

is two-fold, (1) to review and compare the development of CALL and Chinese CALL, and (2) to summarize the current trend and forecast the directions of CALL studies.

关键词: CALL、电脑辅助语言学习、中文 CALL、参与式学习模式、正常化、社会 CALL

Keywords: CALL, Computer Assisted Language Learning, Chinese CALL, Participatory Learning Style, Normalization, Social CALL

1. 简介

电脑辅助语言学习 (Computer Assisted Language Learning, 简称 CALL) 作为一个新兴学科, 在第二语言教学方面已经获得了应有的地位。其研究不断兴起, 多媒体教学、网路教学也是日新月异。新技术、新软件、新平台更是层出不穷, 反过来又进一步促进了电脑辅助语言学习的发展。中文电脑辅助语言学习 (Chinese CALL) 也同样发展迅速, 有关中文电脑辅助语言学习的研究和实践也不断深入开展。中文电脑辅助语言学习的研究与实践与 CALL 研究是否同步? 有无差异和不同? CALL 研究经历了哪些阶段, 遇到了什么问题? 哪些解决了? 哪些争端还存在? 现在 CALL 研究的重点是什么? 有什么新趋势? 为了总结成果、发现问题, 进一步推动中文电脑辅助语言学习的全面发展, 有必要对 CALL 的发生、发展、名称和定义、研究方法和理论框架、实践与反思、问题和争论、当前研究重点和发展趋势等做一总结分析, 同时与中文 CALL 相应的方面做比较。这其实也是中文 CALL 与其他语种 CALL 的比较研究。

2. CALL 的名称和发展

2.1 关于 CALL 的名称

电脑辅助语言教学 (Computer Assisted Language Instruction), 简称 CALI, 也叫 CAI (Computer Accelerated Instruction)、CALI (Computer Accelerated Language Instruction)、TELL (Technology Enhanced Language Learning), 或 MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning), 都是指电脑辅助语言教学。电脑辅助语言教学后来被电脑辅助语言学习 (Computer Assisted Language Learning, 简称 CALL) 一词所代替, 原因是前者不能反映以学习者为中心的教学理念。(Bush & Terry 1997、Davies & Higgins 1982、Levy 1997、Shield & Hulme 2008)。

2.2 关于 CALL 的发生、发展

电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 开始于 20 世纪 60 年代, 源于大型计算机。伊利诺大学的 PLATO (Program Logic for Automated Teaching Operation, 1958-1993) 是最早期的 CALL 项目, 曾用以教授英、法、中、俄、希腊、拉丁、西班牙文及世界语等 8 种语言。郑锦全教授首创用 PLATO 网络系统进行中国字教学则是中文电脑辅助语言学习的开始。

电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 随着个人电脑 (PC) 在 70 年代的出现进一步发展, 到了 80 年代用 BASIC 写成的用于各种语言学习的软件在 BBC 计算机、Apple II 和 IBM PC 上随处可见。中文也不例外。第一个 Apple II 中文学习软件是 1981 年杨百翰大学 Kim Smith 的中国字教学软件, 第一个 IBM 中文学习软件是 1985 年姚道中与 Mark Peterson 写的 *中国字辅导*。与此同时, CALL 研究著作开始出现大量出现, CALL 专业组织如 CALICO (1983-) 和 EuroCALL (1986-) 也开始问世, 这标识着 CALL 研究的真正开始。90 年代以后, CALL 专业组织、专业研讨会、专业论文集、专业期刊如 IALLT、IATEFL、JALT、LLT、CALICO Journal、CALL-EJ Online、CALL Journal、ReCALL、TCLT、TCLT Online Journal、ICICE、AMCLE、AMCLE Online Journal³等相继出现, 为 CALL 研究的进一步发展打下了基础。电脑辅助语言学习硕士、博士学位也开始出现, 有的大学甚至出现制作多媒体语言学习软件的工作流水线 (如华东师范大学)。新技术、新软件、新平台更是层出不穷, 反过来又进一步促进了电脑辅助语言学习包括多媒体教学和网络教学的研究和发展。专业组织、专业研讨会、专业期刊和专业论文集的出现标识着电脑辅助语言学习的成熟和专业化; 电脑辅助语言学习硕士、博士学位的出现 (如中国大陆、台湾等地) 则标志着电脑辅助语言学习已成为一个独立学科, 在第二语言教学方面获得了应有的地位。

3. CALL 研究中有争议的问题

从上世纪 60 年代到今天, CALL 研究从发生、发展到成熟经历了五十几年, 其间讨论, 研究、涉及了很多问题。有的已经有定论, 有的还存在争议。

3.1 关于 CALL 的定义

什么是 CALL? 这是我们首先要问的问题。Bax (2003) 给了最广义的定义: 就是“学习者通过计算机提高语言能力”。这个定义对 CALL 最基本的功能做了描写, 但仍有两点需要补充说明, 第一是“计算机”, 第二是“提高”。“计算机”在这里其实还包括很多与电脑有关的东西, 比如网络、网络新平台、虚拟课堂、Web. 2.0 技术、数码媒介、云端储存技术、智能手机、mp3、mp4, 白板、DVD 等, 所以是一个广义的、代表与计算机有关的传媒和通讯新技术的概念 (Levy & Hubbard 2005)。而“提高”在这里也可以从很多方面来解释和说明, 比如 (Hubbard 2009):

³ 后五个是中文电脑辅助语言学习的组织、会议和期刊。

学习效率：学得快、学得容易，省时省力
学习成效：学的扎实，建立多种联系，能保持较长时间
易得易用：课本、教材及有关资料等均较之没有计算机要易得、易用
不受时地限制：跨时地与同时地学习没有大的区别
促进学习动机：使学生更有学习动力、更享受学习
办学效率：节省老师、节省资源等

以上例举的这些方面有的已经不是 Bax (2003) 所说的“提高”语言能力问题，而是与学习条件、学习环境等有关的问题。从实践角度讲，Hubbard (2009) 还认为 CALL 也涉及与之相关的教师能力、教师培训、专业发展、教材教法的提高和教学结果测试等问题。

因此，CALL 虽然有广义的定义，但是仍有待进一步限定和说明。

3.2. 关于 CALL 的研究方法和理论框架

电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 早期的研究大多集中在展示和说明技术语言教学优于传统语言教学这一点。这种比较通常是以二者并“没有大的不同” (Dunkel 1991, Pederson 1987) 而结束。原因是只比较 CALL 的一个方面比如有无视频、或者有无字幕、或者有字幕与有无剧本的区别等这并不能全面说明技术语言教学与传统语言教学的不同 (Grgurovie & Hegelheimer 2007)。另一个原因是早期的研究多为定量分析，现在多为定性分析，特别是在计算机为中介的交际合作方面 (Computer Mediated Communication, 简称 CMC) 更是如此，这与 CALL 研究的成熟有关系 (Egbert & Petrie 2005)。Hubbard (2009) 搜集、编辑了 2009 年以前出版的 CALL 研究论文，共四集，全 1820 页，是综合 CALL 定量与定性分析的集大成者。

电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL)，顾名思义，属于第二语言教学领域。由于 CALL 与计算机技术以及网络技术的紧密联系，它在检验第二语言习得理论及假设方面 (包括与之对应的教学法) 和在理解语言学习过程方面都具有重要的作用，同时又与心理学、社会学、自然语言信息处理、语言学、人工智能、人机对话、计算机科学、教学法以及科技发展都有关系，因此是一个与多种学科相关联的新学科 (Thomas et al 2013)。由于 CALL 的研究要涉及多种学科、多种理论、多种概念和多种研究方法，因此 CALL 的研究看起来似乎缺乏统一的标准。比如同一现象由于不同的研究角度和研究方法可以得出很不同的结论，可以是语言学方面的，也可以是社会学方面的 (Egbert & Petrie 2005、Hubbard 2008、Levy 1997、Levy & Stockwell 2006)。这也是 CALL 研究的一个特点。

鉴于此，有不少人批评 CALL 只注意计算机技术却没有发展出自己系统的理论和研究方法以及与之相应的教学法。根据 Underwood (1984)、Phillips (1985)、Hubbard (1996)、Levy (1997)、Warschauer & Healey (1998)、Chapelle (2001)、Salaberry (2001)、Bax (2003)、Colpaert (2004)、Egbert

& Hanson-Smith (1999、2007) 的研究, 到目前为止, CALL 的理论框架、研究方法以及与之相应的教学法还是借用的。用于指导 CALL 课程的设计、任务拟定以及 CALL 研究和 CALL 评测的理论主要有两种: 一种是第二语言习得理论 (SLA), 一种就是 Bax (2003) 的社会学“正常化”理论 (见下)。研究方法也有两种: 一种是在语言学理论框架下的研究方法, 一种是在社会学理论框架下的研究方法。

因此, 关于 CALL 的理论框架、研究方法以及相对应的教学法还有待于进一步的研究。

3.3 关于 CALL 的实践

根据 CALL 从上世纪六十年代到现在的发展, 电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 的实践, 如大家所熟知, 包括如下各个方面:

- 1、 学习软件设计 (听、说、读、写及综合练习) 和与学习软件相对应的教学法研究
- 2、 学习软件评估
- 3、 多媒体教学实践与研究
- 4、 网络教学与远程教学
- 5、 网络教学软件和网络教学平台的使用与评估
- 6、 混合教学 (Blended learning) 研究
- 7、 语言数据库与语言使用频率检索研究及其在语言教学中的应用
- 8、 虚拟课堂的研究和应用
- 9、 网络参与式语言学习模式研究
- 10、 交际网络任务式教学的运用和实践

Brown (1997) 提出了计算机辅助语言学习评估的概念 (Computer Assisted Language Testing, CALT), 现在 CALT 已经成为 CALL 实践的一个重要部分 (Hubbard 2009), 有代表性的例子是教育评估系统 (Educational Testing Service, ETS)。这个评估系统可以根据自己的标准自动给一定范围内的课文题目和课文打分, 同时还能评价课文题目和课文的组织 and 风格等 (Chapelle & Douglas 2006)。

学习者训练、语言学习自动化 (Hubbard 2004、Blin 2004、Schwienhorst 2008、Kolaitis et al 2006)、教师培训 (又分为服务前和服务中)、智能 CALL (Intelligent CALL, ICALL) 或 NLPCALL (Natural Language Processing CALL) (Hubbard & Levy 2006、Kassen et al 2007、Kassler 2006) 也是近年来 CALL 实践的重要部分。

广义的 CALL 也包括把计算机技术与语言学习相结合的所有的实践活动, 比如 TCLT (科技与中文教学) 与 CLTA (全美中文教师学会) 研讨会和年会上有关计算机技术教学的讨论与报告就属于广义的 CALL 实践。

3.4 关于 CALL 的总结研究

对电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 的总结研究开始于 90 年代。比如 Sanders (1995) 总结了 CALL 从 1960-1990 年在美国的发展历史, Delcloque (2000) 总结了 CALL 从 1960-2000 年的发展历史, Davies (1997) 总结了 CALL 从 1976-96 的发展, 特别强调历史教训和 CALL 研究中要避免的错误; Jung (2005) 以书目为纲, 分析了历年发表的著作并以此来总结 CALL 研究的重点及其变化; Hubbard (2009) 搜集了 70 几篇关于 CALL 发展历史的研究文章并在它们的基础上进行进一步的总结, 同时尝试预测 CALL 的未来; Butler-Pascoe (2011) 从教育技术和第二语言习得的角度考察了 CALL 的发展历史, Davies et al (2013) 总结了 CALL 从 1960 年到 21 世纪以来一直到 Web 2.0 出现以来的发展等。这些研究都从不同角度、不同方面、不同材料和不同时间段上总结了 CALL 研究, 具有代表性。从另一方面讲, 这些研究角度不同、重点不同、材料也不尽相同, 也都有时间性和阶段性。

3.5 关于 CALL 与课堂语言学习的关系

电脑辅助语言学习 (CALL) 强调以学生为中心的学习或自主学习 (Rogers 1983、Pedersen & Liu 2003、Hannafin & Hannafin 2010)。以学生为中心的学习具有两个特点, 一个是双向和互动式学习, 一个是自主个体化学习。电脑辅助语言学习的目的就在于帮助教师有效地进行语言教学, 通过双向、互动式学习和自主个体化学习来强化课堂中已经学过的东西, 同时也帮助语言学习者特别是初学者学习语言。研究结果表明, 面对面课堂教学与电脑辅助语言学习的混合学习 (Blended learning) 比单一使用电脑辅助语言学习或单一使用面对面实地教学的效果要好 (Pegrum 2009)。TCLT 和 CLTA 年会上发表的论文也涉及了这个问题, 结论和前提也都是面对面课堂教学与电脑辅助语言学习的混合学习是方向 (Liu & Sabenorio 2012、Zhao 2013)。

3.6 关于技术和计算机与教师的关系

这是 CALL 研究中一直被不断提出的问题, 包括以下几个方面。首先是计算机是不是最终要代替老师, 或能不能代替老师的问题。计算机技术自己并不能代替教育本身, 一台新计算机也并不能让一个教师突然变得更好, 更不能提供一种魔术药方可以改变语言学习过程, 这就像一支新笔不会让一个孩子的写作突然变好一样。因此, 计算机技术本身不能代替教学法, 也不能改变语言学习过程, 当然也不能代替老师 (Cuban 1986、2001、Thomas et al 2013)。

第七届国际汉语电脑教学研讨会 (TCLT7 夏威夷大学、2012)⁴专门讨论了计算机能不能代替老师这个问题。结论是计算机辅助语言学习 (CALL) 中“辅助”这个概念不能改, 所以计算机不能代替老师, 只能“辅助”语言学习, 而混合教学则是

⁴第七届国际汉语电脑教学研讨会的主题是“虚拟课堂与中文教学”。

方向 (Blended)。计算机技术教学应该尽可能多地利用多媒体、多种渠道、多重感官参与的互动与知识传递,有效延伸课堂训练与学习,同时做人力做不到的事,比如远程教学、虚拟课堂、跨时空网络参与式任务教学等以极大提高语言学习效率。

其次是技术与计算机和教学质量和教学方法方面的问题。这完全取决于教师的教學理念与所采用的教学方法。笃信刺激反应行为主义教学理念的教师,即使有了当代数码媒介技术,也只能做出操练形式 (drill & patterns) 的计算机软件 (Warschauer 2011),而受结构主义影响的教师也只会用数码媒介去模拟形式以解决学习中的问题 (Cuban 2001)。

最后,科技媒介的变化,比如笔的发明、纸的发明一直到现代计算机技术的飞速发展都会给教学方法、教学方式和教学内容带来新的变化 (Kern 2014)。教师要适应这种变化,就得学习,而且得终生学习 (Xie 2014)。科技不会代替老师,但懂科技、了解科技变化,并能与科技变化共进的老师一定会代替不懂科技、也不了解科技变化的老师 (Xu 2014)。第八届国际汉语电脑教学研讨会 (TCLT8, 塔夫茨大学 2014) 对“科学素养与中文教学” (Technology Literacy and Chinese Language Teaching) 进行了专题讨论。随着科学技术的飞速发展,培训教师以适应现代科学技术给语言教学带来的变化也成为 CALL 研究的一个重要环节 (Kessler 2006)。

3.7 关于 CALL 历史分期的研究

3.7.1 从第二语言习得角度得出的历史分期

具有代表性的 CALL 历史分期主要有两种。一种是从第二语言习得角度根据与 CALL 发展相对应的技术水平、教学理念和教学方法将 CALL 分成三个阶段 (Warschauer & Healey 1998, Warschauer 2000):

第一阶段

行为主义或结构主义 CALL (Behavioristic or Structural CALL),⁵ 上世纪七十年代到八十年代,与大型计算机、行为主义、结构主义教学理念相对应,着重重复和刺激反应,使用的是句型操练、教学提示 (tutorial)、语法词汇填空、多种选择练习等方法。这样的教学方法、教学软件仍然存在,但大部分语言教师已经摒弃了行为主义或结构主义的教学理念。

第二阶段

交际 CALL (Communicative CALL), 上世纪八十年代到九十年代,⁶ 与 PC、CD-ROM、交际教学理念 (70 年代末 80 年代初开始盛行) 相对应,教学重点是使用语言而不是分析语言,认为语法应该在语言应用中学习,不必大讲。语言学习软件重在语用,比如回答问题、提供有上下文的词汇学习、变速阅读、句子重建、简

⁵ Warschauer (2000) 将行为主义或结构主义 CALL 改为结构主义 CALL,同时将其时段从六十到七十年代推移到七十到八十年代。

⁶ Warschauer (2000) 将交际 CALL 的时段从七十到八十年代推移到八十到九十年代。

单的语言游戏等，大多在课本范围内进行。这种教学方法和基于这种教学方法的学习软件经过修改，现在仍然在运用。

第三阶段

整体教学 CALL (Integrative CALL)，2000 年以后，⁷与多媒体、网络、CMC 相对应，整体教学理念尝试批判交际教学法，将听、说、读、写融合为一，以教学任务或教学计划来达到教学目的。这个时期的 CALL 明显摒弃了操练和提示 (tutorial) 的模式，而是改用多媒体、互动、以学生为中心的整体教学方法。

3.7.2 从社会学角度得出的历史分期

另一种是从社会学角度根据 CALL 的任务形式、活动内容、反馈类型、教师作用、教师态度、CALL 在教学大纲中的比重，以及计算机所在的具体位置等把 CALL 分成三种方式，这三种方式可以互存并行 (Bax, 2003)。Bax (2003) 反对 Warschauer & Healey (1998) 对 CALL 的分期，认为计算机技术教学到 2003 年还没有“正常化” (normalization)，因此 Warschauer & Healey (1998) 提出的整体教学 CALL 并没有出现 (见下)：

第一种方式

封闭式或受限制的 CALL (Restricted CALL)，上世纪六十年代到八十年代，基本上是行为主义的教学理念作指导，这种方式与 Warschauer & Healey (1998) 的行为主义或结构主义 CALL 完全相同。

第二种方式

开放式 CALL (Open CALL)，上世纪八十年代到二十一世纪初。这里的开放式是指教师在学生使用软件时的开放式反馈及指导作用。通过为学生提供及时和多次反馈，使学生最大限度地使用软件学习语言。Bax (2003) 认为这一方式包括了交际 CALL 和整体教学 CALL。

第三种方式

整合 CALL (Integrated CALL)。Bax (2003) 认为计算机技术教学到 2003 年还没有“正常化” (normalization)，“正常化”指的是使用计算机技术教学已经到了“视而不见” (invisible) 的程度，也就是说计算机技术教学已经成为语言教学不可分割的一部分，就像笔、教科书、黑板一样。因此到 2003 年整合 CALL 还没有出现。

Bax (2003) 提出的计算机技术教学“正常化”问题在 CALL 领域引起了很大的反响。Bax (2011) 对“正常化”又进行了进一步说明，认为不同的计算机技术 (比如 PPT、投影仪、Blackboard 系统等) 可以有不同的“正常化”过程，各地、各校、

⁷ Warschauer (2000) 将整体教学 CALL 的时段从九十年代末改为从 2000 年开始。

各个老师在使用不同技术方面也会有不同，另外不同学校、不同教师在计算机技术“正常化”问题上也要做具体分析。

3.8 CMC 和“社会 CALL”的出现以及“正常化”问题的解决

3.8.1 以计算机为中介的交际合作（CMC）

二十一世纪初期以来，适合于参与式学习的网络社团和平台大量出现，比如博客、维基、谷歌文档（Google Docs）、脸书（Facebook）、Youtube 视频、微信、QQ、播客（podcasting）、视频会议（videoconferencing）、虚拟课堂、白板（whiteboard）、云端储存提取，特别是网络 2.0 合作技术，这为以计算机为中介的交际合作（CMC）打下了坚实的基础。移动数码媒介比如智能手机、平板电脑等在二十一世纪第一个十年后大量进入市场，人手一机、或两机已成为正常，这彻底改变了以往技术教学受计算机限制的情况，同时也全面催生了参与式学习模式和社会 CALL（Social CALL）（Thomas et al 2013）。

3.8.2 参与式学习模式

以计算机为中介的交际合作（CMC）⁸使互动、多媒体、多重感官参与的知识传送（同步、异步）成为可能。语言学习也从语言形式学习变成以培养社会交际能力、解决问题为目的，以游戏要求为形式，同时伴有智能反馈与评测的参与与合作。（Thomas et al 2013）。

移动数码媒介如智能手机、笔记本电脑、平板电脑的极大普及则使网络社会平台、网络交际合作进入全社会范围。因此，面对面教学法的简单网络转换（即把面对面教学法施用于网络教学）已经不适应以培养社会交际能力、解决问题为目的，以游戏要求为形式，同时伴有智能反馈与评测的网络参与与合作了。代之而来的是网络参与式学习模式。在参与式学习模式中，师生界限打破了，是学生同时也是老师，是学习同时也是合作，同侪启导与合作和授课并行（Thomas & Reinders, 2010）。

3.8.3 社会 CALL（Social CALL，Web. 2.0 以后）

Thomas et al（2013）因此在 CALL 历史分期三阶段上增加了第四阶段：社会 CALL（Web. 2.0 以后）。社会 CALL 与计算机和移动媒介为中介的社会交际合作相对应。社会 CALL 重在培养学生社会交际能力、鼓励学生参与学习、激发学生学习动机、提倡个性化、民主、合作和以学习者为中心的学习环境（Reinders & Darasawang, 2011），同时也鼓励批判性思维、提倡基于完成任务的研究与开放性的语言活动（Schafer, 2008; Warschauer, 2012）。

⁸根据时间分为同步与异步 CMC，根据形式又分为文本、音频和视频 CMC（Hubbard 2009）。

3.8.4 “正常化”问题的部分解决

Bax (2003) 的计算机技术教学“正常化”问题包括多媒体课本问题、电脑在哪儿以及技术支持和领导支持等问题都由于人手一机、人手两机这些每天都在使用的当代数码媒介和技术而解决了。因此电脑在哪儿、多媒体课本问题、技术支持问题、领导支持问题已经不存在了。这些方面的“正常化”问题已经解决了。但是其他方面的“正常化”问题，比如各地、各校、各个老师在使用不同的技术方面的不同，在使用多媒体教学、网络参与式教学、移动数码媒介教学等方面的不同，还要根据具体情况做具体分析 (Bax 2011)。

4. CALL 研究与中文 CALL 的比较

4.1 对中文 CALL 所作的总结

随着中文电脑辅助语言学习的实践和发展，对中文 CALL 的分析总结也从未间断过，比如 Alber (1989、1996) 对中文电脑辅助语言学习的技术进行了总结分析；Dew (1988、1989) 总结了台湾的中文教学软件；Yao (1996) 总结、分析了 25 个中文教学软件；Zhang (1998) 总结、分析了 10 个中文教学软件；Xu (2002) 总结、分析了 30 多个中文教学软件；Bourgerie (2003) 搜集调查了 42 个中文学习软件、11 个工具软件、3 个测试软件、还列出了 13 个网上中文阅读点、30 个网上新闻点、15 个网上汇集点；Yao (2003) 总结分析了美国中文教学网站，认为当时有关中文的网站虽然很多，但直接用于教学的却很少，质量也参差不齐；Xu (2004、2005) 把中文电脑辅助语言学习的发展分成四个阶段：开创 (1970-1985)、起步 (1986-1993)、发展 (1994-1999)、全方位开拓 (2000-2005)⁹；Xie 和 Yao (2008) 总结了中文电脑辅助语言学习的网站及软件，并讨论了 CALL 研究中有争议的问题；Yao (2009) 总结、分析了中文电脑辅助语言学习的网站，特别是有特点、有专门目的 (比如专门发展学生交际交流能力) 的网站；Xu (2013) 又提出了电脑辅助语言学习新趋势的说法。

4.2 CALL 的新趋势

Xu (2013) 从四个方面总结了 2006 年以来电脑辅助语言学习的新趋势：

一、科技大爆炸、大普及、大提高比如数码媒介、移动技术大量涌现、大量普及，网上参与式平台百家争鸣，云端技术、储存提取日臻成熟，虚拟课堂、视频会议、资讯通讯技术大突破，Web 2.0 技术更是为跨时空合作与学习打下了坚实的基础。

⁹ 第三阶段“发展”和第四阶段“全方位开拓”在 Xu (2004) 中不加区分。

二、科技大爆炸、大普及、大提高催生了数码新一代学习者，他们要求新的学习方式、方法、和环境。首先是要求数码信息和电子通信（至少用 PPT，电邮），其次希望趣味学习、游戏学习，希望可以通过网络、云端与教师和其他学生互动和共享，希望可以通过数码信息和交流技术（information and communication technology, ICT）、通过网络与外部真实世界相联系，最后希望交互使用虚拟课堂和实地课堂，希望以学习者为中心的自主（因人而异）学习，特别是动态学习（24/7，通过 Skype、智能手机、平板电脑等）。

三、数码新一代学习者的要求对传统教学法提出了挑战，也对教师提出了挑战。这要求教师熟悉网络参与式交流工具在语言教学上的应用，比如 MOOCs (cMOOCs)、虚拟课堂、资讯通讯等并熟悉（虚拟课堂、实地课堂）混合教学，要求教师尝试开放式教学比如移动教学、云端教学，同时尽可能多地将数码媒介结合到语言教学中去。在教学大纲方面，要求教师创立任务式教学和语义协商的网上应用等。因此教师培训（服务前、服务中）是电脑辅助语言学习发展的一个重要环节（Hubbard 2009）。

四、与此同时，不管数码新一代学习者对教学法、对教师有多么高的要求，他们也应该懂得在教育科技大提高、数码媒介大发展的同时，更要注意隐私权、版权、安全等等网络和社会问题，所以学生也需要培训。培训内容除了如何使用和学习须知等有关数码媒介的必备知识以外，上述问题也是一项重要内容。（Thomas et al 2013）

Yao (2009) 和 Xie & Yao (2008) 例举和分析的中文电脑辅助语言学习的网站就反应了上述新趋势。Liu (2015) 统计分析了从 2000 年到 2014 年 TCLT 大会发表的论文和 CLTA 年会上发表的有关中文 CALL 的论文，认为 TCLT 和 CLTA 近年年会上发表的论文更加突出了以上这些新趋势。

4.3 CALL 分期与中文 CALL 发展阶段的比较

根据许（2004、2005、2013），中文电脑辅助语言学习的发展大概可以划分成五个阶段：

- 一、开创（1970-1985）
- 二、起步（1986-1993）
- 三、发展（1994-1999）
- 四、全方位开拓（2000-2005）
- 五、CALL 的新趋势（2006-2015）

与 CALL 分期相比较，开创阶段（1970-1985）基本上与行为主义或结构主义 CALL 和封闭式 CALL 相对应（70s-80s），起步（1986-1993）和发展阶段（1994-1999）基本上与交际 CALL 和开放式 CALL 相对应（80s-90s），全方位开拓

(2000-2005)基本上与整体教学 CALL 和整合 CALL 相对应(2000年以后),而 CALL 的新趋势(2006-现在)则基本上与社会 CALL(Web. 2.0以后)相对应。

如果上述这种对应关系正确的话,那中文电脑辅助语言学习与 CALL 研究基本上是同步的。虽然有些具体阶段和时间在对应上有所不同,但中文 CALL 基本上经历了其他语种 CALL 的同样发展阶段,因此关于中文电脑辅助语言学习的发展可以写成如下四个阶段:

- 一、开创阶段(1970-1985):与行为主义或结构主义 CALL 和封闭式 CALL (70s-80s)相对应
- 二、起步和发展(1986-1999):与交际 CALL 和开放式 CALL (80s-90s)相对应
- 三、全方位开拓(2000-2005):与整体教学 CALL 和整合 CALL (2000年以后)相对应
- 四、CALL 的新趋势(2006-2015):与社会 CALL (Web. 2.0以后)相对应

5. CALL 研究的方向

Hubbard (2009)在谈到 CALL 研究方向时提到了三个方面:一是以 Web. 2.0 为基础的网络参与式学习与合作,二是以移动数码媒介为基础的移动式教学,三是进一步探索以三维虚拟世界为媒介的语言学习。认为这三个方面今后仍然是 CALL 研究的方向。Thomas et al (2013)认为社会 CALL(见上)抓住了当代 CALL 的特点,因此反应了 CALL 的新趋势和研究方向;并且认为 CALL 研究包括 CALL 教学法必须有自己的理论框架,这种理论框架应该以学习者怎么学习和怎么使用技术来学习为基础,因此弄清楚学习者的语言学习过程和需要至关重要。

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「非學不可」——與學生共築隨身教室 (The Omnipresence of the Chinese Language in Virtual Classrooms)

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摘要：語言學習平台最重要的就是學習者使用的頻率。故可善用現成的社交網路平台，利用其廣泛的用戶基礎及群眾接受度，在其上搭建合適的教育平台。使學生在此平台上潛移默化地自然學習中文。故以此精神提出「非學不可」計畫。其內容主要是結合了 Facebook 中三種師生角色不同定位的子平台，交互搭配使用，創造出互動性高的隨身教室/學校概念。並期許圍繞著此平台打造出以學生為主體，教學相長及永續學習的良好學習生態。

Abstract: The most important factor for a successful language learning platform is its high frequency of use among learners. Given its enormous user base and wide acceptance, social networking infrastructure contributes to a successful platform for language learning. Language learners on these platforms may acquire Chinese unconsciously. In this context, we have been developing the project “非學不可- Playful coercion in language acquisition”. The basic concept is a three-staged approach, alternating the conventional roles of learner and teacher along with three distinguished platforms, each corresponding to the learner's rate of progress. In this way the platforms provide a framework for student-centered language acquisition, and support lifelong learning for both teachers and students.

關鍵詞：中文網路教學，社交網路平台，永續學習

Keywords: Chinese web-based education, social network platform, lifelong learning

1. 前言

外在環境因素是語言學習的關鍵，海外非中文區域普遍缺乏接觸中文的機會，而網路教學的優勢正好可以補上這塊不足。網路教育的三無限制（無距離、無國界、無時間），降低了學習的門檻，提升了學生對中文的接受度（Qiu, 1992）。為了學生不易因環境因子或教材、課程的缺乏，而不得其門而入，故選擇一項學生頻繁且容易接觸的網路教育平台來整合各項資源，使學生能全方位且系統性的學習，實有其必要性。

儘管我們已經有數個專作教育用途的教學平台，但有其侷限性。因學生容易將其定位成課堂上的教具，及將其與考試作業做聯想而抱有距離感。往往在下課後不會主動與之接觸，但語言學習最重要的就是接觸、練習及運用的頻率。故可善用現成的社交網路平台，利用其廣泛的用戶基礎及群眾接受度，在其上搭建合適的教育平台，構建一個學生樂於接受的虛擬中文環境。使學生在此平台上潛移默化的自然學習。

而之所以選擇 Facebook 更因為其已成為年輕族群日常生活中不可或缺的一部分。平台本身具有全球化及生活化等特性，且學生族群接受度高。每日長時間且頻繁接觸，故可以利用此特點，不定期灌輸學生中文資源，使其潛移默化的學習，日積月累地提升語感，並增加其語言熟練度。這正與中文教育所需要的方法不謀而合。故取其潛移默化的精神提出「非學不可」計畫。但其實此計畫並不限定於 Facebook，舉凡現今通用的社交網路平台，如 Whatsapp、Wechat 皆適合，主要取決於教學現場師生雙方皆慣用的平台為宜，本文在此先以 Facebook 為例作介紹。其內容主要是結合了 Facebook 中三種師生角色不同定位的子平台，交互搭配使用，創造出互動性高的隨身教室/學校概念。

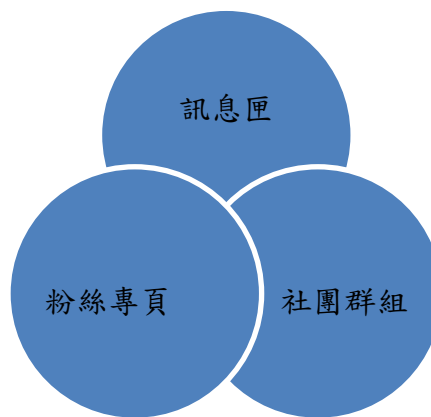


圖 1. 交互搭配的三個子平台

2. 網路社群融入對外中文學習

根據 Picciano & Seaman (2010) 所說網路課程主要是為了適應教育中的多層次需要，以及彌補傳統課堂在滿足不同學生需求方面的不足。尤其是網路社群平台與語言教學領域作結合時，更將激起不同的化學效應，Godwin-Jones (1999) 將網路課程的優勢歸納為：增加綜合性的接觸真實語言的機會、創造具有互動性和吸引力的學習環境、提供靈活多樣的語言操練機會。這些優勢正好對應到海外中文教學的需求，為學生提供中文環境及增加深造機會提供了更多的可能性。

雖然網路社群平台結合中文教學有如此顯著的優勢，但並不是將中文實體課程直接照搬到網路平台上即可成功。根據 Coopman (2009) 所說網路課程的構建並不是對傳統面對面版本課程的簡單移植，而是需要經歷教學法上的根本性的改變和對師生教與學關係的重新認識。顯示了網路社群平台教學其中還有許多要素及策略需要釐清及實踐才能使整個網路教學社群發揮出最大的效用。下面就將繼續討論網路平台教學過程中需要注意的要素。了解要素之後我們才能針對後續會發生的困難及問題提出可能性的解決方案。

2.1 網路社群平台教學的關鍵要素

Horton (2000) 認為學習者的參與是社群網站的成功因素之一，而教師的態度又是影響學習者參與的重要因素。因此教師是否也積極參與網站活動或與學習者的互動是否足夠，也會影響學習者的參與意願。這表示了教師如果沒有適當的策略來調動學生的參與性及積極度，即使課程內容再好，也無法使網路平台教學順利運行。Martz、Reddy & Sangermano (2004) 的研究顯示，師生互動、活動參與公平性、網站內容、使用科技能力是影響課程網站成功的因素。由上述可知，在網路平台教學過程中，不只是教師及學生須認識到自己的角色，師生以及生生間的關係也須找出適當的互動模式。因此，建構一個具備有高互動性的網路學習環境，才能在互動過程中讓學習者逐漸形成共同的學習經驗，讓彼此的社群意識共同成長以開創出成功的網路教室，如果再配合傳統課堂所學，充份達到知識分享和創造、資源共享和交換、經驗和情感交流等目的，才是善用新科技產物的 E-learning，進而實現學業成長和提升學習品質之教育最終目標 (Chang & Tang, 2002)。下面將繼續進行更實際層面的問題探討，以期能更真切的了解網路平台上師生間的教與學關係。

2.2 網路平台教學實施問題與策略

2.2.1 時間管理

網路雖有無限空間及無限時間的優點，但若無適當管理及引導，這些優點卻也有可能反過來造成教師及學生的困擾。為了提供線上的即時回饋，教師負有相當重的時間及精神壓力，像是 Al-Balooshi (2002) 指出，教師須付出比傳統教室課程更

多的的努力與時間在管理線上課程、了解學生的參與情況、參與討論並回覆每一個學生的問題等工作上。不只是教師, Hann, Glowacki-Dudka&Conceicao-Runlee(2000)及 Stratfold (1998) 還提到時間壓力是大部份線上學習者常會面臨的問題。所以若無良善的教學過程設計, 將只會徒增教師與學生的負擔, 大大減損了網路平台教學成立的美意。

2.2.2 教學秩序

另外就是讓整個教學過程順利運作的教學秩序問題, Kearsley (2000) 談到如何讓參與者能順利討論; 參與者常會張貼不適合的內容於主題內, 使討論次序錯亂等常見的問題。Kearsley (2000) 還提到線上學習社群的挑戰之一為大部份的教師缺乏主持協調與引導輔助的技巧, 這也是教師進行線上教學前需接受教育訓練的重要內容之一。未作好周詳的網路互動規劃, 網路教室不僅無法發揮輔助教學的作用, 更可能造成教師和學習者雙方的負面經驗 (Tsai, 2001)。由此可知, 若沒有恰當的管理, 整個網路教學過程將會失序, 並產生反效果。

2.3 解決方案

所以綜合上述的論點, 筆者整理出影響網路平台教學成功的兩個方向:

一. 教師如何運用有限的時間及策略, 適當且有效率的引導整個網路教學秩序, 讓眾多發言及知識分享不致失控及脫序。且同步掌握多個不同程度學生間的進度, 顧及到所有學習需求及公平參與的精神。

二. 如何增加學生的學習動機及引導學生積極參與的意願, 並在顧及到公平參與的精神下賦予學生適度的責任。

再更簡約的說, 就是妥善處理好網路平台中教師與學生各自的定位及關係, 讓其在整個教學互動過程中以最有效率的方法發揮出最大的功用。

因此為了妥善處理這些要素, 故筆者提出「非學不可」教學方案, 運用三個互有聯繫的子平台來梳理整個網路教學過程中的所有關係, 為教師排出最省力省時的管理方式以減輕負擔。並為學生們騰出最合適的發揮空間而不致互相干擾混亂。三個子平台的定位及功能整理如下表一:

表 1. 三個子平台的定位及功能

	訊息匣	社團群組	粉絲專頁
主持人	-	老師與同班學生	高年級學生輪流擔任
參與者	以學生個人為單位	以班級為單位，不對外開放	以學校為單位 + 對外開放
功能	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ 個人作業繳交 ◇ 即時隨堂測驗 ◇ 錯誤修改 ◇ 疑問解惑 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ 課題討論 ◇ 團體互動學習活動 ◇ 開放式團隊協同測驗 ◇ 學生作品預審 ◇ 班級內部意見溝通 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ 學生作品成果展示 ◇ 班際間互相交流 ◇ 中文推廣 ◇ 學生學習網路平台經營 ◇ 校友永續學習
學生於平台中的角色	知識接受者	知識參與者	知識傳遞者
老師於平台中的角色	知識傳遞者	知識參與者	從旁協助者

由上表可了解到藉由不同平台的定位，不同程度的學生以及不同來源的資訊將會自動分類歸納，學生知道各個平台的功能就會清楚自身在各個平台所該進行的活動，所該分享的訊息。整個教學秩序將能進行自我調節，讓老師省去不少煩瑣的平台管理事務，更能專注於教學上，也讓學習脈絡更加條理分明。幫助教師掌握各個平台以及所有學生的進度，更易於協調整體的教學節奏。

另外教師與學生在各個平台中將會擔負不同的角色，隨著學生的程度由低到高，教師的角色身分逐漸淡出，而學生的角色身分則相應著提高份量。除了讓教師能將有限的精力傾斜分配於較需引導的初期學生之外，還騰出足夠的平台空間，讓學生能以小老師及平台經營者的身分充分發揮，而不致於與教師的工作產生重疊，也藉由多個不同定位的子平台盡可能為各種類型的學生騰出適合交流的空間，才不會互相干擾混亂。

下面將會繼續列出「非學不可」中的四個特點，希望能為釐清中文教學平台上的角色，促進多方的良性互動，及增進整體的教學效果提出更進一步的解釋。

3. 「非學不可」計畫特色

整體「非學不可」教學平台有下列幾項主要特色：

1. 三種不同層次的子平台結合。逐步引導學生成為教學主體。
2. 學生之間的薪火相傳。使學習經驗及熱情可以延續下去。
3. 師生共同經營平台，引導中文教學相長。
4. 永續學習，學習不因修課年限結束而中斷。

3.1 角色變換

中文教學最重要就是增加學生練習運用的機會，但如何引導學生克服害羞感勇於開口表現始終是中文教師的重大課題之一，且鑑於課程時數的有限性，如何提供每位學生平等且充分的表現機會也是需要費盡一番思量。而「非學不可」計畫則希望能提供一種能同時解決這兩項問題的思考方式。

普觀眾多社交群組教學大多以單一平台構成，集合所有學生及知識於一體，這對活絡學習氣氛以及刺激思考碰撞有相當正面的幫助。但若學生人數較多或是程度不一時，就無法保障學生所提供資訊材料的正確性，若無另外的平台進行篩選，直接顯示於公眾目光前，許多學生可能因此被誤導，吸收了錯誤的知識。且單一平台容易由程度較好或較為活潑的學生占據發言權，擠壓到其他學生的練習空間，那就失去平等增加學習機會的精神，甚至會影響所有學生的學習氣氛。所以非學不可計畫希望能透過多層次的子平台來作為緩衝，層層過濾，對不同平台配以合適的知識範圍及討論方式來引導整個學習過程，以管控平台的發言秩序及保障知識的正確率。

緊接著就是如何引導學生克服害羞感的問題了，因為語言學習的初學者一開始往往對自己沒自信，不敢在公眾前表達或參與討論，若貿然提供一個公開的網路平台，學生極有可能因為自信心的缺乏而不去運用，那就失去網路教學增加操練機會的本意了。故希望透過三個子平台，分階引導學生於三個子平台間扮演不同的角色，由一開始的不公開私下傳授開始，逐步建立學生的實力及自信，再到中等程度的半公開，讓學生逐步適應在別人面前展示自己中文的情況，以建立學生開口說的習慣及產生對中文的認同感，最後累積一定作品及具備適宜中文水平之後，再進入對外公開的平台，逐步提升學生在教學過程中的重要性，徐徐善誘、循序漸進，使學生在心態上逐漸調適習慣，融入參與甚而挺身主導。學生將從最初單純知識的接收者成長為教學過程的參與者，最後並一躍成為知識的傳遞者（Chen & Shih, 2001）。這種心態的轉變不只能幫助學生克服內心的障礙，更能超越課堂知識的極限，找到無限的可能。

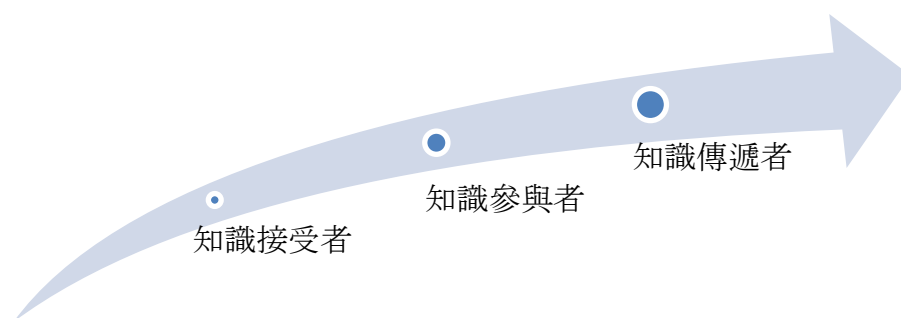


圖 2. 學生於三個子平台間的角色提升

3.2 薪火相傳

網路學習社群裡另一個重要的關係就是學習者之間的互動。Jonassen, Peck & Wilson (1999) 指出網路學習社群乃成員透過追求共同目標，並彰顯彼此信任、對話溝通、相互支援、分享價值與經驗、尊重多元等特徵而得以建立。所以在非學不可計畫中雖已透過三個不同程度的子平台，對不同程度的學生及知識進行分流，以期建立教學秩序。但不代表各學生群相互間就沒有聯繫及交流。仍繼續透過教學分享機制，互相借鑒參考。各年級各平台間的關係環環相扣，相輔相成。

高年級可藉由分享及成果展示記錄自己的學習經歷及思考過程，並可在與其他學生交流的過程中得到回饋，方便進行最後的總結及反思。中年級學生則可透過觀摩高年級過往的學習歷程，了解整個學習脈絡，減少可能重複發生的學習錯誤及癥結點。有了先行者的經驗分享作為參考也能幫助初學者對中文文化建構一個較為完整的概念，心中存有「別人能，我也行」的踏實心態有助於學生訂立合適的學習目標及建立信心。這些因素顧及到到低中高年級學生的需求，促使年級間互助合作，知識及經驗互相分享傳承，形成良性循環的學習生態。

3.3 教學相長

老師與學生將共同經營此平台，共同推廣中文教學。賦予學生經營者的角色，將使學生對中文產生認同感甚至責任感，而不再是以往「你教我學」的被動心態。學生會感到有義務維持平台上的教學過程是否順暢、討論氣氛是否熱烈，甚至互相督促學習，合力拉拔整個團體的中文水平。對整個教學起到一個正面積極的作用。

在其中不只學生的角色改變而已，老師的身分也會有所調整。舉凡學習環境的設計，班級氣氛的營造，補充文化教材的提供等傳統教師的工作，將逐漸卸下，轉由學生接手。使學生嘗試擔任「小老師」亦或是「主持人」的角色將有助學生從不同的角度看清一些教學過程中的盲點，並進而產生更深層次的體悟，最後回饋至整個教學過程。老師也可藉由退居輔導者的角色，拉開視野，以旁觀者清的心態更看

清楚學生的思維邏輯，進而調整後續的教學方向。此雙向交流過程中不斷地腦力激盪及思維磨合，不只會同時拓展中文「教」與「學」的深度及廣度。更會減少師生間的想法落差，使教學目標更加精準確實。

3.4 永續學習

很多網路平台都有帳號及資格限制，這樣雖然方便管理教學進度及分配教學資源，但卻缺乏向外推廣展示的機會。且學生於畢業後就失去登錄資格，也使得學生及整個平台後續的發展產生了些許的侷限性。整個平台的知識量封閉於有限的領域內，缺乏外來的刺激及後續的延展性，那就像在無邊無際的網路世界畫地自限一樣，實為可惜。圍繞著「非學不可」平台進行學習將可以消除時間及空間的隔閡。子平台中的粉絲專頁不但對外開放，以期吸取外界的意見及知識。且學生的資格將不會因為畢業或停止修課而終止。學生仍可持續在此平台的基礎上延伸進修，永續學習，並不斷將新的知識及觀念回饋到中文教學的發展上。非學不可平台將因此具有源源不斷的自我成長能力。更可以建立學生的認同及歸屬感，一起帶動中文教學的發展，促使平台本身成為無可限量的教學有機體。介紹完以上的特色，接下來將進入更實際的操作層面，以三種子平台結合多項活動進行概略性的介紹。

4. 「非學不可」教學方法介紹

4.1 基本架構介紹

- 鎖定學生群是非中文母語的高中及大學以上的學習者。因學習者需具備足夠的心理成熟度及思考理解能力，才適用於「非學不可」計畫中的心理角色轉換。
- 以實體班級為主要基礎班底架構社團群組進行教學。相同中文程度分班，方便掌握齊一的教學進度。
- 虛擬與實際活動作結合：現實課堂上的優秀表現可以以多媒體的方式分享至網路平台；網路平台上的優秀作品也可以匯聚起來改由實際活動方式呈現（如成果展、中文日等現場活動），虛擬與實際的雙向結合給予學生更多元化的分享模式。以足夠的空間誘導出學生的表現慾及潛力。
- 師生共編補充教材：根據中文課堂主題，由全班協力合作搜尋相關資料，最後由學生及老師一起進行資料篩選及統整，並彙整成報告，作為補充教材分發全班一起學習。由於資料收集及編選的過程學生皆有參與，故學生對教材的興趣及接受度較高。內容的實用性也更符合學生需求。
- 「非學不可」計畫教學週期為三個階段，依程度區分為低中高年級。下面先以三年六學期作期段介紹。可依照各學校的實際課程及需求進行調整。
- 需特別提到課程終止學生（下皆以校友稱之）仍可持續回到平台進行學習及經驗傳承。

低年級 - 準備期

- 上學期： 只利用訊息匣進行中文教學。為下學期成立社團群組做準備。之所以不一開始就成立社團群組，是因為學生的知識量仍不夠，可能因討論量不足而影響班級社團氣氛，無法達到應有的教學效果，故需要一個知識前備期做緩衝。
- 下學期： 正式建立班級為單位的社團群組，進行團隊任務型教學，並整合各項教學資源及累積學生作品。

中年級 - 銜接期

- 上學期： 學生作品累積至一定數量，經由老師及學生合力篩選合適之作品，發表至對外公開的粉絲專頁，提高學生的參與率。
- 下學期： 引導學生踴躍參與粉絲專頁的課題討論並逐漸接手粉絲專頁的經營。

高年級 - 成熟期及交棒期

- 上學期： 主持粉絲專頁、舉辦網路暨實際活動以及進行定期課題討論（每週一個主題，由高年級學生輪流擔任主持人，一學期共 15 個主題。高年級為主導，中年級從旁協助，低年級旁聽兼適當參與。）。
- 下學期： 逐漸把經營權力移交給中年級學生。開始整理過往的學習歷程及資料，放進社團群組作備份，以利日後的複習及進一步的進修。

校友

可持續參與粉絲專頁中的課題討論，並進行學習經驗專題分享。

4.2 活動

活動設計的主要概念如下：

訊息匣 – 學生單純扮演學習者的角色，充分回應及吸收老師的基礎教學。

社團群組 – 讓學生們互動學習並試著扮演起小老師的功能。

粉絲專頁 – 除了讓學生更為主動的學習之外更背負起向外推廣中文及網路平台經營者的角色。

表 2. 於三種子平台可進行的活動

訊息匣	以記錄學生的學習狀況，跟蹤進度為主 繳交語音作業及進行即時隨堂測驗以做為學習歷程記錄。
社團群組	活動設計以加強同班學生間的互助合作學習為主 開放式團隊協同測驗： 互相指名答題 — 學生答題後，需另出一道題目，並指名下一位同學回答。 補充：除了老師外，學生間也可互相提示錯誤，惟須注意答案若有錯誤不可直接修改，需在新對話框進行訂正，主要是為了保留錯誤歷程紀錄，以利進行日後的檢討。
粉絲專頁	活動設計以帶動班際間的競爭來激發學生的潛能為主 支援前線競賽： 根據中文相關主題，由數個團隊進行任務達成競賽，由學生輪流表現，不可重複，需達成全員參與的效果。可廣邀外界人士協助完成任務，誰先達到目標者獲勝。

5. 結論

此計畫最重要在於過程中賦予學生的責任及角色，使學生兼具部分老師、評審及平台經營者等多重身分。而不只是傳統教學中單純的被動接受者，更是主動的知識提供者。達到真正意義上的教學相長。不只提升了學生對中文的認知，更提升了學生對中文的認同感。

此計畫已經由筆者於所任教的奧地利主流學校中初步實踐，獲得不錯的回應。以往奧地利主流學校學生礙於對中文的認知不足，且基於對學業成績的考量，不敢放膽選擇中文做為修習學科，所以中文課程在奧地利主流學校的發展規模一直無法展開，但在施行非學不可教學計畫之後，藉由已修課學生的經驗分享，及網路成果的展示，讓其他學生可以親身感受並了解到中文課程的可行性。不但吸引了更多學生於低年級時即投入了中文課程的學習中，也於 2013 及 2015 年分別舉行了首屆及第二屆的奧地利中文高中畢業會考，國家會考定期的舉行也奠定了中文教育在奧地利中學階段的根基。

之後更期許圍繞著此平台，吸引到更多潛在對中文有興趣的學生，並能延續及保存學生的熱情，不會因課程結束或外在因素，而中斷對中文的學習，更能不斷對後來的學習者傳承其學習經驗。藉由學生持續的反饋，促進此教學平台的自我成長，帶動中文教學的發展，將可能成為十分具有前瞻性的教學有機體，朝著永續經營的課堂為目標而前進。

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Does the Personalization of Multimedia Instruction Influence the Effectiveness of Decorative Graphics during Foreign Language Instruction?

(外语教学中多媒体设计的个性化原则是否影响图像教学的效果)

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Abstract: This report summarizes two experiments that explored whether the personalization principle mitigates the influence of seductive details in decorative graphics during multimedia instruction about the culture of a language. The results showed that decorative graphics increased learning during personalized instruction (Experiment 1), but impaired learning during impersonal instruction (Experiment 2). These findings add to research literature by showing that the instructional value of decorative graphics in multimedia instruction depends on the verbal-semantic context in which they are embedded. This research demonstrates that they are beneficial in personalized multimedia instruction, but detrimental in impersonal instruction.

摘要: 本文旨在研究外语教学中, 采用多媒体辅助文化知识学习中, 个性化原则能否对装饰性图像效果进行调和。实验一的研究结果显示在个性化教学中, 装饰性图像能提高教学效果, 实验二的研究结果显示在非个性化教学中, 装饰性图像有损教学效果。本文提出在多媒体辅助教学中, 装饰性图像的教学效果依赖于语言的语义场景, 装饰性图像有益于个性化的多媒体教学, 但是对非个性化的多媒体教学无益。本文的研究对文献进行了补充, 为教学实践提供了参考依据。

Keywords: Multimedia, personalization principle, decorative graphics

关键词: 多媒体、个性化原则、装饰性图像

1. Introduction

Understanding the culture associated with another language is an important aspect of foreign language instruction. True proficiency in a foreign language cannot be developed without understanding the culture of the target language (National Standards

in Foreign Language Education Projects, 1996). This idea is consistent with the primary premise of situated learning theory: what is learned cannot be separated from how it is learned and used. That is, “Learning and cognition . . . are fundamentally situated” (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989, p. 32).

Although situating foreign-language instruction within its cultural context has been found to be the most effective means of reaching second language proficiency (Met, 1998), teaching the culture of a language can be challenging when full immersion programs are not feasible. One solution to this dilemma is to use rich multimedia materials (e.g., engaging video) in the classroom to help students experience the charm and appeal of the culture of a foreign language. Because learning about the culture of a language encompasses both affective (e.g., interest, appreciation, aesthetics) and cognitive learning domains, multimedia instruction containing decorative, rather than instructional, visuals may be the most effective approach. Furthermore, combining decorative visuals with a personalized, rather than a non-personalized, narrative may be the optimal way to combine visual and verbal information in multimedia instruction (Danielson, 2012; Danielson, Schwartz, Falahi, & DeVries, 2011). However, this assumption needs empirical examination because decorative visuals are typically viewed as detrimental to learning (Carney & Levin, 2002; Moreno & Mayer, 2000).

The purpose of the current research is to examine whether personalizing multimedia instruction moderates learning from decorative graphics. Our theoretical goal was to determine whether a previously identified boundary condition of the multimedia principle (i.e., that graphics must convey instructional information) is negated when multimedia instruction combines decorative graphics with a personalized narrative. Our practical goal was to discover optimal ways of designing multimedia materials to improve Chinese language learning.

2. Literature review

The multimedia learning principle states that student learning is improved when text is combined with graphics (Mayer, 2009). Empirical support for this principle can be found in several experimental studies (Butcher, 2006; Mayer, 1989; Mayer & Anderson, 1991, 1992; Moreno & Valdez, 2005). The multimedia learning principle can be explained from the perspective of Mayer’s cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML).

2.1 Cognitive theory of multimedia learning

Mayer’s (2009) CTML describes the mental processes involved in learning from multimedia materials. The CTML is based on three assumptions about the human information processing system: (a) dual channels, (b) limited capacity, and (c) active processing. The dual channel assumption refers to separate channels for processing visual and auditory information in working memory. The limited capacity assumption refers to the information processing limitations (in terms of capacity and duration) of each channel. Finally, the active processing assumption is that learners must actively process

information in working memory by selecting, organizing, and integrating information within and between processing channels,

Most of the multimedia-learning principles described in the literature (e.g., continuity principle, modality principle) are informed by the first two assumptions of the CTML: dual channels and limited capacity. Viewed from this perspective they represent ways of reducing extraneous cognitive load in order to improve the efficiency of multimedia instruction (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). Extraneous cognitive load refers to mental effort that is invested in ways unrelated to the goals of the instruction (e.g., listening to background music, dividing attention between poorly arranged instructional elements). Interestingly, multimedia-learning principles related to the third assumption of the CTML (i.e., active processing) are less prevalent in the research literature. However, this is an important area of research because, according to the CTML, learning is contingent upon the active processing of instructional material—irrespective of issues related to extraneous load. That is, unless learners are motivated to actively select, organize, and integrate incoming information, efforts to reduce cognitive load are futile. However, the *personalization principle* has been identified as an instructional approach that promotes active processing in working memory.

2.2 The personalization principle

The personalization principle refers to students learning more effectively from multimedia instruction when words are presented in a conversational (personalized) manner rather than a formal (non-personalized) manner (Clark & Mayer, 2011; Mayer, Fennell, Farmer, & Campbell, 2004). Personalized instruction consists of verbal social cues that use first and second person language (e.g., I, my, you, etc.), comments focused directly at the learner, or comments that make the personality of the author more salient. Several studies have confirmed the advantages of personalizing multimedia instruction (Ginns, 2013; Mayer, et al., 2004; Moreno & Mayer, 2000; Rey & Steib, 2013).

Theoretically, personalized instruction is purported to increase learners' sense of social presence in a learning episode by creating the feeling that they are in a social relation with the individual or on-screen agent that is conveying the instructional message (Moreno & Mayer, 2004; Reeves & Nass, 1996). This increase in social presence, in turn, increases learner interest and motivation, encouraging them to use cognitive resources to actively process instructional messages (Moreno & Mayer, 2004). This increase in motivation also energizes and sustains learner effort to engage in active cognitive processing (i.e., selecting, organizing, or integrating information) (Wentzel & Wigfield, 2009), the third assumption of the CTML.

2.3 The seductive details hypothesis

Seductive details inhibit the learners' ability to engage in the active processing assumption of the CTML. Seductive details may inhibit active processing by (a) diverting attention from key information, (b) disrupting the coherent organization of information, or (c) activating irrelevant information. (Harp & Mayer, 1998; Sanchez & Wiley, 2006). For example, decorative graphics are often interesting and aesthetically pleasing, but not

directly relevant to the instructional objectives of a lesson (Sung & Mayer, 2012). They are often considered seductive details because they can be extraneous or incidental to the purposes of the instruction. Several studies have demonstrated the detrimental learning effects of decorative graphics in instructional messages (Carney & Levin, 2002; Levin, Anglin, & Carney, 1987; Sung & Mayer, 2012).

However, more recent studies have shown that decorative graphics are not always detrimental to learning; for instance, they can function as metaphors that highlight underlying themes in a lesson (Danielson, 2012). They can also increase positive mood, alertness, calmness, and confidence during learning (Lenzner, Schnotz, & Muller, 2013).

Furthermore, decorative graphics have been shown to moderate the beneficial effects of instructional graphics. For example, Lenzner et al. (2013) found that learners reading a text accompanied by both instructional and decorative graphics outperformed learners who read the text accompanied by instructional graphics alone. There is evidence to suggest that the moderating effect of decorative graphics may extend to other aspects of multimedia instruction. Danielson and colleagues (Danielson et al., 2011; Danielson, Schwartz, & Lippman, 2015) conducted a series of studies exploring the effects of decorative graphics on text comprehension. They concluded that decorative graphics can moderate (i.e. improve) text comprehension to the degree that learners are able to conceptually link the text and graphic. In their studies the decorative graphics functioned as metaphors that enabled the learners to infer a relationship between the text and graphics. Interestingly, these researchers found that the beneficial effects of decorative graphics were not evident on an immediate posttest, but only after a one-week delay. They concluded that linking an abstract metaphor to associated text requires a depth of cognitive processing that may not be apparent during immediate testing; only during delayed testing are the benefits of deeper processing manifest as cognitive schema that are more resistant to decay over time.

As a logical extension of this research we hypothesized that decorative graphics can moderate personalized narration if the learner sees the graphics (e.g., personal photographs) as personalized extensions of the narration. Specifically, we predicted that decorative graphics would increase the benefits of personalized multimedia instruction as evidenced by higher scores on a delayed, but not immediate, posttest. Contrariwise, we hypothesized that decorative graphics would function as seductive details in non-personalized multimedia instruction resulting in impaired performance on immediate and delayed posttests. This prediction was based on the assumption that multimedia instruction containing non-personalized narration lacks the social cues necessary to generate a feeling of social presence and a corresponding increase in interest, motivation, and learning. Obviously, decorative graphics cannot strengthen the effects of personalization in a non-personalized narration.

In this investigation we explored the hypotheses discussed above in two experiments. In Experiment 1 we compared a multimedia presentation that combined decorative graphics with a corresponding personalized narrative (the personalization principle) to a presentation of the same personalized narrative without graphics. In Experiment 2 we combined a non-personalized narrative with corresponding decorative

graphics to a presentation of the same non-personalized narrative without graphics. We hypothesized decorative graphics congruent with a personalized narrative would facilitate learning on a delayed, but not immediate, posttest (Experiment 1), while decorative graphics accompanying a non-personalized narrative would impair performance on both immediate and delayed posttests (Experiment 2).

3. Experiment 1

Based on prior research, we hypothesized that a personalized multimedia presentation would encourage learners to use decorative graphics as conceptual links between the personalized experience of the narrator and the content of the narration, thereby improving retention of the multimedia presentation.

3.1 Participants and design

Thirty-one undergraduate students (19 men and 12 women), ranging in age from 19-24 years old ($M = 21.7$), from a large university in the Southwestern United States volunteered to participate in the study. The participants were enrolled in Japanese language courses and received course credit for their participation. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions: personalization plus decorative graphics (PDG) ($n = 17$) or personalization only (PO) ($n = 14$).

3.2 Multimedia presentation

The base multimedia presentation consisted of a five-minute video narrated in English by an Australian high-school female discussing her six-month experience as an exchange student in a Japanese high school. This video constituted the PDG treatment condition. Consistent with the *personalization principle*, the recorded live image of the female narrator was embedded in the video; the narrator discussed her experiences in a conversational tone using first-person language, occasionally focusing her comments directly at the participant. The video also included decorative graphics, which consisted of scenes from the Japanese high school. Most of the graphics were photographs taken by the narrator of the people and places she visited during her experience as an exchange student in Japan. The PO condition was created by removing the audio track from the video. Participants in the PO condition listened to the same audio as those in the PDG condition, but they did not view the visual information (i.e., narrator or decorative graphics); they listened to the narration of the video through headphones.

3.3 Tests, procedures and analysis

A retention test consisting of 10 multiple-choice items was created to assess learner retention of the verbal material presented by the female narrator. This test was used as a pretest, an immediate posttest, and a one-week delayed posttest.

Upon arriving at the university language learning laboratory, participants were randomly assigned to either the PDG or the PO condition. They then took the online

pretest, studied their assigned treatment material, and then took the immediate posttest. Seven days later the participants took the delayed posttest in their regular classrooms.

The data from the immediate and delayed posttest were analyzed separately by one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA); the pretest was used as the covariate in the analysis.

3.4 Results

One-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to examine differences between groups on the immediate and delayed posttest. All statistical tests were conducted with alpha set at .05. Effect sizes are reported using partial Eta squared (η^2).

The results of the ANCOVA on the immediate posttest were not statistically significant, $F(1, 28) = 2.3$, $MSE = .52$, $p = .14$, $\eta^2 = .077$; however, consistent with our hypothesis, the delayed posttest was significant, $F(1, 28) = 6.74$, $MSE = 1.43$, $p = .015$, $\eta^2 = .194$. Students receiving a personalized narrative and decorative graphics outperformed those receiving just the personalized narration on the delayed posttest. (see Table 1)

Table 1: Immediate and Delayed Posttest Mean Scores by Experimental Condition in Experiments 1 and 2

Dependent Measures	Personalized	Decorative Graphics		Auditory Only		Total	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Immediate Posttest	Yes (Exp.1)	9.76	0.44	9.50	0.52	9.63	0.48
	No (Exp.2)	7.91	1.58	7.80	0.92	7.86	1.28
Delayed Posttest	Yes (Exp.1)	9.94	0.24	9.50	0.65	9.72	0.45
	No (Exp.2)	6.73	1.35	8.00	0.94	7.33	1.32

4. Experiment 2

In this experiment, we hypothesized that removing personalization from a multimedia presentation would mitigate the instructional value of decorative graphics, thereby, reducing the visual information to mere seductive details. Our hypothesis was based on prior research showing the detrimental effects of seductive details on learning (Carney & Leven, 2002; Harp & Mayer, 1998, Sung & Mayer, 2012).

4.1 Participants and design

Twenty-one undergraduate students (9 men and 12 women), ranging in age from 20-24 years old ($M = 21.6$), enrolled at the same university as the participants from Experiment 1, volunteered to participate in the study. The participants were enrolled in Chinese language courses and received course credit for their participation. Each

participant was randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions: non-personalization plus decorative graphics (NPDG) ($n = 10$) or non-personalization only (NPO) ($n = 11$).

4.2 Multimedia presentation

The base multimedia presentation was a five-minute YouTube video clip about Chinese educational philosophy. The video was narrated in English by an adult male and consisted of information about the development of the philosophy of education in mainland China and Taiwan.

The narrator spoke in a formal tone using third-person language (e.g., it and he, etc.) with no personal comments or interactions with the listeners; he merely introduced the facts (e.g. “There are three main influences on the contemporary Chinese philosophy of education.”). The NPDG condition differed from the NPO condition by including both the video and the narration. However, the video did not contain personal images of the narrator, only decorative graphics that did not contain instructional content (e.g. photos of well-known Chinese educational philosophers, and Chinese universities). The audio track of the video (i.e., narration) was captured and saved in a separate file. The NPO group listened to the exact same audio as the NPDG group; the only difference was the absence of the video.

4.3 Tests, procedures and analysis

As in Experiment 1, a ten-item multiple-choice test was created to measure retention of the verbal information presented in the multimedia presentation. This test was used as a pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest. The procedures and data analysis of the experiment were identical to Experiment 1.

4.4 Results

The results of the ANCOVA on the immediate posttest were not statistically significant, $F(1, 18) = .002, n.s., \eta^2 = .00$; however, the delayed posttest was significant, $F(1, 18) = 5.34, p = .03, \eta^2 = .229$. Students in the NPO condition outperformed those in NPDG condition on the delayed posttest. (see Table 1). Contrary to the findings from Experiment 1, students receiving only narration outperformed those receiving both narration plus decorative graphics. Consistent with our hypothesis, it appears that removing personalization from the narration mitigated the value of the decorative graphics as a vehicle for encouraging a linkage between the narrator’s message and the associated decorative graphics.

5. Conclusion

The results of this investigation provide support for the hypothesis that the instructional value of decorative graphics depends on the verbal-semantic context in which they are embedded (Danielson et al. 2011). In Experiment 1, participants who

viewed decorative graphics in the context of a personalized narration outperformed those who listened to the narration without viewing the graphics on a delayed posttest. This result suggests that participants viewing decorative graphics were able to mentally associate the verbal social cues in the narration with the graphics. Therefore, the instructional benefits of personalized narration (i.e., increased social presence, interest, and motivation) were likely enhanced through association with the decorative graphics (Danielson et al., 2011; Danielson, Schwartz, & Lippman, 2015; Lenzner et al. 2013). This interpretation of our results adds to research literature by providing a dual-channel interpretation of the personalization principle, with verbal social cues being processed in the verbal channel and related decorative graphics being processed in the visual channel (Mayer, 2009).

The findings from Experiment 2 provide support for the hypothesis presented above. Contrary to the findings of Experiment 1, the participants who viewed decorative graphics within the context of non-personalized narration performed worse than those who listened to the non-personalized narration without viewing the graphics. The decorative graphics in Experiment 2 appear to have functioned as seductive details resulting in impaired learning performance on the delayed posttest (Carney & Levin, 2002; Levin, Anglin, & Carney, 1987; Sung & Mayer, 2012). It appears that without social cues in the narration the participants were less likely to mentally associate the decorative graphics with the narration.

From a theoretical perspective it appears that a previously identified boundary condition of the multimedia learning principle (i.e., that graphics should be instructional) does not apply when the instructional materials are personalized. The personalization principle seems to mitigate the influence of seductive details in decorative graphics during multimedia instruction about the culture of a foreign language. Finally, the current research supports the use of decorative graphics in learning the culture of a foreign language as long as the accompanying verbal information is personalized.

This research has practical implications for Chinese language instruction. First, instructors should consider the use of personalized multimedia instruction as a means of helping students learn about the culture of the Chinese language. Second, in their search for appropriate video presentations, instructors should pay particular attention to avoid non-personalized presentations that may direct learner attention almost exclusively to the narration and away from the decorative graphics. Decorative graphics may convey important affective (e.g., motivation, aesthetic) information which is important for appreciating the culture of a foreign language. Finally, instructors should not be overly concerned with a lack of immediate learning results from personalized multimedia instruction. The benefits of this instructional approach appear to become more evident with the passage of time.

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促進聽力寬度教學之華語口音資源
——「漢語聽力通」網站之建置
(Enhancing the Range of Listening Breadth with Various
Mandarin Accents
— Development of the “Mandarin Chinese Listening Training”
Website)

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摘要：由於絕大多數華人所講的國語/普通話都帶有受方言影響的口音，因此在中級教學有必要強調各種口音的聽力理解並引入材料。筆者認為聽力訓練不應僅限於速度及長度的訓練，也應包括「寬度」，即對於不同音色、口音、腔調之聽力理解。本文首先介紹華語聽力寬度教學的理念及其重要性，其次介紹筆者基於該理念所倡導創建的漢語聽力通網站。該網站已收集了包括 16 種口音的數百筆語音。

Abstract: The article aims to emphasize the importance of the listening breadth instruction and introduces a website development project in this regard. Since the most of Chinese people speak Mandarin with certain accent, it's necessary to widen learners' Mandarin listening breadth and include accented voice materials in order to enhance learners' communication ability. Based on the idea, the researcher has developed a website with various teaching/learning functions for listening. Over 600 voice files crossing 16 kinds of Mandarin accents are recorded and showed in the website.

關鍵詞：華語普通話/國語，口音，聽力，聽力寬度，網站

Keywords: Mandarin Chinese, Accents, Listening proficiency, Listening breadth, Website

1. 前言

聽力的理解是人際溝通的重要技能，一般的聽力教學都著重於聽力的速度及長度，卻忽略了聽力的「寬廣度」。所謂的寬廣度是指對於不同音色、口音、腔調之聽力理解能力，應將之視為聽力的一環。

在真實的華語環境中，漢語普通話/國語 (Mandarin) 包含了極多的變體，絕大多數華人所講的國語/普通話或多或少都帶有受方言影響的口音，不僅是華語區包括中國大陸、臺灣、香港、新加坡、馬來西亞等地各有其普通話口音，大陸各方言區的人士說普通話時也常帶有各地腔調，如此必然造成華語學習者的聽力困難。此外，漢語教學經常強調要使用真實語料 (Authentic materials)，然而真實的華語普通話語料必會包含了各種不同的口音腔調，基於聽力是被動接收型的語言技能，聽者不能只聽得懂最標準的華語，或是只和能說標準普通話的人士交際，如何讓華語學習者能聽懂適應這些不同的口音，擴增聽力的寬度以提高和各地華人的交際能力，是華語聽力教學亟待發展的方向。

但實際上，進行聽力寬度教學頗為困難，一般附加於課本的聽力光碟多半只提供課文與生詞的標準發音。在一般課堂上或學生自學的環境中，教師本身難以模仿說出不同的普通話口音讓學生練習聽力，也難以自行錄製各種華語口音的聽力材料。而學生即使身處華語環境中，多半只能聽到當地的口音，也難以自然接觸到不同地區的口音。若能有系統地大量錄製各地華人的各種華語普通話口音，將之分類置於網站並加註來源及逐字稿，則不但可以成為課堂上的教學資源，也可讓學生採自學方式，自行上網反覆聆聽。

本文介紹由作者倡導建置的旨在幫助聽力寬度的一個網站-漢語聽力網站，包括其設置理念，對口音分類、教學功能、語音呈現方式等。該網站目前已收集了包括 16 種口音的數百筆語音。

2. 基本理念

許多學者建議在課堂上讓學習者接觸多種口音。Rixon (1990) 認為學習者若具有接觸不同口音的經驗，將更能與實際生活連結，在其溝通上亦更有幫助。Jenkins (2000) 認為聽話者之所以能成功地與他人的條件為在先前曾接觸了不同口音。Seidlhofer (2004) 也指出接觸多種口音下更能提高溝通能力。在漢語教學方面，陳軍 (2002) 提出：「加入生活中真實的聲音，或是略帶方音的普通話，增加干擾，讓學生從各種聲音中識別自己所要學的東西。」。Kubler (2003) 亦主張應該在聽力上加入受方言影響的語言變體，學習者從中級程度開始可慢慢引入帶有口音的漢語。

張本楠 (2008) 指出在日常生活中，很少有人說純正標準的華語，因此聽者無法要求所有的說話者皆要以「標準的」華語交談，是故，就連華語母語者都還需要時間來適應理解帶有口音的華語，更不論華語作為第二語言的學習者。總結上述，華語聽力教學應開始著重學習者之聽力的寬度訓練，將聽力寬度作為教學及能力評量必備的項目。

3. 網站設計與呈現

網站名稱：漢語聽力通 (Mandarin Chinese Listening Training)

網址：hanyu123.weebly.com

本網站為華語多元口音之聽力材料網路平台，收集台灣、中國大陸、香港、新加坡、馬來西亞，及其他地區之華語口語語音，做為華語聽力之語音教材，期能以真實的多元口音材料，作為華語教師的聽力教學資源，亦作為中高級華語學習者的聽力自學材料，以升華語學習者之「聽力寬度」。



圖 1 漢語聽力通的首頁

網頁的呈現方式除了表示網站設計者想要給使用者看的內容外，也包含使用者使用的方便性、直觀性等等，本研究團隊為了突顯多元口音的聽力特色，因此在首

頁即以左側選單的方式羅列許多帶有漢語方言口音國語 / 普通話的選項，並設置各地華語口音比較的選項，點選之後可進入一個可聆聽各地口音範例的頁面。

The screenshot shows a website interface for 'MANDARIN CHINESE LISTENING TRAINING'. The main content area is titled '世界各地華語口音比較 ACCENTS COMPARISON'. It features two buttons: '自由獨白式 Free talk' and '念稿式 Read an article'. Below these are several audio player sections for different accents:

- 中國大陸標準普通話語音 Standard Mandarin of Mainland China**: 男 Male / 19歲 / 談我喜歡的音樂 THE MUSIC I LIKE
- 中國大陸一般口音 General Mandarin of Mainland China**: 女 Female / 21歲 / 談我的理想對象 MY IDEAL SPOUSE
- 臺灣標準國語語音 Standard Mandarin of Taiwan**: 女 Female / 50歲 / 談我居住的環境 THE ENVIRONMENT WHERE I LIVE
- 臺灣一般口音 General Mandarin of Taiwan**: 男 Male / 23歲 / 談打工經驗 MY WORKING EXPERIENCE
- 新加坡華語 Singapore Accent**: 女 Female / 23歲 / 談自我介紹 SELF-INTRODUCTION
- 馬來西亞華語 Malaysia Accent**: 女 Female / 26歲 / 談我的理想對象 MY IDEAL SPOUSE

圖 2 華語口音的選單與比較列表

4. 華語普通話口音分類

網站上的口音略分為 16 類，置於網頁左側的選單，口音的類別先按世界華語 (Global Chinese) 的概念，列出幾個華語地區或國家，包括中國大陸普通話、臺灣的國語、港澳普通話、新加坡華語、馬來西亞華語及等，唯中國大陸及台灣兩地的口音都有所謂的標準與否之分，故又分為中國大陸標準普通話語音、中國大陸一般口音(指不太標準的口音)、臺灣標準國語語音、臺灣一般口音。

另中國大陸又按官話區及方言區進行分類，官話區的普通話口音略分為：東北官話、北京官話、北方官話(河北、山東、天津)、中原官話(河南、陝西)、江淮官話(南京口音)、西南官話(四川、重慶、雲南、貴州)。

方言區的普通話略分為：吳語區(上海、浙江)、贛語區(江西口音)、湘語區(湖南口音)、閩語區(福建、海南、臺灣)、客語區、粵語區(廣東、香港、澳門)。

另加上外國人口音，共有十六種不同的普通話口音類別。需要說明的是，這些口音分類並非是最嚴謹的學術區分，而只是大致的粗分以便於學生理解。日後若錄音來源增加，或許可以進行更細而周延地分類。

5. 各口音的呈現方式

從主頁點選某個口音之後可進入該口音的頁面。每個口音類別的頁面上端顯示了華語區地圖並以不同顏色標出該口音分布的地區，並在圖側列出該口音的基本特色介紹。下面逐一說明：

(1) 地圖介面：

點入口音頁面後，首先看到的是此口音所分佈的區域以代表具有此種口音特色的國語 / 普通話的分布。此地圖為本研究團隊精心繪製，讓使用者從視覺上可以很直觀地理解該方言國語 / 普通話的體現區域，即使是看不懂中文地理名詞的外國人也很容易就理解。

(2) 口音特色說明：

於地圖旁邊，則有該方言口音國語 / 普通話的特色說明，以文字的方式讓使用者理解其發音的特點，進而提供使用者於聽力訓練時的先備知識，讓使用者能更快地抓到該語音特色的聽辨重點。

例如以下對臺灣一般口音的說明：

1. 使用人數約 2300 萬，受到臺灣方言影響，不像標準國語語音那般規範。
2. 是一種較為輕鬆的發音方式，語速較快、聲調發音較不完全。
3. 發音特色：
 - a. “zh/ch/sh” 常發音成 “z/c/s”；
 - b. n/l/r 三個音的區別不明顯；
 - c. 「eng」和「ang」開口程度不夠大；
 - d. 兒化韻和輕聲，一般不出現。

所列出的內容不必過細，是為了學生在聆聽時要分辨的所在。目前雖然特色說

明僅有中文，但未來預計加上英語的說明，以加強母語非中文者的使用方便性。

MANDARIN CHINESE LISTENING TRAINING
漢語聽力通

我要投稿 CALL FOR VOICE

世界各地華語口音比較
Accents Comparison

中國大陸標準普通話語音
Standard Mandarin of Mainland China

中國大陸一般口音（華語系）
General Mandarin of Mainland China

臺灣標準國語語音
Standard Mandarin of Taiwan

臺灣一般口音（華語系）
General Mandarin of Taiwan

西南官話[四川、重慶、雲南、貴州]
Southwestern Mandarin (Sichuan, Chongqing, Yunnan, Guizhou)

新加坡華語 Singapore accent

北方官話[河北、山東、天津]
NORTHERN MANDARIN (HEBEI/SHANDONG/TIANGJIN)

北方官話口音

1. 使用人數約1.2億人，代表城市為濟南。
2. 和普通話發音接近，只有聲調些微不同（二聲/三聲）。
3. 發音特色為：
hǎo --> hō
lái --> lé(é)
mēn --> mīn
shān --> shāe(ǎe)

自由獨白式 Free Talk 念稿式 Read an Article

01. 學生 / 自由獨白 -- 談自我介紹及一次難忘的旅遊經驗
STUDENT / FREE TALK -- SELF-INTRODUCTION AND AN UNFORGETTABLE TRAVELING EXPERIENCE

性別：女 Female 文本 Text 00:00 00:00

年齡：25

錄音年代：2013

口音：天津

02. 學生 / 自由獨白 -- 談自我介紹
STUDENT / FREE TALK -- SELF-INTRODUCTION

性別：女 Female 文本 Text 00:00 00:00

年齡：24

錄音年代：2013

圖 3 各地口音的呈現方式

6. 錄音的主題

〈漢語聽力通〉的錄音形式一共包含兩種，一是念稿式，一是自由獨白式，念稿式的文本處理，首要準備固定的文本的內容，聽者可以比較不同口音的人士唸同一篇文稿的口音差異。研究者準備了5篇念稿內容供錄音者選擇，而此五篇文稿的內容是按照生活主題來選取，即文本內容對於不同教育程度的母語者而言，也不會有理解或發音上的困難，以確保音檔內容的自然。

至於獨白式的主題是由錄音者自主決定，最好是錄音者自己的經驗及看法，研究團隊也會提供一些容易表達的主題供錄音者參考，例如：我的旅遊經驗、談我的理對象、我的居住城市等。主題頗為多元，從以下採自新加坡普通話的錄音主題可見其多樣性：

01. 談我的家庭 MY FAMILY

02. 談我去過的難忘景點 THE UNFORGETTABLE TOURIST SITE
03. 談我最喜歡的電視劇 MY FAVORITE TV SERIES
04. 過新年 CHINESE NEW YEAR
05. 談不買車的原因 THE REASON WHY I DON'T PURCHASE A CAR
06. 談我理想的男生類型 MY IDEAL TYPE OF MAN
07. 我的潛水經驗 MY DIVING EXPERIENCE
08. 我的寵物 MY PET
09. 我的第一份工作 MY FIRST JOB
10. 這輩子最想做的事 THE MOST WANTED

7. 錄音的形式與聲音資料

本網站的每一筆都列出音檔內容的主題、錄音者性別、年齡、錄音年代及錄音者的城市地點，可供使用者參考比較。

這些聲音檔為研究小組成員親自在各地錄製，或由協同機構協助錄製提供，例如新加坡及馬來西亞語音是由新加坡華文教研中心錄製的，此外亦有少部分是各地人士投稿而來。

目前所蒐集之語音材料中，音檔的聲音來源大致男女各半，其年齡分布約為十歲至八十歲，以二十歲至三十歲的青年語音為主，三十歲至五十歲之青壯年語音其次，另外也有少數的幼兒及老年人之錄音。

錄音的時間長度平均為一分多鐘，點選右側的音檔就可在線上聽到語音，而部份聲音已轉錄成逐字稿，點選「文本 TEXT」的圖示就可下載文字檔，可讓使用者邊聽邊看原文。

The screenshot displays a website interface for audio resources. On the left is a green sidebar with navigation links for different accents: Standard Mandarin of Taiwan, General Mandarin of Taiwan, Southwestern Mandarin (Sichuan, Chongqing, Yunnan, Guizhou), Singapore accent, Malaysia accent, Hong Kong accent, Dongbei Mandarin, Beijing Mandarin, Northern Mandarin (Hebei/Shandong/Tiangjin), Central Mandarin (Henan/Shanxi), Nanjing Accent, Wu Accent (Shanghai/Zhejiang), Gan Accent (Jiangxi), and Xiang. The main content area is titled '文章1 Article 1' and lists five audio entries (A1-01 to A1-05) for the text 'READ THE MANUSCRIPT -- LOVING EARTH FROM CARBON REDUCTION'. Each entry includes the speaker's gender, age, recording year, and accent. For example, A1-01 is a male speaker aged 19 from Sichuan, recorded in 2013. A1-02 is a female speaker aged 21 from Sichuan, recorded in 2013. A1-03 is a male speaker aged 21 from Sichuan, recorded in 2013. A1-04 is a female speaker aged 25 from Sichuan, recorded in 2013. A1-05 is a female speaker aged 25 from Sichuan, recorded in 2013. Each entry has a corresponding audio player with a play button, a progress bar, and a volume icon.

圖 4 錄音檔案的列表顯示

8. 開放各地人士線上投稿音檔之設計

本研究團隊期許此聽力教學資源網頁是一個提供世界華語聽力材料的平台，認為在語音材料蒐集上，也應該貼近世界地域性的特點。因此除了與世界各華語區之華語教學研究單位合作蒐集語音外，也利用網路平台的特點，開放讓各華語區的民眾自由投稿而設有「投稿頁面」。此頁面提供所有錄音所需之標準流程，從錄音前的準備，到錄音後的音檔修剪等都有清楚的說明，只要按照此流程，各華語區之居民可自行錄音並線上傳送投稿，經由研究團隊評定可用後，即會進行音檔處理並掛上網站。

9. 網站建置中遇到的困難及未來發展展望

我們在建置此口音資料庫的過程中常遇到的困難主要有以下三個方面：

1. 華語區的幅員過大，難以平衡蒐集各地的語音，需要更長期的過程。
2. 錄音者的背景是按照地方口音分類，但由於人的生活是動態的，可能有其它方言區的居住經驗，從該方言區所找之錄音者未必就帶有該方言的口音特色。
3. 帶有當地口音特色的人士多半是長期居於當地的中老年人，但不易參與錄音，而年輕人樂於參加錄音，但口音已然趨於融合，多半缺乏該區的特色。

儘管如此，未來將特別選擇具有特定口音腔調的人士錄音並做更精細的分類。另外，本網站未來將擴充海外下一代華人口音、外國人說華語的口音，以及華語地區各少數民族說華語的口音，也發揮口音保存的數位典藏作用。

最後值得強調的是，從教學的角度而言，聽力教學的語料仍應優先以標準的華語為主，特別在初級階段，但隨著學習者漢語能力的提高，到了中級之後，就應逐步加入帶有口音的聽力材料，以培養學生具有較寬廣的聆聽聽力。

註：本文感謝參與網站建置的成員，以及提供錄音資料的單位及個人。名單見於漢語聽力通網站 hanyu123.weebly.com。

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Review of *Cultura-Inspired Intercultural Exchanges: Focus on Asian and Pacific Languages*
(《Cultura-Inspired Intercultural Exchanges: Focus on Asian and Pacific Languages》书评)

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1. Introduction

Cultural knowledge and communicative skills have become increasingly important in the field of language instruction. Interacting with cultural competence figures in four of five World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages, namely Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, published by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)¹. Language instructors have felt stronger demand to integrate culture in language classes. The *Cultura* project, created in 1997 by French instructors at MIT (Furstenberg, Levet, and Waryn, 1997), revolutionized pedagogical approaches for cultivating intercultural competencies in foreign language classrooms. It has become one of the most influential telecollaboration models designed to develop intercultural learning within a language class. When it was first developed, the *Cultura* project was set up as a telecollaboration project that facilitated culture learning for MIT students learning French in the US and French university students learning English. In the classic version of the model, students at each site respond to a set of questionnaires that consist of three types of tasks: word association, sentence completion, and reactions to hypothetical scenarios in their own language. Then, students perform comparative analysis of their own entries and those from the other site, hypothesizing the reasons behind any differences, and testing their hypothesis through interacting with peers and course materials. Students expand their understanding of the hidden

¹ c.f. <http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/World-ReadinessStandardsforLearningLanguages.pdf>

characteristics of their own and the target culture, develop curiosity and openness in the process of the discovery, and themselves become cultural anthropologists.

The *Cultura* pedagogical model of language and culture teaching has inspired many similar projects, reported mostly through edited chapters and journal articles (e.g., Chun and Wade, 2004; O'Dowd, 2003) and in the context of European language classrooms. This edited volume expands the reach of the model with a *focus on Asian and Pacific Languages*, providing a welcome contribution to the literature of the *Cultura* model and enriching the literature on teaching and research in intercultural competencies. The greatest strength of this volume is its documentation of *Cultura* implementation and research on learning gains in three Asian and Pacific Languages, namely Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino. Not only does this volume provide theoretical guidance on designing and researching the effect of *Cultura* implementation on language and intercultural competencies; it is also very beneficial to language instructors who desire to initiate or are in the process of implementing *Cultura*-inspired projects. The task descriptions, the explanations of the motivations behind task selection, the task guidelines and instructions to students, assessment options, reflections on challenges, and speculations on possible solutions provide a menu of options which practitioners can directly adopt or adapt. More importantly, the message throughout the volume is that perfect success is not required, or even to be expected, on one's first attempt at implementing the *Cultura* model. The struggles and challenges shared in the volume's chapters are not likely to deter any educator who is truly interested in enhancing cultural education for their students. Quite on the contrary, this volume is likely to encourage the educators who are undecided about experimenting with intercultural telecollaboration to get their feet wet with the support of the powerful *Cultura* model, especially educators teaching Asian and Pacific languages.

In this review, I first synthesize elements of the volume chapters that may benefit language instructors and action-researchers in their own implementation and research of *Cultura*-based models. Following that, I provide summaries and critiques for each chapter. Last, I reflect on what I see missing in this volume and share some recommendations on future practice. I conclude with an overall evaluation of the volume.

2. Volume synthesis

One big takeaway from reading this volume is: **There is no one way to teach culture and there is no one way to implement *Cultura*.** For foreign language instructors, this section of the review lists the collaboration partners and sites, language used in the exchange, exchange and reflection tasks, and challenges reported in different

projects. For language action-researchers, I summarize theoretical frameworks, constructs and effects investigated, and analysis methods across empirical studies reported in the volume.

First of all, in terms of collaboration partners and sites, the volume provides examples of telecollaboration between two programs in one university (Chinese students in the MBA program and students in the Chinese program at a US university in Chapter 5), two sites in one country (Filipino programs at two US universities in Chapter 6), between the US and a European country (e.g., France in Chapter 1 and Germany in Chapter 4), between the US and sites in Asia (e.g., Taiwan in Chapter 4, China in Chapter 5, and Japan in Chapter 7).

Not all projects use learners' input from one site as authentic language material for the other site, as is the practice in "classic" *Cultura*. For example, Chapter 4 reports an exchange between Taiwanese students and French students in which learners at both sites used English, their target language, as their medium of communication -- with the result that the entire exchange was conducted in "learner language." Chapter 5 describes how learners of Filipino language from two US universities across the Pacific used their target language, which was also their heritage language, in an exploration of Filipino-American identity.

Different projects used different arrays of exchange and reflection tasks. The most prevalent of these are input tasks (word association and sentence completion tasks), the analysis of similarities and differences, and hypothesis stipulation. Other exchange tasks reported include self-introduction (e.g., the "About-Me Bag" in Chapter 3); scenario interpretation; cultural artifact comparison; and reflection on news or press articles, pictures, videos, and films. The original questionnaire items used in MIT's *Cultura* were adapted to fit differing instructional foci (e.g., business context in Chapter 5) and existing curriculum thematic topics (e.g., family, school in Chapter 7). The descriptions of the tasks are detailed enough for language instructors to replicate. Chapters 5 to 7 on Chinese, Filipino, and Japanese language projects also provide screen shots of online forums including instructions. Chapter 7 has extensive appendices detailing goals and instructions for each task in both English and Japanese. These are valuable resources.

Another very useful component in all the projects reported is the authors' reflections on challenges in implementation, which include difficulty in cross-site communication due to learners' lower level language proficiency, decreased student motivation over time, cross-site school scheduling issues, technology issues, large class sizes, unmanageable numbers of postings, and course content issues. These challenges on the one hand remind the reader of the complexity of *Cultura*-type telecollaborative

exchanges, and on the other hand provide comforting reassurance that it is okay to experience challenges and make continuous improvements to one's project.

Researchers in second language studies and action-researchers may note with interest that the predominant theoretical framework reported in the volume is Byram's (1997) intercultural communicative competence (ICC) framework (Chapters 1, 3, 4 and 7), followed by Byram and Fleming's (1998) and Kramsch's (1998) concept of "intercultural speakers" (Chapters 3, 4, and 7). Chapter 5 borrowed Kramsch's (1993) idea of the language classroom as cultural laboratory and culture as an integral part of communicative competence – linguaculture (Krasner, 1999). Chapter 3 used constructs from the field of psychology (i.e., extimacy and exotopia) to explore learning gains in cultural understanding and discovery.

The commonly investigated constructs that manifest the effectiveness of *Cultura* include: students' ability to understand their own culture and the other culture, exploration of cultural identity, ability to interact with cross-cultural counterparts, linguistic competency, and metalinguistic reflective ability. Cultural knowledge and skills under investigation include cognitive and affective skills. Cognitive skills investigated include: ability to describe, explain, interpret, relate, compare and contrast, form hypotheses, and discover hidden characteristics of one's own culture through the eyes of others. Affective skills include: willingness and ability to adjust one's assumptions and interpretations, curiosity and openness to alternative perspectives, willingness to suspend belief or disbelief, and valuing and respecting others' perspectives. The most frequently investigated learning gain in the volume is cognitive cultural knowledge and skills, namely, the ability to describe, interpret, compare and contrast, form hypotheses, and discover. Chapters 4 and 6 also investigate the effect of media.

When examining the process and effect of *Cultura* projects, the main analytical methods reported are: word frequency tallies, online forum posting tallies, discourse analysis in general, and speech act analysis in particular. The data collected include students' postings, teacher observations, and student reflections and evaluations of their experience. All projects collected multiple sources of evidence and provided examples of learning gains. Unfortunately, none of the projects reported systematic evaluation of each student's learning gain, so it is unclear whether all students in the projects achieved the learning targets or outcomes.

3. Chapter summary and critiques

The volume starts with an *Editor's Introduction*, which provides a bird's-eye view of the volume, following which the volume is organized in three major parts that

comprises seven chapters: Part I: Introduction to the *Cultura* Model; Part II: Research on Acquisition of Intercultural Communicative Competence in *Cultura*-Based Models; and Part III: Best Practices in Implementing the *Cultura* Model for Asian and Pacific Languages.

The *Editor's Introduction* gives the context of how this volume was motivated, specifies its contribution and the gaps that it aims to fill in the literature, situates the *Cultura* model in the larger context of telecollaboration, summarizes the strengths and limitations of *Cultura*-based exchanges, provides a summary for each chapter, synthesizes commonalities among the projects, and highlights the specific findings for Asian and Pacific languages reported in the volume. The summaries of strengths, limitations, commonalities, and Asian and Pacific languages findings are particularly insightful.

The two chapters of Part I introduce the *Cultura* model through very different approaches. The first chapter, written by two of the original founders of the model, Giberte Furstenberg and Sabine Levet, features a biographic description of the initiation and evolution of the *Cultura* model and provides reflections and recommendations for its implementation. The lengthy name of the chapter gives a good idea of the content: "*Cultura: From Then to Now. Its Origins, Key Features, Methodology, and How It Has Evolved. Reflections on the Past and Musings on the Future.*" This chapter is a must-read for anyone who is interested in the research or implementation of the *Cultura* model. Not only did the authors document the key features of the model but also the motivations for each feature, including lessons learned from the past and how the features of *Cultura* have been modified and added to over time.

The chapter's abundant insights will inspire great respect among readers for the authors' design choices and their recommendations on how *Cultura* can be successfully implemented. The recommendation that struck me was the paramount importance of scaffolding (e.g., providing very specific instructions and guidelines). Another important recommendation (clearly based on the authors' past experience) is that teachers prepare students for interaction styles in the target culture that they may not be comfortable with. For example, the authors would sometimes give examples of "French students being 'overly' critical of each other, to show that this is not directed at them personally, but that 'being critical' could be viewed as a cultural trait" (p.15.)

The authors provide valuable assessment strategies for *Cultura*-based exchanges as well, including using portfolios to assess attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Such portfolios can include students' reflection logs, essays to reflect upon and synthesize what they have learned, and end-of-semester presentations. The authors' suggestions for

utilizing peer assessment and feedback represent best practices in the world of learning assessment.

In addition to the above, Chapter 1 provides an abundance of useful insights related to the integration of online exchange (forum and/or chat) material into classroom instruction, managing student roles, and sustaining interest and goodwill between exchange partners.

Chapter 2: A Meta-Synthesis of Cultura-Based Projects is the second chapter of Part I. Though it purports to be a meta-synthesis of *Cultura*-based projects, it is more of a technical report of survey results collected from instructors who have previously conducted *Cultura*-inspired projects. Results from 18 survey respondents, including recommendations for methodological flexibility in adapting *Cultura* to different educational contexts, challenges encountered in various projects, and strategies for implementation, are echoed in the following chapters. The results provide a big picture of the array of *Cultura* implementation options. The quantitative and qualitative responses were meticulously analyzed but the presentation of data is distracting. The many charts and tables in this chapter seem disproportionate given the small number of responses.

Part II of the volume consists of two chapters (Chapter 3 and 4) that represent the kind of research on acquisition of intercultural communicative competence in *Cultura*-inspired models. These two chapters provide example research frameworks, research methods, data collection and analysis means that can be used for documenting and researching the impact of the *Cultura* model on language competencies and intercultural competency development.

Chapter 3: A Tale of Two Cultures investigates how a *Cultura*-inspired exchange between English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Taiwan and France fostered the development of intercultural competency, measured by psychological constructs of *exitimacy* (Lacan, 1986) and *exotopia* (Bakhtain, 1984), as well as Byram and Fleming's (1998) definition of "intercultural speakers." Learners at two sites completed tasks including self-introduction, word association, art selection and explanation, and news article reading and reflection. The project report concludes with an account of a visit by two Taiwanese students to France during which they demonstrated their competence as "intercultural speakers."

The authors used two main research methods in their investigation: word frequency counts of social process words (e.g., family, friends) and personal pronouns, as well as deductive content analysis. The analysis showed that, through the exchange, students were able to discover the aspects of culture that were valuable to them and the

hidden aspect of culture made transparent to them through their cross-cultural partners' observations. In other words, they were able to discover the parameters and the contour of their own culture through the comparative observation made by themselves and their cross-cultural partners, a demonstration of exotopia. The two Taiwanese students visiting France demonstrated their competency as "inter-cultural speakers" through discovering and explaining the differences between the foreign culture and their native culture, though no examples were given showing students being able to "accept that difference and see the common humanity beneath it" (Byram and Fleming, 1998, p. 8), another key aspect of the construct of the "intercultural speaker."

The authors' effort in bringing the theoretical framework from another discipline (psychology) and the use of social process word frequency analysis is refreshing and truly commendable. As a reader, I feel the author can further enhance the study in the following ways: First, fully unpack the psychology construct of interest. The meaning of extimacy and its relationship with exotopia remain elusive throughout the chapter. This is probably because of the abstractness of the construct and its multifaceted nature. Does it mean identification or discovery of things or values important to oneself? Does it mean valuing "otherness" and accept others' perspectives? Does it mean any internalization process, using one's own experience and background to interpret what they see in other cultures? Or does it mean all of the above? If so, what are the examples for each of these facets? Second, social process word frequency counts may provide some sense of the "unsaid" cultural behavior or value. Providing example sentences in which the words occur may make the arguments more convincing.

The volume's fourth chapter, *Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence Through Online Exchanges* by Dorothy Chun, reports on a project that explored the manifestation of ICC as defined by Byram (1997) in a telecollaborative exchange. The exchange was between 23 university students in the US studying German sociolinguistics and 23 university students in Germany studying English. In the chapter, the author first reviews the literature concerning the construct of ICC, examples of how ICC has been examined in studies of telecollaboration, and assessment of ICC. The author addresses two research questions: (1) how does the language style produced in the asynchronous forum differ from that produced in synchronous chats, and (2) how do learners demonstrate ICC through using speech acts? Learners in this study engaged in three main exchange activities: (1) word association; (2) an asynchronous forum that compared word-association responses from the students at the two sites; (3) synchronous chats.

The author analyzed data using four methods: (1) word frequency counts of the forum entries and mean length per sentence statistics; (2) sentence type (statement versus

question) analysis; (3) discourse analysis in general and speech act analysis in particular; (4) comparing learners' reaction to the chat experience with the discourse analysis.

The results show that, relatively speaking, learners produced more questions in the chat than in their forum postings, indicating a more dynamic interaction and exchange in the synchronous chat than in the forum. The speech acts that emerged in the exchange exemplified ICC in the following aspects: showing curiosity and interest in the other culture, reflecting on one's own culture, and maintaining conversation involvement. The author gives concrete language samples purporting to exemplify each of these speech acts; however, it is not clear whether and how the usage of these speech acts demonstrates ICC. There is no evaluative analysis showing when the usage of the speech acts demonstrates desired language output. There are also no examples showing students' gain and growth in ICC through the process of the telecollaborative exchange. The only example that shows that students are reflecting on their own culture and have changed their attitudes is in this truncated quote in the conclusion section: "*I [used to think] that Americans...but maybe we are more similar to the Germans [after all].*"

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 constitute Part III of the volume: *Best Practices in Implementing the Cultura Model for Asian and Pacific Languages*. Chapter 5: *Intercultural Learning on the Web: Reflections on Practice* details the exchanges in the "China-USA Business Café" between Chinese and American business students through two cohorts in 2008 and 2009. The 2008 exchange took place between seven Chinese business majors visiting the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa (UHM) and 10 business majors at UHM. The 2009 exchange involved 18 UHM students taking Business Chinese and 15 students in a Chinese vocational college. Both cohorts completed a series of tasks: word association, sentence completion, situation response, comparison of authentic language materials and reflection. Throughout the activities that promoted cultural discovery, students could also participate in a "Working with language" forum and further explore their interests in language and culture and build social networks through an open discussion forum.

The projects and the pedagogies reported in this chapter have several distinct features:

1. Linguistic knowledge was explicitly addressed through in-time teaching and learning. When the students questioned the grammatical correctness of the authentic input, in a job ad for example, instructors quickly acknowledged students' observations of language usage and addressed their confusion about the difference between the "canonical" language they had learned in school and the "real-life" language seen in the authentic artifacts.

2. Differentiated instruction, i.e., setting different goals for learners with different language proficiencies. For example, learners at the ACTFL Intermediate Low level of Chinese were asked to learn 10 new words and use them in complete sentences to describe cultural discoveries, while Advanced level learners were asked to write a series of linked paragraphs to describe cultural similarities and differences, to hypothesize the underlying cultural perspectives, and to reflect on how their participation in the exchange affected their cultural knowledge and their behavior in the target cultural context.

In this project, student learning gains can be categorized in terms of both linguistic gains and ICC gains. In terms of language, there are examples of metalinguistic awareness taken from postings related to word association (e.g., recognizing the phenomenon of polysemy in English words) and discovery of the differences between grammatical structures in the authentic context versus textbook examples. In terms of ICC, there are examples showing students' ability to describe similarities and differences of cultural artifacts in the target and native cultures, and to hypothesize and explore the possible sociocultural bases for the observed similarities and differences. Students' reflection and questioning of their own understanding of cultural values served to expand that understanding, thus achieving *Cultura's* identified goal of "seeing oneself through the eyes of others." One example reflection is: "*It seems that meaning of a 'free country' is more complex than I once thought. However, in business, sometimes what appears to be 'free[dom]' is really just a lack of oversight in the regulatory policies of the country.*"

The authors acknowledge the challenges posed by learners' low level of reading proficiency, which prevented learners of Chinese from reaping full benefit from the exchange. Organizational challenges are also acknowledged.

Chapter 6: UH-UCLA Filipino Heritage Café and the Fil-Ams' Quest for Identity, is another interesting adaptation of the *Cultura* model representing a collaborative project between two university sites (University of Hawai'i at Mānoa and University of California, Los Angeles) that involve learners of one language – Filipino. The project intends to help students explore their cultural identity. Students at both sites completed a series of tasks: self-introduction, word association, sentence completion, and reflection on materials in three topic areas: Filipino family material, images of Filipinos in the media, and celebrations and traditions. Students summarized and analyzed similarities and differences in perspectives posted online and discussed some of the topics in the classroom. A frequency count of the postings showed that the forums functioned as a place for reflection and analysis, but not so much as a venue of interactive communication. The author also noted differences in the quality and quantity of postings based on student characteristics such as gender and status in the university

(undergraduate versus graduate students). Students' evaluation and comments showed evidence of learning gains in understanding the multiplicity of voices regarding identity, culture, and beliefs, as well as in cognitive and writing skills to perform comparisons, form hypotheses, and explore questions of culture.

Chapter 8: A High School Japanese and English Intercultural Exchange Project: Design, Implementation, and Evaluation, described a telecollaboration and intercultural exchange project between high school students at two sites, one in the US, learning Japanese, and one in Japan, learning English. There were over 60 students at each site in this project. The projects clearly specified learning outcomes and the appendices provide the actual task instructions in both English and Japanese, which are a great resource for language educators. In the project, students first gave a self-introduction in the "Online Café" forum. Then they were asked to complete a questionnaire of word association and sentence completion, an analysis of similarities and differences, and a self-reflection in each of the thematic units (e.g., family, school). Due to technological issues and school calendar schedule differences, only two out of five thematic units were carried out. The end-of-course evaluation showed the benefit of the exchange in increasing students' interest and motivation in language learning for the US students and awareness of cultural diversity for the Japanese students. The challenges that the project experienced are illuminating: students' involvement and forum postings dwindled as the course progressed and the reflective postings did not show high-level analytic skills. The authors attributed this to the following factors: forum participation had a minimal impact on students' grades; group sizes were unmanageable, and the large number of postings hindered interactions (and thus student motivation); students often targeted instructors rather than their cross-cultural counterparts as the audience for their postings; students lacked adequate critical lenses through which they might conduct textual analysis; and students' low level of language proficiency demotivated them in comprehending authentic writings from their peers. The importance of instructors' scaffolding to help develop students' intellectual maturity and language proficiency is emphasized in the chapter. Another insightful observation is that students are much better able to perform comparison and reflection tasks when instructors use video prompts.

4. Summary of limitations and recommendations

After reading the volume, I felt that there remained several topics that I wished the authors had addressed: (1) how did the author-instructors themselves navigate cross-regional and cross-cultural communication and collaboration? (2) One of *Cultura's* strengths is to encourage students to explore, reflect, and discover cultural nuances on their own. However, it is possible for cultural stereotypes to form in such exchanges if

students take a one-sided view of cultural practices and phenomena. There is only a brief mention of this topic in Chapter 1 and the discussion of this topic is missing from the rest of the chapters. (3) *Cultura* represents a great advance in terms of presenting students the opportunity to interact authentically in the target language. I would love to see further expansion of the model by engaging students in real-world projects that have authentic audiences and meaningful impact in the world.

Last, I would hope to see stronger assessment. Assessment remains a weak link in the research of telecollaboration projects and this is true with the projects described in the volume as well. First of all, the learning outcomes can be made clearer. When complex psychological constructs are used (e.g., ICC), the constructs should be unpacked into operational outcomes in terms of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that language educators expect their students to gain by the end of the exchange. Byram's (2000) categories of intercultural competence cited in Chapter 1 provide some guidance (p. 17). As discussed earlier, I observe five domains of learning gains: knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to one's own culture; knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to the other culture (or target culture); cross-cultural interaction skills; language use skills; and metalinguistic reflection skills. Within each domain, we can specify the abilities that we want students to demonstrate at different levels. In the culture related domain, at a lower level, students should be able to describe, list, and explain; and at a higher level, students should be able to demonstrate curiosity, suspend one's beliefs, and remain open to alternative world views. An example high level interaction skill can be stated as: Students are able to acknowledge where the interlocutor comes from, synthesize and focus the discussion, and provide opportunity and encouragement for the interlocutor's further input. The corresponding language skills can be paraphrasing and summarizing. Students can demonstrate metalinguistic skills by explaining the language use patterns they observed in the interaction.

The second assessment related issue that deserves attention is the alignment between the outcomes and the learning activities. For example if the outcome is for students to be able to generate hypothesis for the observed cultural differences, the activities can be asking students to speculate social, historical, cultural reasons for the cultural differences between the target and native cultures on the forum. To further enhance the achievement of this outcome, the instructors can provide very specific instructions (e.g., "Give two examples," "elaborate with personal experience or historical events"). The instructors may also provide an example and sample languages that can be used in forming hypothesis (e.g., hypothesis, speculation, wonder, could it be, one possible reason can be). Misalignment between the activities and the intended outcome is often the reason for lack of evidence of achievement. If the outcome is for students to be able to *accept* cultural difference and *see the common humanity* beneath it, and the

activity is about *describing* the differences, it is unlikely that students will produce the desired responses. Adopting and adapting *Cultura* learning activities need to be intentional and scaffolded to provide a clear learning path toward outcome achievement.

The third assessment related issue is grading. In most projects reported in the volume, students were graded based on their posting completion, rather than the quality of their postings. This may contribute to the diminishing student motivation reported in several projects (e.g., Chapter 6 and 7). To deal with large number of student postings, instructors can use student reflective learning logs, essays, and presentations that summarize learning achievement as recommended in Chapter 1. Asking students to do self-assessment and peer assessment as suggested in Chapter 1 is a great strategy too. The key is to have students reflect on their learning gain of the target outcomes. Providing evaluation criteria and samples of student work at different quality levels will enhance the consistency of grading. Systematic evaluation of each student against each learning outcome will allow us to conclude how many students have achieved each of the target outcomes and whether it is good enough.

Despite the limitations discussed above, overall, this volume presents a significant contribution to the research and practice in teaching intercultural competence in language classrooms, especially for Asian and Pacific Languages. The insights and reflections from *Cultura*'s originators and practitioners are especially invaluable to fellow language educators interested in teaching culture.

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