Pragmatic Information for CFL Beginners in an Experimental E-C Learners' Dictionary

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Declaration

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirement for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it has been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have received in my research and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged. All information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

The research presented in this thesis was approved by Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee, reference number: 5201400887.

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Abstract

Against the surging global interest in learning Chinese as a foreign language, L2 learners' need to acquire its pragmatics has not been systematically addressed in terms of either pedagogy or research. This project takes up two complementary aspects of this challenge: to develop a pathway for CFL beginners to acquire pragmatic knowledge and awareness, and to investigate their acquisition of specific pragmatic topics over two semesters through it.

The possibility of developing beginners' pragmatic knowledge in association with learning core Chinese vocabulary has not hitherto been explored. Analysis of the basic vocabularies of the *Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (HSK) showed that the 300 Chinese words and constructions required for Levels 1 and 2 touched on 120 points of Chinese pragmatics, including a variety of speech acts and functions, attitudes and discourse orientations. These lexicopragmatic items and their functions were then used to review the pragmatic content of a representative set of current CFL textbooks and English-Chinese learners dictionaries. Neither type of learning materials contained more than a fraction of the 120 pragmatic points that can be associated with the core HSK vocabulary, showing that a purpose-built pragmatic lexicopragmatic resource needed to be created, to investigate the students' capacity to understand and acquire a range of Chinese pragmatics.

An experimental English-Chinese (E-C) dictionary was composed, focusing on the 120 points of Chinese pragmatics identified in the core HSK vocabulary, designed for use in two stages: the shorter version was used and tested in the participants' first semester; and the longer version during second semester. Testing was conducted with a class of 38 university students beginning Chinese in first semester, and with the 13 who continued in second semester. In supplementary research questions, half the students (19/38) who began the year indicated that their reason for learning Chinese was essentially a mix of integrative and instrumental motivations, with an almost equal number 16/38) pointing to purely instrumental reasons – thus very few (3/38) with purely integrative motivation. The pervasiveness of instrumental motivation within the class would explain the sharp reduction in class size from first to second semester, in line with research findings on the importance of integrative motivation for early proficiency and longer term learning of Chinese.

The results of the first semester test were very variable, with a handful of high-performing students, and the rest presenting medium and low performances. By contrast the second

semester results for the continuing students were much more positive, with the majority performing well on a combination of new test questions based on the second-stage dictionary, and ones repeated from the first semester test. The cumulative gains were evident for most of those who continued their studies over the whole year and had access to the experimental dictionary with its pragmatically enriched content. In supplementary research questions, most students (10/13) said that they consulted the experimental dictionary either several times a week or occasionally, i.e. at point of need, this being a common feature of their learning profiles.

In other findings relative to the acquisition of Chinese pragmatics, the students generally performed best on questions testing their understanding of pragmatic formulae, showing the importance of constructions in second-language learning. They were more challenged on items involving complex expression of pragmatics, such the use of Chinese discourse particles in longer utterances; or the subtleties of Chinese politeness and attitudes where Chinese and English pragmatics differ substantially in their lexical realization. The test results also showed that the specific lexicographical means used to present pragmatics in the experimental dictionary (at micro-/macro-/medio-/megastructural levels) did not align with the participants' differential acquisition of pragmatics. Difficulties in accessing pragmatic information did align with lower performance on the first test, but seemed to be largely overcome in the second test. This accords with other research showing the importance of learning how to use a dictionary, and providing dictionary training early in foreign language learning.

Overall, the research demonstrates the value of providing pragmatic information in an E-C learner's dictionary, and of engaging CFL beginners with sociocultural aspects of Chinese culture as they learn the core vocabulary of the language.

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Table of Contents

Declaration i
Abstract ii
Acknowledgments iv
Table of Contents v
List of tables xi
List of figures xiii
List of appendixes xiv
Chapter 1: Introduction: Approaches to Pragmatics 1
1.0 Introduction 1
1.1 Mapping the Field of Pragmatics 2
1.1.1 Problem Solvers 2
1.1.1.1 Deixis 3
1.1.1.2 Presupposition 3
1.1.1.3 Conversational implicature 4
1.1.1.4 Speech acts 4
1.1.2 Border Seekers 5
1.1.3 Verschueren's Theory 6
1.1.4 Pragmatic Functions and Communicative Context 7
1.2 Is Pragmatics Universal? 8
1.2.1 Sociocultural differences between English and Chinese politeness 9
1.2.2 Linguistic differences between English and Chinese politeness 10
1.3 Pragmatics and Second Language Learning 11
1.4 Approaches to Pragmatics in Dictionaries 12
1.4.1 Aspects of pragmatics 13
1.4.2 The placement of pragmatic information in a dictionary 14
1.4. 3 The lexicographical means for presenting pragmatic information 14
1.5 Outline of the Thesis 15
Chapter 2: Research on Aspects of Teaching and Learning Chinese Words and Chinese Pragmatics 19
2.0 Introduction 19
2.1 Difficulties in Acquiring Chinese Words as the Building Blocks of Pragmatics 20
2.1.1 Difficulties in learning Chinese words in CSL contexts 20
2.1.2 Difficulties in learning Chinese words in CFL contexts 22
2.1.3 Summary on difficulties in learning Chinese words 24
2.2 Research on Teaching and Learning Chinese Pragmatics 24
2.2.1 Research on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CSL contexts 25
2.2.2 Research on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CFL contexts 26

2.2.3 Summary on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics.....27
2.3 Research on Motivation for Learning Chinese.....28
2.3.1 Research on CSL learners' motivation.....29
2.3.2 Research on CFL learners' motivation.....31
2.3.3 Summary on motivation for learning Chinese.....33
2.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....33
Chapter 3: Pragmatic Meaning Relating to the Core Vocabulary for Chinese Learners..... 35
3.0 Introduction.....35
3.1 Chinese Words and Language Functions Required of HSK Test-takers.....36
3.1.1 The original HSK vocabularies and the new one..... 36
3.1.2 Vocabulary and language functions required by the level 1 and level 2 new HSKs.....37
3.2 Frameworks for Analysing Pragmatic Meanings in the Core Chinese Vocabulary.....39
3.2.1 Functional categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings.....40
3.2.2 Structural categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings.....41
3.2.3 Classification of pragmatic meanings in Chinese core vocabulary.....42
3.3 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Speech Acts..... 42
3.3.1 Greetings.....43
3.3.2 Saying goodbye.....45
3.3.3 Expressing gratitude and replying to thanks given.....46
3.3.4 Apologising and replying to others' apology..... 46
3.3.5 Making suggestions..... 47
3.3.6 Making and replying to requests.....47
3.3.7 Pragmatic meaning associated with the terms for addressing others.....49
3.3.7.1 Terms for addressing one's family members.....49
3.3.7.2 Terms for addressing both family members and non-family members.....50
3.3.7.3 Terms used as general address forms..... 51
3.3.7.4 Names..... 52
3.3.8 Other specialised speech acts.....53
3.4 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Expressing Emphasis, Vagueness, Attitude, and Feeling..54
3.4.1 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing emphasis.....54
3.4.2 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing vagueness..... 55
3.4.3 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing personal and interpersonal attitude.....55
3.4.4 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing feeling.....57
3.5 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Chinese Politeness..... 58
3.6 Pragmatic Meaning of Five Chinese Particles.....61
3.7 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Interactive Discourse Marker—Pragmatic Markers.....63
3.8 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....65

Chapter 4: Pragmatic Information in Four Chinese Textbooks for Beginners.....67
4.0 Introduction.....67
4.1 Selection Criteria for the Four Textbooks for Chinese Beginners.....68
4.2 A Brief Introduction to the Four Textbooks.....71
4.3 Four Ways of Presenting Chinese Pragmatics in the Textbooks.....72
4.3.1 Translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations).....72
4.3.2 Language notes.....74
4.3.3 Cultural notes.....76
4.3.4 Grammatical explanations.....78
4.3.5 Summary.....78
4.4 Chinese Pragmatics in Four Textbooks.....79
4.4.1 The presentation of pragmatic points.....79
4.4.2 Pragmatic information on particles.....85
4.4.3 Pragmatic meaning associated with conversational topics.....87
4.5 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....89
Chapter 5: Pragmatic Information in Six Bilingual Learners' Dictionaries Targeting Chinese Beginners.....91
5.0 Introduction.....91
5.1 Criteria for Selecting the Six Reference Dictionaries.....91
5.2 An Overview of the Six Dictionaries.....93
5.3 Pragmatic Information in Six dictionaries.....95
5.3.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure.....95
5.3.1.1 Pragmatic information in front matter.....96
5.3.1.2 Pragmatic information in middle matter.....97
5.3.1.3 Pragmatic information in back matter.....98
5.3.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure.....99
5.3.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure of E-C dictionaries.....100
5.3.3.1 Translation equivalents and the translation of examples.....102
5.3.3.2 Translation equivalents combined with supplementary bracketed explanations.....103
5.3.3.3 Pragmatic notes.....103
5.3.3.4 Summary.....104
5.3.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure.....104
5.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....106
Chapter 6: Principles for Presenting Pragmatic Information in an Expandable Experimental E-C Learners' Dictionary.....109
6.0 Introduction.....109
6.1 The First-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary.....111
6.1.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure: front and back matter.....114
6.1.1.1 Pragmatic information in front matter.....114

6.1.1.2 Pragmatic information in the back matter....115
6.1.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure....116
6.1.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure....117
6.1.3.1 Pragmatic labels....119
6.1.3.2 Translation of a headword or a linguistic structure comprising it....122
6.1.3.3 The illustrative example and its translation....123
6.1.3.4 Bracketed explanation....125
6.1.3.5 Pragmatic notes attached to microstructure....126
6.1.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure....126
6.1.4.1 Megastructure to microstructure links....127
6.1.4.2 Macrostructure to microstructure links....127
6.1.4.3 Microstructure to microstructure links....128
6.2 The Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary....128
6.2.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure: front and back matter....130
6.2.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure....132
6.2.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure....132
6.2.3.1 Pragmatic labels....132
6.2.3.2 Translation of a headword or a linguistic structure including it....134
6.2.3.3 Illustrative example and its translation....134
6.2.3.4 Bracketed explanation....135
6.2.3.5 Pragmatic notes attached to microstructure....135
6.2.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure....135
6.3 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter....136
Chapter 7: Methodology....137
7.0 Introduction....137
7.1 Methods for L2 Pragmatics Testing....137
7.2 Method for Conducting the Present Study....138
7.2.1 Aims....140
7.2.2 Participants....140
7.2.3 Input materials for the two tests....141
7.2.3.1 Material for the first pragmatics test....142
7.2.3.2 Material for the second pragmatics test....142
7.2.4 Procedures....143
7.2.5 Contents and scoring of the tests....144
7.2.5.1 A pilot test on Chinese pragmatics....144
7.2.5.2 The two tests on Chinese pragmatics conducted at university....145
7.2.5.3 Scoring....147
7.2.6 Data Analysis....148

Chapter 8: Results and Discussions of the First Pragmatics Test.....151
8.0 Introduction.....151
8.1 Participants' Overall Performance on the First Pragmatics Test.....152
8.2 Participants' Motivation for Learning Chinese..... 153
8.2.1 The analysis and grouping of 38 participants' motivations.....153
8.2.2 The correlation between participants' motivation and their average performance on the test156
8.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Test Question on the First Pragmatics Test.....157
8.3.1 High-scoring questions: nos 3, 5 and 8.....159
8.3.2 Medium-scoring questions: nos 1, 4 and 6..... 161
8.3.3 Low-scoring questions: nos 2, 7, 9, 10..... 164
8.3.4 Summary.....167
8.4 Lexicographical Vehicles for Presenting Pragmatic Information and Participants' Performance168
8.4.1 The number of lexicographical means.....170
8.4.2 The particular lexicographical means used.....170
8.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information..... 171
8.5.1 Macro-accessibility.....172
8.5.2 Micro-accessibility.....174
8.5.3 Alignment of accessibility with participants' performance in the first pragmatics test..... 176
8.6 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....178
Chapter 9: Results and Discussions of the Second Pragmatics Test.....181
9.0 Introduction.....181
9.1 Structure of the Second Pragmatics Test: Repeated Questions and the New Set.....182
9.2 Participants' Performance on Five Repeated Questions and their Overall Performance on the Second Pragmatics Test..... 184
9.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Question on the Second Pragmatics Test..... 186
9.3.1 High-scoring questions: nos 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10.....188
9.3.2 Medium-scoring question: no 9..... 192
9.3.3 Low-scoring questions: nos 1, 4, 7..... 193
9.3.4 Summary.....195
9.4 Lexicographical Vehicles for Presenting Pragmatic Information and Participants' Performance196
9.4.1 The number of lexicographical means.....198
9.4.2 The particular lexicographical means used.....198
9.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information..... 199
9.5.1 Macro-accessibility.....199
9.5.2 Micro-accessibility.....201
9.5.3 Alignment of accessibility with participants' performance in the first pragmatics test..... 203
9.6 Participants' Frequency of Use of the Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary..... 204
9.7 Participants' Feedback on the Presentation of Pragmatic Information in the E-C dictionary...206
9.7.1 Participants' suggestions for improving dictionary structure.....206

9.7.2 Participants' suggestions for improving dictionary contents.....208
9.8 The Learning Profile of 13 Participants as Reflected in the Two Pragmatics Tests..... 209
9.9 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter.....212
Chapter 10: Conclusion.....215
10.1 Overview of the Study.....215
10.2 Major Findings of the Two Pragmatics Tests.....216
10.2.1 Findings from the first pragmatics test.....216
10.2.2 Findings from the second pragmatics test.....217
10.2.3 Summary.....218
10.3 Limitations of This Enquiry and Directions for Future Research..... 220
10.3.1 The amount of pragmatic information presented and the means of presenting it.....220
10.3.2 Dictionary medium.....220
10.3.3 Limitations of the two pragmatics tests.....221
10.3.4 Instruction in dictionary use.....223
10.3.5 The possibility of interactive testing of the pragmatic material in a dictionary..... 224
10.4 Concluding Remarks.....224
References：.....226

List of tables

Table 1.1: The scope of pragmatic information in dictionaries....13
Table 2.1: The motivational factors of CSL learners in China 30
Table 2.2: Zheng's (1997) classification of motivational factors reinterpreted in terms of integrative and instrumental motivation.... 32
Table 3.1: Vocabulary required by different proficiency levels of new HSK (2009) and Chinese language proficiency scales, with the *Common European Framework* for reference....37
Table 3.2: A comparison of language functions required by level 1and 2 2009 HSK syllabus 38
Table 3.3: Chinese words and constructions for greetings....43
Table 3.4: Chinese words and constructions for saying goodbye....45
Table 3.5: Chinese words and constructions for expressing gratitude or replying to thanks given.... 46
Table 3.6: Chinese words and constructions for apologising or replying to an apology....47
Table 3.7: Chinese words and constructions for making suggestions....47
Table 3.8: Chinese words and constructions for making and replying to requests.... 48
Table 3.9: Terms for addressing one's family members.... 50
Table 3.10: Terms used as general address forms.... 51
Table 3.11: Positional or professional titles....52
Table 3.12: Chinese words or linguistic structures for performing other speech acts....53
Table 3.13: Chinese words or linguistic structures expressing an attitude....56
Table 3.14: Chinese words and constructions expressing feeling.... 57
Table 3.15: Chinese words and constructions conveying politeness....59
Table 3.16: Pragmatic meaning of five Chinese particles.... 61
Table 3.17: Chinese words or linguistic structures used as pragmatic markers.... 63
Table 4.1: The publication details of the four textbooks.... 68
Table 4.2: The number of pages and units/lessons in each textbook....71
Table 4.3 Total vocabulary in each textbook....79
Table 4.4: Pragmatically loaded Chinese words not included in one or more textbooks....80
Table 4.5: The 13 pragmatic points excluded from comparison.... 80
Table 4.6: The number of pragmatic points presented in each textbook....81
Table 4.7: Comparison of the 107 pragmatic points in 4 textbooks....81
Table 5.1: Four criteria for selecting six E-C or bidirectional Chinese learners' dictionaries.... 92
Table 5.2: Details of six dictionaries in order of increasing number of entries....94
Table 5.3: Front matter in six dictionaries....96
Table 5.4: Middle matter in six dictionaries....97
Table 5.5: Back matter in six dictionaries.... 98
Table 5.6 English words not included in the macrostructure of six dictionaries....100
Table 5.7: A summary of 120 pragmatic points covered in the microstructure of the six dictionaries101
Table 5.8: A comparison of the pragmatic information provided in the microstructure of "gentleman" in four dictionaries.... 102

Table 5.9: Total cross-references in the mediostructure.....105
Table 6.1: Pragmatic points as incorporated into the first- and second-stage dictionary..... 110
Table 6.2: 17 Chinese pragmatic points employing words from the 151-300 section of HSK list..... 111
Table 6.3: 15 Chinese pragmatic expressions employing Chinese words beyond the 300 required by HSK..... 112
Table 6.4: 75 entries of the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary.....113
Table 6.5: 11 Chinese pragmatic points containing the first 150 HSK words in the second-stage dictionary..... 129
Table 6.6: 6 pragmatic points employing Chinese words beyond the core HSK vocabulary..... 129
Table 6.7: English headwords of entries added to the second-stage experimental dictionary..... 130
Table 6.8: Expanded entries (14) in the second-stage experimental dictionary..... 130
Table 7.1: The pragmatic information tested in the ten questions of the first pragmatics test.....146
Table 7.2: The pragmatic information tested in the ten questions of the second pragmatics test..... 147
Table 8.1: Motivations described as “others”.....154
Table 8.2: 38 participants’ motivations for learning Chinese.....155
Table 8.3: Grouping 38 participants’ motivations for learning Chinese..... 155
Table 8.4: The average performances of participants with different motivations..... 156
Table 8.5: Lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with the item tested168
Table 8.6: Macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese constructions tested..... 172
Table 8.7: Micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested.....174
Table 8.8: Alignment of accessibility with participants’ performance on the first pragmatics test..... 177
Table 9.1: Five questions repeated on the second pragmatics test..... 183
Table 9.2: A comparison of the five other questions on the first and the second pragmatics test.....183
Table 9.3: A comparison of the accuracy rates on the five repeated questions.....184
Table 9.4: Categories of pragmatic information tested and the lexicographical means to present it... 196
Table 9.5: Macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese constructions tested.....200
Table 9.6: Micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested.....201
Table 9.7: Alignment of overall accessibility with participants’ performance.....203
Table 9.8: Participants’ frequency of using the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary and their performance on the second pragmatics test..... 205
Table 9.9: 8 participants’ suggestions for improving the pragmatic information in the experimental dictionary..... 206
Table 9.10: Thirteen participants’ performance on two pragmatics tests, their motivation for learning Chinese and weekly dictionary use frequency.....210

List of figures

Figure 1.1: The contextual aspects of pragmatics.....8

Figure 3.1: Functional classification of Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meaning.....40

Figure 3.2: Structural categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings.....41

Figure 8.1: Overall distribution of participants' performance on the first pragmatics test..... 152

Figure 8.2: Distribution of participants' correct answers to each question of the first pragmatics test157

Figure 8.3: Grouping of participants' collective performance on the questions of the first pragmatics test 158

Figure 9.1: Overall distribution of participants' performance on the second pragmatics test.....185

Figure 9.2: Distribution of participants' correct answers to each question of the second pragmatics test186

Figure 9.3: Grouping of participants' collective performance on the questions of the second pragmatics test.....187

List of appendixes

Appendix 1: Pragmatic meaning relating to 120 Chinese words and associated linguistic structures261

Appendix 2: New HSK Level-1 Lexical Syllabus (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word)..... 264

Appendix 3: HSK Level-2 Lexical Syllabus: 300 Chinese Words (including 150 above) (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word).....266

Appendix 4: Pragmatic points provided in *Integrated Chinese*.....268

Appendix 5: Pragmatic points provided in *Practical Chinese*..... 270

Appendix 6: Pragmatic points provided in *Encounters*.....272

Appendix 7: Pragmatic points provided in *Chinese Link*..... 274

Appendix 8: Inclusion of 120 pragmatic points in six dictionaries..... 276

Appendix 9: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Collins*..... 281

Appendix 10: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Oxford*..... 284

Appendix 11: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Tuttle*..... 286

Appendix 12: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of Concise.....288

Appendix 13: Pragmatic information in the micro-structure of *Far East*..... 288

Appendix 14: Pragmatic meaning relating to Chinese words beyond the 300 required of new HSK test-takers and their associated linguistic structures..... 289

Appendix 15: 95 pragmatic points integrated into the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary..... 292

Appendix 16: 43 pragmatic points added into the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary.....295

Appendix 17：The second-stage E-C experimental dictionary..... 298

Appendix 18: Pragmatics Test 1.....361

Appendix 19: Pragmatics Test 2.....364

Appendix 20: Ethics Approval.....367

Chapter 1: Introduction: Approaches to Pragmatics

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Mapping the Field of Pragmatics

1.2 Is Pragmatics Universal?

1.3 Pragmatics and Second Language Learning

1.4 Approaches to Pragmatics in Dictionaries

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

1.0 Introduction

Teaching Chinese to overseas students became a specialised field with the establishment of People's Republic of China in 1949, and research on it has developed since then (Zhang 2000: 50). More substantial progress in it can be witnessed after the opening up of China to the outside world with the end of the Cultural Revolution in 1977. The reconstruction of connections between China and the outside world spurs people's interest in it, including learning its language and culture. With the fast socioeconomic development in China over the past several decades, Chinese has gradually become a critical language to study worldwide. More and more overseas learners take it up and the number has been rising steadily. To March 2014, it was estimated that Chinese learners around the globe had already gone beyond 100 million (Cai 2014).

However, against this seemingly booming popularity of Chinese language study, the research on teaching it has not developed at the same pace. Its teaching practice, and much research on teaching and learning Chinese (including the words which form the very foundation of learning Chinese), is not empirically but intuitively based. The fact that pragmatic meaning could be embedded in such words, even foundational ones, or linguistic structures comprising them, appears to have gone unnoticed. Even up to now, it is no exaggeration to say that Chinese teaching has still been focusing on language learning rather than communicative competence and the socio-cultural context (including pragmatics), all of which are now deemed important dimensions of foreign language learning. Those dimensions are particularly important in learning Chinese in an overseas context, in which learners have very limited exposure to Chinese, including its pragmatics.

This neglect of the communicative and pragmatic dimensions in teaching and learning Chinese needs to be recognized and addressed, focusing on three key aspects. To begin with, there is no systematic scoping of Chinese pragmatics for pedagogical purposes. Secondly, there is little research into how Chinese learners, including beginners in foreign settings could develop pragmatic awareness and knowledge, either in the classroom or through self-teaching, e.g. by reference to a specialized dictionary. Thirdly, there is a lack of assessment of how much pragmatics they might acquire in a given period. Thus there is an urgent need to "bring a focus on [Chinese] pragmatics into the [L2] classroom" (Bardovi-Harlig 1996: 21) through various means, and to assess their effectiveness. Exploring why individuals are motivated to learn Chinese may also be important in helping foreign learners acquire Chinese pragmatics.

The three areas identified above represent the sequence of the research areas investigated in this thesis. We begin with the scope of pragmatics itself as an interdisciplinary area, undertaken in the sections below, followed by related topics on the universality or otherwise of pragmatics, and its treatment in second language learning and in current learner's dictionaries.

1.1 Mapping the Field of Pragmatics

It is essential to clarify what pragmatics is first, since pragmatics as a field is still disunified. Those who are engaged in the study of pragmatics, can roughly be grouped into "problem solvers" and "border seekers" (Ariel 2010). These two schools generally consist of Anglo-Americans who are mainly concerned with the relationship between language and logic. A third school that has emerged in Continental Europe lays emphasis on the larger communicative context for pragmatic expression.

1.1.1 Problem Solvers

Problem solvers focus on language-related puzzles that grammar fails to explain and try to account for them. Yet "whereas the early problem solvers set out from specifically linguistic puzzles…later (nonlinguistic) problem solvers did not see themselves as bound by formally defined issues" (Ariel 2010: 10). The scope of pragmatics was expanded greatly by those later theorists. Problem-solvers focus on the topics such as deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and so on, which were first created by Levinson (1983) in his canonical textbook, *Pragmatics*. They view "pragmatics as a core area that overlaps with semantics within…linguistics, along with syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics" (LoCastro 2012: 7). Lumping these topics together may leave the impression that they are on

a par with each other. This is actually not the case. Among the topics detailed below, some, such as speech acts, have thus far been favored by pragmatic researchers, while others, like conventional conversational implicature, have been marginalised.

1.1.1.1 Deixis

Deixis refers to words and phrases, like "me" or "here", that can only be fully understood with additional supporting contextual information. It "can be thought of as based on the assumption of mutual orientation, presupposition on the assumption of shared knowledge of a domain and its updating" (Levinson 1983: 45). Without such mutual orientation, the person or thing that deictic terms stand for is hard to determine. Deixis can be classified into factors of *person*, *time*, *place*, *discourse*, *social* (Levinson 1983: 68-90). It is usually organised egocentrically, with its deictic center capable of being shifted to other participants in a communication. The use of deictic expressions together with paralinguistic features, such as facial expressions, nodding of head, pitch, etc., can help determine whether a deictic usage is *gestural* or *symbolic*. Proximal deictic expressions in English, like this, now and here, are used in the gestural way, while the distal ones are usually saved for symbolic use. Despite its reference to situational aspects of pragmatics, deixis is more often treated as an element of grammar and textual cohesion (Halliday & Hasan 1976).

1.1.1.2 Presupposition

Presuppositions include those arising out of the specifics of an utterance and those associated with a general context. Both involve inferences. The former refers to the fact that pragmatic assumptions are intrinsically interwoven with linguistic structures. For example, the expression "He managed to pass the exam" presupposes "He tried or made efforts to pass the exam". Compare "Effects presuppose causes"—a typical example for the presupposition in the ordinary sense, since it describes "any kind of background against which an action, theory, expression or utterance makes sense" (Levinson 1983: 168). Three points are essential to comprehending the presuppositions from the pragmatic perspective. Firstly, they involve speaker assumptions concerning the context. Secondly, there are *felicity condition*s or appropriateness for a pragmatic presupposition to work. A sentence can be judged to be appropriate if and only if it is uttered under the felicitous condition. Thirdly, it concerns the *mutual knowledge* shared by the participants in a communication. Presuppositions can be cancelled under certain conditions. Felicity conditions have been detailed more by formal grammarians than pragmaticists.

1.1.1.3 Conversational implicature

Conversational implicature is "based squarely on certain contextual assumptions concerning the co-operativeness of participants in a conversation, rather than being built into the linguistic structure of the sentences that give rise to them" (Levinson 1983: 167). There is frequently a gap between what we say and what we mean. There is also difference between the literal meaning of the parts that make up an utterance and its contextual meaning. Both sides in a conversation are expected to follow *cooperative principles* to make it move on smoothly. The principles consist of four maxims—*quantity*, *quality*, *relation* and *manner* (Grice 1991: 26-27). The first concerns the informativeness of one's contribution in communication, the second its truthfulness, the third its relevance and the last its perspicuousness, with each having its own sub-maxims. Speakers sometimes have to sacrifice one maxim for the sake of other ones.

Conversational implicatures are differentiated by Grice (1991: 32-40) into *generalised* and *particularised* ones. The former ones do not require any particular context while the latter ones do. He also envisaged *conventional implicature*s, non-truth-conditional inferences not derived from superordinate pragmatic principle like the maxims, but attached by convention to particularised lexical items or expressions (Levinson 1983: 127). Conversational implicatures are *defeasible*, *non-detachable*, *unconventional* and *calculable*. In Levinson's (1983: 114-118) view, they are defeasible in the sense that they can be cancelled somehow. Being non-detachable implies implicatures cannot be detached from an utterance simply by changing the words of the utterance for synonyms. Unconventional indicates that implicatures are not part of the conventional meaning of linguistic structures. They are calculable in that an addressee can make the inference based on the literal meaning of an utterance, the co-operative principle and its maxims.

1.1.1.4 Speech acts

Utterances are not just to say something, but also to do something or perform an act as well (Austin 1962). According to Austin, utterances for saying something, such as statements, assertions, are called *constatives*, whereas those for doing something are termed *performatives*. Later he points out that by uttering something, *locutionary*, *illocutionary* and *perlocutionary act*s are performed simultaneously. Locutionary refers to the physical act of uttering something. Illocutionary indicates "in what way we are using the locution" (Austin 1962: 99) when it is performed. Perlocutionary means a speaker's utterance "will often, or even normally, produce certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of

the audience, or of the speaker, or of other persons" (Austin 1962: 101). Austin (1962) differentiated between *explicit* and *implicit* performative sentences according to whether there is a distinctive performative verb, such as, *bet* or *promise*, in the sentence. The explicit ones have performative verbs while the implicit ones do not.

The speech acts performed by an utterance can be classified into different types according to different criteria. By the illocutionary force of different performative verbs, Austin (1962: 150-151) classified speech acts into *verdictives* (giving verdicts), *exercitives* (exercising power, rights, etc.), *commissives* (promising), *behabitives* (having to do with attitudes and social behavior), and *expositives* (expository). His student—Searle (1976:10-15) considered that the classification was inadequate in that it lacked a principle, and there was overlap between the different types. He divided up the illocutionary acts based on *felicity conditions*—the conditions needed for an act to be successful, and developed a more expansive set of speech acts: *representatives* (committing the speaker to the truth of the proposition), *directives* (getting the addressee to do something), *commissives* (committing the speaker to future actions), *expressives* (showing a psychological state) and *declaratives* (leading to the immediate change in the state of affairs)".

Speech acts can be differentiated into *direct* and *indirect* types depending on whether an utterance has illocutionary force associated with it. Explicit performatives and the three major sentence-types—imperative, interrogative and declarative—have such force associated with them, thus performing direct speech acts (Levinson 1983: 263). Those sentences without such force associated with them perform indirect speech acts. These can be further divided into *conventional* and *unconventional* ones. Conventional indirect speech acts are illocutionary acts which are customarily and standardly used to make indirect speech acts, although the speaker and the hearer may not be conscious of the literal illocutionary force in them (He 2003: 91). The unconventional types are thus named because "they depend much more on the mutually shared background information and the context of situation" (He 2003: 92).

The list of pragmatic topics above are just some prevalent ones investigated by "problem-solving" pragmaticists. Border-seekers instead seek to delimit the scope of pragmatics.

1.1.2 Border Seekers

Unlike problem solvers aiming to solve puzzles of language and logic, border seekers attempt to draw a clear boundary between pragmatics and neighboring disciplines, especially

semantics. Meaning criteria—such as context dependence and nontruth conditionality; analytic criteria—such as acceptability judgments or naturalness; and cognitive criteria—such as inference, have been adopted for delimiting the scope of pragmatics. Since the code-inference division is considered essential to differentiate semantics and pragmatics (Ariel 2010: 94), this view is widely shared among pragmaticists, including Grice and his followers, who focus on defining the borders of pragmatics.

Grice himself is a border seeker who believes that his maxims (see conversational implicature in 1.1.3) explain the gap between the grammatical meaning and other meanings conveyed. According to him, both the literal and the inferred meanings are conveyed to the hearers or addressees. Conversational implicatures are generated either based on the assumption that the speaker is following a cooperative principle or trying to reconcile different maxims. Meanwhile, violating any maxim blatantly will also generate implicatures. Grice's followers Horn (1984, 1989) and Levinson (1987) simplified the maxims, partly because they wanted to avoid clashes between the different maxims.

Absolute adoption of code-inference division between grammar and pragmatics (e.g. by Sperber & Wilson 1986, 1995, Ariel 2008, 2010) marks a departure from the previous position taking an inferential stance. For Sperber and Wilson, the *Principle of Relevance* defines the border of pragmatics. To them, relevance resides in the fact that "[e]very act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance" (Sperber & Wilson 1995: 158). This principle of relevance requires the speaker to balance informativeness with the costs of processing in communication. The ideal situation is to produce maximal informativeness (or contextual effects) with minimal processing cost for a hearer. Ariel (2008, 2010) considers whatever is inferred should delimit the scope of pragmatics.

1.1.3 Verschueren's Theory

In response to the limited Anglo-American list of pragmatic topics, pragmaticists from the Continental school (e.g. Verschueren 1999; Östman & Verschueren 2009) developed a broader and more inclusive approach. Pragmatics is considered to be the cognitive, social, and cultural science of language and communication (Östman & Verschueren 2009), and pragmatic elements are found in every aspect of language use.

Pragmatics is a matter of making choices at every possible level of language structure (Verschueren 1999: 56-58). Language users choose language forms as well as strategies for

using them in both uttering and interpreting an utterance, which may show any degree of conscious choice. Choices are not equivalent in status and they evoke or carry their alternatives. *Variability*, *negotiability* and *adaptability* are involved in making choices. Variability refers to the range of possibilities from which language users make choices, while negotiability indicates choices are made between speakers on the basis of highly flexible principles and strategies (Verschueren 1999: 59). Adaptability means human beings can make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities to meet the communicative needs of a particular situation. *Contextual correlates*, *structural objects*, *the dynamics of adaptability* and *salience* of the adaptation processes can help us "assign four clear tasks to pragmatic descriptions and explanations" (Verschueren 1999: 65). Contextual correlates are selected extralinguistic realities subject to variation and negotiation in communication. The structural objects of adaptability include structures from "sound feature and phoneme to discourse and beyond, or to any type of interlevel relationship", and "also principles of structuring" (Verschueren 1999: 66). The dynamics of adaptability concerns "the ways in which communication principles and strategies are used in the making and negotiating of choices of production and interpretation", while salience refers to the fact that "not all choices…are made equally consciously or purposely" (Verschueren 1999: 66). Verschueren thus extended the scope of pragmatics by taking almost every aspect of communication into consideration, which makes it too broad for many applications.

1.1.4 Pragmatic Functions and Communicative Context

Pragmaticists, such as those discussed above, either focus on a limited list of pragmatic topics (Anglo-American School) or a much too expanded one (Continental School), or attempt to set the border between pragmatics and other linguistic disciplines, such as semantics. However, no effort to date seems to have succeeded in unifying pragmatics as an independent field of study. Until now, pragmaticists continue to work in various niches they consider to be part of pragmatics, rather than seek a comprehensive framework for it. "[V]irtually everyone agrees a definition of pragmatics won't come easily" (Rose 1997: 267). It can however be argued that pragmatics can be defined operationally as people's using language to fulfill pragmatic functions, such as expressing an attitude or a feeling, to be vague or emphatic, to be polite, and to perform different speech acts.

Using language to fulfill such functions happens in a communicative context. It involves language users, and their mental, physical and social [context] of communication (Verschueren 1999: 77-102). The *mental context* involves a language user's personality,

emotions, beliefs, desires, motivations, etc. The *social context* refers to social or cultural settings within which interactive communication takes places. The *physical context* includes factors associated with time, space, language users' gestures, appearance, and so on. Accordingly, issues explored by pragmaticists can be illustrated through the following diagram.

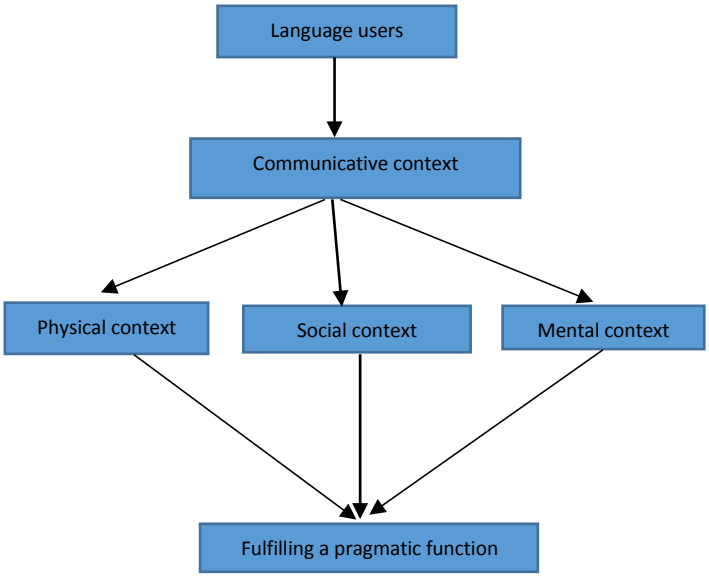

Figure 1.1: The contextual aspects of pragmatics

If pragmatics fulfills a social function in a typical communicative context, then for L2 learners, there could be pragmatic universals where there is a corresponding form-function mapping between L1 and L2 and the forms can be used in L2 contexts with corresponding effects (Kasper & Rose 2001: 6). On the other hand, since the pragmatics of a particular language, including components like "sociocultural concepts and norms such as face, power, and hierarchy are encoded in linguistic behaviors" of using that language (Taguchi 2015b: 5), its pragmatics would be language-specific and not likely to be universal. Whether pragmatics is universal or not will be discussed in the next section.

1.2 Is Pragmatics Universal?

Is pragmatics—using language to perform a pragmatic function in a communicative context, universal among different languages? There could be some pragmatic universals, in the mutual orientation of speaker, such as deixis (Levinson 1983), in presupposition as a pragmatic assumption, and processes of conversational implicatures (Hymes 1972), and in using languages to perform a speech act. Politeness is a widely discussed topic in pragmatics (Allot 2010: 140-141), so much so that pragmatics "often is viewed as being concerned solely

with politeness" (LoCastro 2012: 9). Politeness has been discussed by pragmaticists from both Anglo-American and Continental schools, such as Brown & Levinson (1978, 1983), and Leech (1983). Brown and Levinson (1978, 1983) claim that politeness is universal, while other researchers (e.g. Ide 1989, Matsumoto 1988, Kiyama, Tamaoka & Takiura 2012) disagree. The expression of politeness in English and Chinese, belonging respectively to Indo-European and Sino-Tibetan language families, invites discussion as to whether politeness is universal.

Politeness as a fuzzy concept is shared by English and Chinese, even if there is "little agreement among researchers in the field about what, exactly, constitutes politeness" (Fraser 1990: 234). [1] [1]It can be contended that "the mutual knowledge of members' public self-image or face, and the social necessity to orient oneself to it in interaction, are universal" (Brown & Levinson 1978: 67). The desire to be polite is one of the major social constraints regulating people's verbal as well as non-verbal behaviors, constantly reminding them to take into consideration the feelings of others, including the interlocutor as well as a third party not necessarily present. Other things being equal, communicators usually minimise the expressions of impolite beliefs and maximise those of polite ones. Despite such pragmatic universals, the differences between English and Chinese expressions of politeness are evident on both sociocultural and linguistic levels.

1.2.1 Sociocultural differences between English and Chinese politeness

Pragmatic differences between English and Chinese politeness can be interpreted in terms of different cultural values (Wierzbicka 2003: 69) across different societies. Politeness is always a matter of degree, strongly dependent on sociocultural factors. What is appropriate in one culture might prove the opposite in the other. Therefore, different societies may adopt different strategies to be polite.

Brown and Levinson' politeness theory (1978, 1987) is built on the concept of face, which in turn is based on Goffman's (1955, 1969) notion of face. They posit five politeness

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Note 1 : It should be noted that the claims about Chinese and English politeness, which is a component of pragmatics, are general. The author does acknowledge that there can be variations across contextual factors, such as time, space and different social groups, between pragmatics of different languages. The same may hold true for some pragmatic information included in the customised E-C learner's dictionary introduced in Chapter 6. Yet it would be beyond the scope of a learner's dictionary to offer detailed context-dependent pragmatic information, even if its absence runs the risk of appearing as blanket statements.

strategies available to speakers: *bald on record* (without taking a redressive action to give face to the addressee); *positive politeness* (oriented towards the positive face or positive self-image of the hearer (H); *negative politeness* (oriented towards H's negative face or his basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination); *off-record* (more than one unambiguously attributable intention is conveyed); and *don't do Face-Threatening-Act* (FTA) (Brown & Levinson 1987: 68-71). The social distance between speaker (S) and hearer (H), absolute ranking of imposition, and the relative power of H and S, are three variables affecting FTA (Brown & Levinson 1987: 74-84).

Chinese politeness differs from English politeness in at least two aspects. One is that politeness is normative rather than instrumental in Chinese interactions, i.e. general practice rather than used to achieve specific social outcomes, according to Gu (1990: 241-242). Another is that the Chinese concept of negative politeness differs from that defined by Brown and Levinson (Gu 1990: 241-242; Bi 1996: 56; Mao 1994: 460), in that actions like promising, inviting and offering are not considered threatening to hearers' negative face in ordinary Chinese settings.

Gu (1990, 1992) presents a systematic account of modern Chinese politeness, or in his term "*lǐmào* 礼貌", using a functional approach. The principles of *politeness*, *sincerity* and *balance* constitute Chinese "*lǐmào* 礼貌" (Gu 1990: 239-256). The politeness principle is comprised of four maxims. The *self-denigration maxim* consists of denigrating oneself and elevating other. The *address maxim* implies addressing your interlocutor with appropriate forms, which are approached from respectfulness and attitudinal warmth. The *generosity* and *tact maxims* are underpinned by attitudinal warmth and refinement. Polite behaviours must be sincere (principle of sincerity) and call for similar behaviours in return (principle of balance). Appropriate response behaviors in Chinese culture may differ from those used in western cultures. For example, to be polite, when replying to compliments, Chinese tend to use fewer "accept" strategies, but more "evade" and "reject" ones than their American and Australian counterparts (e.g. Chen 1993; Tang & Zhang 2009). It is considered more modest, thus politer to act this way in Chinese cultural settings, but not in English ones.

1.2.2 Linguistic differences between English and Chinese politeness

The pragmatic differences between English and Chinese politeness are encoded in their respective linguistic structures. To be polite, people in certain situations have to utter "certain

phrases, or us[e] certain constructions" (Wierzbicka 2003: 131), in which intercultural differences are embedded. Even if there is no absolute divide between east and west in politeness as a concept (Leech 2005: 170), it should be admitted that different languages "use different linguistic means to convey appropriate levels of politeness" (Taguchi 2015a: 38), which are sanctioned only in the societies where the languages are used. Chinese politeness affects Chinese as an abstract language system (Gu 1990: 240), while English politeness is expressed in particular English ways. For example, in response to others' compliments, the adoption of a linguistic construction, such as "*nǎlǐ* 哪里 where" by Chinese (e.g. Chen 1991; Mao 2003), to perform a "reject" strategy for others' compliments should only be interpreted in line with the Chinese context. The pragmatic force of this structure is embedded in Chinese social norms—they want to appear humble, not necessarily to think humbly of themselves (Chen 1993: 67), or to denigrate oneself. But in terms of English politeness, this Chinese response appears to be a negative politeness. It contrasts with the positive way of acknowledging compliments in English with simple expressions like "thanks".

For L2 learners, such as English-speaking learners of Chinese, the non-universality of pragmatics on either sociocultural or linguistic level means that they cannot simply apply their L1 pragmatic knowledge to communicating in L2. They need to be aware of the pragmatic differences between English and Chinese, to acquire the sociocultural as well as the linguistic aspects of pragmatic expressions so as to be pragmatically competent.

1.3 Pragmatics and Second Language Learning

Second language learning might be expected to include the pragmatics of the L2 language on the socio-cultural and linguistic levels, and to become the learners' repertoire of L2 pragmatic knowledge. But up to now, no consensus has been reached as to what constitutes such knowledge. For example, "knowledge of how verbal acts are understood and performed" (Farch & Kasper 1983: 214) focuses only on speech acts. Yet defining it as non-native speakers' knowledge of a pragmatic system and that of its appropriate use of a target language (Liu 2006: 2) is too general, while some researchers (e.g., Farashaiyan & Tan 2012) simply use the term as if it is self-evident and no definition is necessary.

The demarcation between "pragmalinguistic" and "sociopragmatic" (Leech 1983, Thomas 1983) can be adopted to accommodate pragmatic knowledge on the two levels (linguistic and socio-cultural) discussed in 1.5. Pragmalinguistic knowledge consists in

understanding that the linguistic structures on to which pragmatic force mapped by L2 learners "is systematically different from that normally assigned to [them] by native speakers" (Thomas 1983: 101). It "equips them with the [linguistic] tools for expressing themselves" (Roever 2006: 231). Sociopragmatic knowledge concerns "the rules of what is socially acceptable and appropriate" (Roever 2006: 231). They involve "'sociopragmatic judgements concerning the size of imposition, cost/benefit, social distance, and relative rights and obligations" (Thomas 1983: 103-104). "[A] speaker's sociopragmatic analysis of a situation…is linguistically encoded through pragmalinguistic choices" (Roever 2011: 464). Both types of pragmatic knowledge are closely related, and important to L2 learners.

Since "[p]ragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic conventions [of a certain society] are tied to the grammatical and lexical structures of particular languages" (Kasper & Rose 2001: 7), they need to be acquired by L2 learners to underpin their L2 pragmatic knowledge. However, pragmatics has generally been marginalised in L2 pedagogy, it has been left to L2 learners themselves to relate pragmatics to language structures, and to understand the functional meanings of combining language elements as well as the relevant contextual features (Taguchi 2011: 291). A systematic approach is needed to address the issue, to help learners acquire pragmatics, especially pragmalinguistic resources. Classroom instruction is one source of L2 pragmatic knowledge input, but other potential means should also be explored to introduce such knowledge to L2 learners, like integrating pragmatics into pedagogical materials such as textbooks, and other language references, such as learners' dictionaries. Lexicographers have been actively exploring how to integrate pragmatics into a learners' dictionary to help with L2 learners' pragmatic learning, as discussed in the next section.

1.4 Approaches to Pragmatics in Dictionaries

With the preface entitled *Pragmatics and the Dictionary* in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2nd Eds.), Leech &Thomas (1987: F12) introduced pragmatics—"speaker meaning", into learners' dictionaries. In fact, lexicographers since early 1980s have explored the scope of pragmatic information, as well as the various vehicles to present it in a dictionary.

1.4.1 Aspects of pragmatics

The numerous different aspects identified by lexicographers to be included in dictionaries are summarised in the table below.

Table 1.1: The scope of pragmatic information in dictionaries

Hagasi (1981) Svensén (1993: 6) Huang and Chen (2001: 48-49) Li and Zhou (2001: 138)	Information on temporal and spatial use of language, and language users' social status; their age, gender, and occupation; audience, register
Kipfer and Robinson (1984: 41)	Information related to variation in language, temporal and spatial features;the relationship between the interlocutors
Apreseyan (1988 cited in Burkhanov 2003: 103)	Information on speakers' attitude to reality, the message and/or the interlocutor
Sharpe (1989: 315)	Information on knowing the lexical items to use to fulfil a communicative task
Nuccorini (1993)	Information related to culture-specific social conventions and linguistic assumptions
Qian (1995)	Information associated with deictic terms, discourse markers, speaker's attitude and intention, the relationship between the speaker and the hearer
Hartmann and James (2000: 111)	Information on the sociocultural rules of speaking
Landau (2001: 217-272)	Information on usages, including that on sexual usage, insult
Yang (2005, 2007)	Information related to pragmatic meaning, which arises from conventional implicature, presupposition, felicity condition, particularised conversational implicatures, politeness
Kawamura (2014: 40)	Information on pragmatic functions and biases

The topics covered in the table above point to the diversity of opinions as to what exactly constitutes pragmatic information. Each of the underlined topics can justify itself as a component of pragmatic information. These topics focus either on what will become L2 learners' sociopragmatic knowledge, such as socio-cultural rules or conventions, or their pragmalinguistic knowledge, such as deictic terms, or discourse markers, or both

sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge, like pragmatic functions or pragmatic meaning. Yang (2005, 2007) held that particularised conversational implicature can be incorporated into a learners' dictionary, but it is unclear how can a dictionary present highly context-dependent information like this. Defining pragmatic information as pragmatic functions (Kawamura 2014) does not help much if such functions are not clearly defined. Yet lexicographers tend to agree that dictionaries "must or cannot help but treat the most fixed part of pragmatic meaning" (Kawamura 2014: 48), and the information associated with it constitutes pragmatic information in a learners' dictionary.

1.4.2 The placement of pragmatic information in a dictionary

In terms of the location of pragmatic information, most researchers listed in Table 1.1 associate pragmatic meaning with the lexical level of language (e.g. Hagasi 1981; Apreseyan 1988 cited in Burkhanov 2003; Svensén 1993; Huang & Chen 2001; Li & Zhou 2001). It can also be associated with the phrasal or sentential, or even textual level. The headword list can accommodate words or linguistic constructions that express pragmatic meaning and provide access to them, and word-specific pragmatic information can be offered within a dictionary entry. However, some pragmatic concepts do not lend themselves to dictionary entries easily, for example, sociocultural practices, preferred and dispreferred topics of conversation, or culturally defined pervasive values like politeness. Information on them calls for discursive treatment, which can be provided in the foreword, or appendix of a dictionary, or as inserts. Pragmatic information of different kinds can appear in virtually every place in a dictionary.

1.4. 3 The lexicographical means for presenting pragmatic information

As for the lexicographical vehicles for detailing pragmatic information within dictionary entries, labelling is generally considered to be the major means, with labels like <offensive>, <polite> (e.g. Hagasi 1981; Kipfer & Robinson 1984; Svensén 1993; Huang & Chen 2001; Li & Zhou 2001; Landau 2001). Even if pragmatic labels are the predominant way to present such information, translation equivalents of a headword, example sentences and their translations can also serve a pragmatic purpose (Yang 2005). In addition, pragmatic information calling for discursive treatment can be added to the entry as brief explanation or notes (Yang 2005). Meanwhile, all the related pragmatic information in individual entries can be linked together through cross-referencing, to form an interrelated system in the dictionary.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis documents an investigation into how to provide a systematic approach to Chinese pragmatics for beginner CFL learners; and whether a pragmatically enriched print dictionary, as supplementary learning material, could contribute to their acquisition of Chinese pragmatic knowledge and awareness. These complementary aspects of the project are addressed in the following major research questions (RQ) :

RQ1. What are the obstacles for a beginning CFL/CSL learner seeking to acquire Chinese words as the building blocks of pragmatic knowledge?

RQ2. How much pragmatics is embedded in core Chinese vocabulary and associated linguistic constructions?

RQ3. How much of this pragmatics is included in current textbooks or learners' dictionaries?

RQ4. Can a customised dictionary which integrates Chinese pragmatics into every dictionary component provide support for beginners in Chinese, and contribute to their acquisition of pragmatics?

These questions are taken up in the following chapters:

Chapter 2 This chapter reviews research published on teaching and learning Chinese, focusing on:

(1) aspects of learning Chinese words and characters that are known to pose difficulty for beginners;

(2) Chinese pragmatics as taught and learned in ESL and EFL contexts;

(3) motivational factors relating to acquiring Chinese in ESL and EFL contexts.

Chapter 3 This chapter reviews the core vocabulary for the *Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (HSK) syllabus for L2 Chinese learners, to see how much pragmatics is associated with the words in its first two levels. It develops a classificatory system for various types of pragmatics found, to be used as a foil for assessing the pragmatic content in current learning materials, and as the agenda for an experimental dictionary.

Chapter 4 This chapter reviews four popular Chinese textbooks at university level for beginners in Chinese, to see what pragmatic topics are introduced into them, and how the textbook compilers have dealt with them.

Chapter 5 This chapter investigates whether the pragmatic aspects of the Chinese vocabulary identified in Chapter 3 are presented in six selected reference dictionaries, and what lexicographical means have been employed within the conventional dictionary structures for this purpose.

Chapter 6 This chapter introduces the principles for integrating Chinese pragmatics into different components of a two-stage expandable experimental E-C learners' dictionary, designed around the 120 Chinese words and constructions with pragmatic meanings, organised by their English translation equivalents.

Chapter 7 This chapter presents the methodology for the pragmatic tests used in the research, against the background of alternative testing methods. It describes the aims, participants, materials, procedures, measures and scoring, and analysis of data for the two pragmatics tests.

Chapter 8 This chapter discusses the results of the first pragmatics test, including the participants' performance, and whether their individual motivation bears on their performance, i.e. their pragmatic learning. The test questions are reviewed in detail, to discuss their relative difficulty, and the influence of factors like the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information, as well as the accessibility of the pragmatics within the experimental dictionary.

Chapter 9 This chapter analyses the results of the second pragmatics test conducted at the end of the year. With five questions from different scoring groups of the first pragmatics test repeated on the second, it can show if there are cumulative effects on the participants' Chinese pragmatic learning, including the pragmatic information in the experimental E-C dictionary. It also investigates the factors relating to their performance, such as the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information, its accessibility, and the relationship between participants' performance and their self-reported frequency of dictionary use. The suggestions elicited from participants concerning the structure and contents of the experimental dictionary are also discussed.

Chapter 10 This chapter concludes with the major findings of this research—how far beginning CFL students can be supported in their implicit pragmatic learning through the experimental E-C learners' dictionary. It points out the limitations of the present study in

terms of the materials used and the characteristics of the participants, hence some directions for future research.

Chapter 2: Research on Aspects of Teaching and Learning Chinese Words and Chinese Pragmatics

2.0 Introduction

2.1 Difficulties in Acquiring Chinese Words as the Building blocks of Pragmatics

2.2 Research on Teaching and Learning Chinese Pragmatics

2.3 Research on Motivation for Learning Chinese

2.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

2.0 Introduction

Teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics begins with the language itself, i.e. understanding the words and linguistic constructions to which pragmatic meanings are attached. Language knowledge is the foundation on which both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge is built (Kasper & Rose 2001), This prompts the first research question (RQ1) to be addressed through this chapter: what are the obstacles for a beginning Chinese learner seeking to acquire Chinese words as the building blocks of pragmatic knowledge – either as a second language (CSL) or foreign language (CFL) learner? The question will be broken up into three smaller ones. The first section looks into the upfront difficulties for CSL and CFL learners' in accessing the meaning and pronunciation of Chinese words in Chinese script, and becoming sufficiently acquainted with them to appreciate the pragmatic implications embedded in them. The second section investigates the status quo of teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CSL and CFL settings. The third explores the motivational factors which drive CSL and CFL learners to pick up Chinese, including its pragmatics.

It is important to differentiate CSL and CFL acquisitional settings, since the different settings affect how learners acquire Chinese (Wu 2009). Until recently, however, "*duì wài hànyǔ jiāoxué*对外汉语教学 teaching Chinese to foreign learners" has been used as a generic term to cover both teaching Chinese to overseas students in China and to foreign learners in other countries. In a typical CSL context, those learning Chinese are exposed on the daily basis to thousands of words/expressions made meaningful in context. They are exposed to interactive use of Chinese and see Chinese pragmatics in action. The context for CFL learning is much less immersive, and learners may have little chance of practising outside the classroom. They depend on structured learning to acquire the elementary Chinese language as

well as basic pragmatics. Being pragmatically competent is very important to both CSL/CFL learners.

In the following sections, we review the pedagogical literature on teaching and learning Chinese words and their pragmatics, noting the methodologies used where indicated. Empirical studies mostly date from the twenty-first century, with more in the CFL context than the CSL context.

2.1 Difficulties in Acquiring Chinese Words as the Building Blocks of Pragmatics

L2 Chinese learners need to learn Chinese "*cí* 词 word"s as the building blocks of their Chinese pragmatic knowledge. Teaching and learning Chinese words should be integrated into the whole process of L2 Chinese study (Wang 1995: 109). Despite the challenges of learning Chinese words and developing a vocabulary, they are marginalised in L2 Chinese teaching and learning (Peng & Ma 2010: 106-107). Chinese words can consist of one, two or more Chinese characters (Ding 2012: 5), so "*cí* 词" is a rather fuzzy concept. A single character can be a semantic morpheme or monosyllabic "*cí* 词" (Li 2002: 55). This explains why the *Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (HSK) vocabulary list includes a mix of single-, bi- and multi-character words. To acquire Chinese words, L2 learners need to grasp the script, pronunciation, and meaning (Lu 2000, cited in Lu & Wang 2006: 12). The difficulties L2 learners encounter in acquiring Chinese words in CSL/CFL contexts are the subject of discussion below.

2.1.1 Difficulties in learning Chinese words in CSL contexts

It can be said that most studies on CSL learners' acquiring Chinese words, including their scripts, pronunciation and meaning, are not empirically based, with a few exceptions on learning Chinese pronunciation (see below). They are either the projections of the authors' intuitions or personal reflections on students' classroom performance.

One major difficulty for students in learning Chinese words lies in being able to remember their logographic scripts (Zhou & Liao 2006: 115), which lack an obvious sound-script correspondence. Learning the scripts can be daunting to those whose native languages are written in an alphabetical rather than a logographic system, because alphabets are based

on the sound system of their languages. The Chinese script comprises radicals which in turn are composed of strokes—the basic building materials. There are no rules concerning how many strokes a character can have (Shen 2005: 50). Since Chinese words consist of characters, learning words inevitably involves rote learning of characters—a challenging task (Zhou 1998, Li, D. 2011: 113) comprising learning their script (or shape), pronunciation (or sound), and meaning (Li, F. 1998: 27). The large number of characters plus their complicated graphic configuration increase the difficulty in learning these characters (Zhou 1998: 57). As far as reading Chinese script is concerned, the need to learn bi-syllabic or poly-syllabic Chinese words comprising two or more Chinese characters, and the lack of sound-script correspondence, will compound the difficulty.

Learning the pronunciation of Chinese words, including their tone, is challenging as well. A Chinese phonetic system—*pinyin*—a Romanised orthography, has been used to help learners of Chinese to grasp the pronunciation of words for more than four decades (Ding 2007). For the learners from an alphabetical language background, one headache for them is the inability to recall the pronunciation of Chinese [scripts] while seeing them (Zhou & Liao 2006: 115). CSL learners from various language backgrounds may share the difficulties of acquiring the pronunciation of Chinese vowels, like triphthongs such as "uai" (Wang & Sun 2007: 90). Meanwhile, learners from certain language backgrounds could have particular difficulties in acquiring certain consonant sounds, as Japanese CSL learners do with sounds like [l] (Shen & Fu 2006). Aside from the specific sounds that cause trouble to CSL learners, learning Chinese tones has always been challenging (e.g. Guan 2000: 51; Li & Chen 2015), because their mother tongues are usually not tonal. Through a perception test of thirteen syllables of /kai/ with different tones, it was found that those whose native language is not tonal perceive tones, like high-level tone (Tone 1), at higher register than native Chinese do (Cao 2010). Their tonal production can differ from those of native Chinese as well. Aside from generally recognised pitch which plays the primary role in the naturalness of Mandarin speech, a perception experiment conducted on the Mandarin speech produced by German CSL learners reveals that their timing patterns could also influence its naturalness (Zhang &Tsurutani 2013).

To learn Chinese words, apart from the logographic script and the pronunciation, the meanings of the Chinese characters and words, which are semantic symbols (Cheng 1997: 82), need to be grasped as well. It is difficult to deduce the meaning of monosyllabic phono-semantic Chinese characters through their scripts, although in theory the meaning of the

semantic radicals can cue that of the characters. The reason is that the relationship between the meaning of the semantic radicals and that of the characters is very vague (Zhou 1998: 57). To learn the meaning of a bi-syllabic or poly-syllabic compound consisting of characters, analysing the meaning of individual morphemes (Zhou & Liao 2006: 116) can help in understanding that of the compound sometimes, but not in every situation. Chinese homophones, synonyms and polysemous words are headaches to CSL learners as well (Wang X. N. 1995: 110). Compared with learning the meaning of a single Chinese word, it is even more difficult to grasp its usage in context, its position in the sentence order, and the relationships between different words (Wen 1995: 117).

Apart from the inherent problem of learning the meaning of Chinese words, there are other difficulties as well. Due to the anisomorphism between CSL learners' mother tongues and Chinese, the culture-bound Chinese words and function words like modal particles (Wen 1995: 118; Wang, X. N. 1995: 110; Wang, X. S. 1997: 71), do not have ready equivalents in CSL learners' native languages. Hence it is challenging for them to understand the meanings of such words. The translation equivalents to be found in learners' native tongues for some Chinese words or expressions may be similar in denotation, but not in connotation (Hu 1997: 14). These differences include the expression of positive or negative attitude, and feelings (Wen 1995: 118; Wang X. S. 1997: 71) which contribute to the pragmatic meaning of an utterance.

If the acquisition of Chinese words is difficult to CSL learners, it can only be more challenging for CFL learners, owing to their lack of everyday exposure to Chinese.

2.1.2 Difficulties in learning Chinese words in CFL contexts

In contrast with the CSL literature, CFL studies on learning Chinese words are mostly empirically based. There is no doubt that acquiring Chinese logographic scripts is a huge hurdle for CFL learners (Shen 2004; Xu & Padilla 2013: 403), and especially daunting for beginners (Everson 1998: 194). For beginning CFL learners, such scripts appear as "random symbols" (Wu 1992 cited in Xu & Padilla 2013: 403). By conducting a character recognition task and a production one on bilingual speakers of Chinese and English and native English-speaking Chinese learners, Ke (1998) found that their heritage or non-heritage language background makes no difference in relation to their recognizing or producing scripts. For CFL learners, learning to read a logographic script is also demanding due to the absence of an

obvious sound-script correspondence in it, and limited passive exposure in everyday life to even the look of Chinese words.

Learning the pronunciation of Chinese words is challenging to CFL learners as well. To acquire the pronunciation of Chinese words, *pinyin*, is widely used to help beginners. However, by implementing a phoneme counting task and a phoneme representation task on CFL beginners, Bassetti (2006) found that the alphabetical input of *pinyin* affects their interpretation of Chinese syllables, and may impact their acquiring the pronunciation of a Chinese word as well. This points to the need for an alternative system representing Chinese pronunciation, other than *pinyin*, to help CFL learners with Chinese pronunciation. Based on the common tonal errors committed by American CFL learners, Gui (2000) concluded that their English intonation can affect their acquisition of Chinese word tones. A tonal perception test of single Chinese syllables, two-syllable groups, and three-syllable groups, which was conducted with American Chinese learners, reveals they tend to confuse tones 1 and 2 and tones 2 and 4 (McGinnis 1996). However, Chen's (1997) investigation of Chinese learners' tonal perception as well as production showed that they have a tendency of confusing tones 2 and 3 and tones 1 and 4. By looking into 10 American Chinese learners' tone production, Miracle (1989) found that the errors they committed within each tone were equally tonal register and tonal contour ones. By contrast, Shen's (1989) investigation of 8 Americans' tonal production revealed that the errors were more related to register rather than tonal contour. Jin (2013) examined the relationship between beginning-level English-speaking adult CFL learners' awareness of lexical tonal categories and the accuracy of their tonal production and found the latter correlated to the former significantly. In addition, the effect of auditory training of CFL learners on perceiving Chinese tones was tested, which could lead to significant improvement in their tonal production (Wang, Allard & Joan 2003).

The difficulty in learning the meaning of a Chinese word is also there for CFL learners. It can be helped for the first-year CFL beginners by their knowing the pronunciation of a word. Through a word recognition test with 20 CFL beginners, Everson (1998) found that those who can pronounce a two-character word which they have learnt are significantly more likely to know its meaning . It was experimentally established that character knowledge can facilitate character recognition and production (e.g. Shen 2005, 2010). However, the CFL beginners could only have limited exposure to Chinese characters. It was found through the experiment that they have difficulty in making use of the functional cues of the known semantic radical to infer the meaning of unknown characters without it being hinted at with

leading questions (Wang, Liu & Perfetti 2004). The problems are compounded as they grapple with the meanings of Chinese words consisting of multiple characters.

2.1.3 Summary on difficulties in learning Chinese words

Acquiring Chinese words, including their script, pronunciation and meaning, poses big challenges to Chinese learners in both CSL and CFL settings. Finding effective means, including technology, to help learners, especially beginning ones to acquire Chinese words, may provide support in either setting. For example, special animation software can be designed to help Chinese learners to acquire the order of strokes in writing Chinese words. Solid foundational knowledge of Chinese words can help L2 Chinese learners to work out the meaning, including pragmatic meaning, that is incorporated into them or into linguistic structures containing them. The need is all the more urgent for CFL learners, owing to their limited exposure to the Chinese language.

2.2 Research on Teaching and Learning Chinese Pragmatics

The claim that pragmatics is something capable of being taught can be traced back to the 1980s. When it comes to L2 pragmatics, "instruction is better than noninstruction for pragmatic development" (Taguchi 2011: 291). The dichotomy of explicit vs. implicit teaching seems to dominate most empirical studies on the instruction of target pragmatic features. As Rose (2005: 393) has noted, "[m]ost studies comparing the effectiveness of different teaching approaches select two types of pedagogical intervention, and in all cases the intervention could be construed as explicit versus implicit". Explicit instruction can be operationalised as a treatment usually offering metapragmatic explanations, plus enhanced production practice in different forms in most cases. By contrast, implicit instruction can be defined as a treatment usually featuring input exposure to target pragmatic features. Although metapragmatic information is a key factor distinguishing the two methods, actual operationalization of the methods varies across studies (Taguchi 2015a: 17). It should be borne in mind that "selection of explicit and implicit conditions represents a continuum between absolutely explicit and implicit extremes rather than a dichotomy" (Taguchi, 2011: 291). Both explicit and implicit approaches are indicated in the research on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CSL and CFL contexts discussed below.

2.2.1 Research on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CSL contexts

Some researchers (e.g. Li & Xue 2007; Ma & Ma 2012) have examined the implications of L2 pragmatics and L2 pragmatic competence for teaching Chinese to CSL learners, and factors, like social context, that influence this competence. To help them gain pragmatic competence, teaching Chinese pragmatics in CSL classroom is feasible. The students can develop competence in working out contextual meanings and pragmatic implicatures through explicit (Lü 2002) and implicit (Shi 2013) teaching. Acquiring Chinese pragmatic knowledge is vital in understanding the pragmatic meaning and/or functions of Chinese words, such as address forms (Ling 1998), or linguistic structures like "*dà…de* 大……的 big…*particle*" which shows a speaker's displeasure, surprise, etc (Gui 2014). In such structures, CSL learners may recognise each word, but fail to understand their meaning as a whole, including their pragmatic meaning (Bai 2008: 90). The pragmatic meaning of such structures needs to be acquired holistically. The studies above center on the intuitive or theoretical explorations of the implications of, the methods for teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics, and the linguistic analysis of Chinese words or structures with pragmatic meaning, with little empirical evidence from classroom practice.

CSL learners' acquisition of specific types of pragmatic knowledge, such as speech acts, pragmatic markers, and pragmatic pause, has been examined by several researchers empirically. Through a 15-item written discourse completion task (henceforth DCT, on which see Chapter 7: 7.1), Ding (2001) researched the pragmatic strategies for making suggestions in Chinese, and found that CSL learners' ability to make indirect suggestions in the form of questions was only half of that of native Chinese. Meanwhile, they scarcely used one Chinese modal particle as a way to make their suggestions indirect. South-east Asian CSL learners' replies to a written DCT concerning expressions of rejection showed that tended to reject inappropriately, because they were unable to apply appropriate strategies to the particular setting (Tang 2004). Their language for rejection was often either too complicated or too simple. By analysing 17 CSL learners' replies to a questionnaire about their Chinese expressions of criticism, Zhu and Zhou (2004) found that the reasons for criticism, rather than the factors like the status of interlocutors, determined how those learners expressed their criticism. When criticising, they rarely used rhetorical structures or modifiers to help mitigate the force of criticism, and instead conveyed it very strongly. Through comparing the recorded 1.5-hour speech of CSL learners and that of native Chinese, Bai and Jia (2006) noted that

CSL learners showed underuse as well as incorrect use of pragmatic markers, such as "*zhēnde ma* 真的吗 real *particle* + *question marker*". Zhao's (2012) investigation of CSL learners pragmatic pause/extension through a questionnaire indicated that their comprehension of it was better than their production, and the need to provide explicit instruction on it was emphasised. The few empirical findings above show the challenges for CSL learners in acquiring different aspects of Chinese pragmatics.

In the following sections we review the pedagogical literature on teaching and learning Chinese words and their pragmatics, noting the methodologies used where indicated. Empirical studies mostly date from the twenty-first century, with more in the CFL context than the CSL context.

2.2.2 Research on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CFL contexts

Empirical studies of teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics in CFL contexts have been conducted, looking into their acquisition of certain speech acts, such as requests, expressing gratitude, and the impact of different factors on developing their pragmatic competence Comparing native Chinese speakers and intermediate CFL learners' expressions of refusal collected through DCTs, Hong (2011) found that they used apologies or explanations to refuse with similar frequency. However, the CFL learners differed in choosing mitigating strategies such as supportive moves, and how often they used them. In examining the effect of explicit and intensive instruction on CFL learners' ability to make accurate and speedy requests in Chinese, Li S. (2012) found that as far as correct judgments on request forms was concerned, there was no difference between the intensive training group, the regular training group and the control group. The amount of practice did affect the subjects' performance accuracy but not its speed. The follow-up study (Li, S. 2013) showed that four instances of practice were needed for subjects to judge request form correctly and express them accurately, while more than eight instances were needed to produce them fluently. Li, S. and Taguchi (2014) investigated the effects of input-based and output-based practice on developing the accuracy and speed in recognizing and producing L2 Chinese requests. The practice of the input group focused on comprehending the target request forms in context, while that of the output group was required to write out the forms in pinyin. The input group demonstrated a stronger practice effect than the output one in accuracy of recognition. Even if the input group performed better than the output one in terms of recognition speed, the gains in such speed were still very limited. Growing proficiency in Chinese (Wen 2014) was found to improve

beginning CFL learners' replies to a written DCT about making requests, both in terms of linguistic forms and strategies. As far as advanced CFL learners' learning Chinese expressions of gratitude is concerned, no significant difference between explicit and implicit instruction was found through a written DCT and post-structured interviews (Yang 2014), possibly because these expressions were relatively easy to acquire.

Researchers have also looked into the factors affecting CFL learners' pragmatic development for those studying abroad and for heritage learners. Studying abroad in CSL settings can facilitate the acquisition of different Chinese pragmatic features (Winke & Teng 2010), particularly speech acts (Zhang & Yu 2008, Jin 2012; Li 2014) and formulaic expressions (Taguchi, Li & Liu 2013), because of more exposure to Chinese pragmatics in such settings. CFL learners of different proficiency levels (from beginning to advanced), different study periods (from 8 weeks to one semester) all gained in pragmatic competence, whatever their location of study or the nature of their study abroad program. But the research showed that heritage CFL learners were at an advantage relative to non-heritage ones in their pragmatic knowledge. Using a written DCT, Hong (1997) found heritage learners were better in making their intentions of request understood, and producing pragmatically acceptable requests. By using a listening test delivered by computer, Taguchi, Li and Liu (2013) found that heritage learners were better than non-heritage ones in both comprehending conventional and unconventional conversational implicatures. The better performance of heritage learners in both studies is probably because of their greater familiarity with Chinese sociocultural practices.

2.2.3 Summary on teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics

This review of the research on learning Chinese pragmatics in CSL and CFL contexts shows several aspects to be further explored. To begin with, research needs to be directed to scope what CSL and CFL pragmatic knowledge or competence is needed in those different settings. Pragmatically loaded Chinese linguistic structures—words and constructions that support and enhance L2 Chinese learners' pragmatic development – need to be identified with the support of corpus evidence. There is urgent need for pedagogy and research on teaching Chinese pragmatics in both CSL and CFL settings to be expanded beyond the conventional speech acts, to include a fuller range of pragmatic functions. These functions would include being polite, and expressing attitudes or feelings, which can be very subtle and thus difficult to acquire. Meanwhile, aside from explicit classroom instruction, it is worthwhile to explore other means of teaching Chinese pragmatics implicitly, like applying modern audiovisual technology, and

integrating Chinese pragmatics into teaching or reference materials, to see how much they can accommodate to support independent learning of pragmatics. This would be all the more important in CFL settings, because of CFL learners' limited exposure to everyday Chinese pragmatics in interaction.

2.3 Research on Motivation for Learning Chinese

The incentives to acquire Chinese have naturally increased and diversified with upsurging interest in learning the language globally. It is therefore of interest to examine what factors motivate people to acquire it as a second language or foreign language, and consider how they may affect the learning process.

Motivation is generally considered a crucial individual difference variable in determining the success of second and foreign language study (e.g. Gardner 1985; Dörnyei 1990, 1994; Hernandez 2006; Campbell & Storch 2011; Cai & Zhu 2012; Sung 2013), particularly in long-term study. Despite this, there has been no general agreement on what motivation consists of and how it should be defined (Ellis 1985: 117; Dörnyei 1998: 117). Thus it is not surprising that this term has been used as a "dustbin—to include a number of possibly distinct concepts, each of which may have different origins and different effects" (McDonough 1981: 143). Motivation theory has taken different forms.

Gardner & Lambert (1959) differentiated between integrative and instrumental motivation from the socio-psychological perspective, which "has influenced virtually all SL [Second Language, and possibly foreign-language]-related research in this area" (Crookes & Schmidt 1991: 471). The two types of motivation have been reported to be significant predictors for L2 language learning achievement. Integrative motivation is linked with factors like "attitudes toward the community of speakers of the target language, with an interest in interacting with such speakers, and with some degree of self-identification with the target language community" (Crookes & Schmidt 1991: 471-472). This view is echoed by Wen (2011: 42) in discussing CFL learners' motivations. He considers that integrative motivation includes learners' identifying themselves emotionally with the target language community, a positive attitude to this community, and the interest in and desire for social interaction with its members. By contrast, instrumental motivation implies that learners want to derive some practical benefits from learning a foreign language (Wen 2011), such as securing a job or expanding the job opportunities. The distinction between integrative and instrumental

motivation can be adopted to interpret most of the research on CFL and CSL motivation discussed below, regardless of whether this distinction is mentioned or not.

The distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation was integrated into social, personal and educational dimensions and developed into a tri-partite motivation model by Dörnyei (1994, 2003) and Dörnyei and Otto (1998). The motivational factors belonging to integrative and instrumental motivation can appear on all the three levels. This model identified three levels in acquiring a foreign language: 1) the language level (e.g. learners' attitude towards the target language, such as the culture it displays, the community where the language is used), 2) the learner level (e.g. affective and cognitive factors of personality); and 3) the learning situation level (various intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors, related to courses, teachers, groups, etc.) This model has been partly adopted in Wen's (2011, 2013) study of CFL learners' motivation.

The L2 Motivation Self Model represents the latest development of motivation theory by Dörnyei (2005, 2009), which consists of L2 Self and Learning Experience. His L2 self combines the motivational factors on the language and learner level, while the latter almost equals those on the learning situation level. The central concept of L2 Self is further divided into the ideal and ought-to self. The former clusters all the attributes a learner desires to possess, while the latter encompasses the attributes the learner should have, in order to meet others' expectations and avoid negative results. The L2 Self projects the learners' image in the future, which guides their present actions to learn a foreign language. The other component of L2 Self system is L2 Learning Experience, i.e. finding motivation in the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. teachers' impact, the peer group, the experience of success) which stimulates and maintains a person's interest in studying a foreign language. Dörnyei's model captures some significant variables in what motivates second language learning, though they are not systematically investigated in other research.

2.3.1 Research on CSL learners' motivation

CSL learners' incentives to learn Chinese have been investigated by Wang et al. (2004) using a questionnaire which identified 5 such motivations or incentives. They included knowing something about China, receiving more education, merging into Chinese culture, finding a job, and travelling, where the first three belong to integrative motivation and the latter two are instrumental. This suggests that these CSL learners in China are more integratively than instrumentally motivated. Their finding is supported by the investigation of Yuan, Shangyun

and Yuan (2008), and those of central Asian learners by Chen (2011), both of whom collected data by questionnaires as well. A study by Ding A (2014a: 28) with over 700 CSL learners from different backgrounds and geographical areas, conducted through emails and questionnaires, again echoes the finding that integrative motivation is the key for CSL learners. She categorised 12 motivation factors into 3 groups: environmental attraction, individual needs, and others' recommendation, as summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: The motivational factors of CSL learners in China (Adapted from Ding A. (2014a:28); translated by AMW)

Environmental attraction	Individual needs	Others' recommendation
To know more about Chinese life, customs and culture (Integrative)	Previous experience left a good impression of China (Integrative)	Recommended by friends and family members
To communicate with Chinese (Integrative)	Family members or friends are in China (so I come to China to communicate with them) (Integrative)	There are academic exchange between the university (of the participants) and a Chinese university
To be immersed in L2 settings (Integrative)	To be more convenient to find a job or start a career by oneself (Instrumental)	
To better learn Chinese socio-economy (Integrative)	Like the history, culture and environment of the city to visit (Integrative)	
To communicate with people from other countries in international cities like Beijing and Shanghai (Integrative)		

For heritage CSL learners in China, the desire to identify themselves with native Chinese—integrative motivation---was an important reason for to learn Chinese (Xia 2003), so as to reclaim their family's Chinese culture. However for CSL learners majoring in medical science, their answers to surveys questions on motivation revealed that it was principally instrumental (Li 2014): their interest in learning Chinese was professional rather than personal. CSL learners' motivation can change in their course of study. In Xiang's (2012) research conducted through combining a questionnaire and interview, the first-year students were more integratively motivated, while their second-year counterparts were more instrumentally motivated.

CSL learners' motivation intensity (learning effort) and the effect of motivation on their sociocultural or academic adaptation have also been investigated. Students' replies to a questionnaire on their motivation indicated that those with high motivation from experience

and intrinsic interest put more effort into their study (Ding, A. 2014b) – cf Dörnyei's L2 Self/Learning Experience. As regards to the effect of CSL learners' motivation on their sociocultural or academic adaptation to studying in China, Yu (2010) found through a survey questionnaire that integrative motivation played a very positive role in their adaptation, which is echoed in the findings of Yu and Downing (2011).

Most of these empirical studies on CSL learners' motivation for acquiring Chinese focus on examining the motivational components itself, rather than its potential effects on their learning Chinese, which is of greater importance for this research.. The questionnaires used provide collective data on motivation, rather than allowing us to see how it may contribute to individual performance and learning profiles. , The researchers' use of different analytical frameworks for motivation makes it difficult to compare their conclusions.

2.3.2 Research on CFL learners' motivation

The motivation of CFL learners in different countries outside China has been the subject of much research. Thompson (1980: 18) held that American CFL learners learned Chinese not only to pick up the language, but also to familiarise themselves with Chinese philosophy, culture, customs, and so on, which implies they are integratively motivated . Though only focusing on American university CFL learners, Roy (1980: 175-176) pointed out they were instrumentally motivated as well, since they also wanted to use Chinese as a tool for practical benefits. His conclusion was echoed by Sun (2011), who examined six students' motivations for learning Chinese in a Canadian university, through in-depth open-ended interviews. Integrative motivational factors— cultural interest, friendship, and communication, and instrumental ones—travel, and job opportunities, were identified. Zheng's (1997: 108-109) and Hosaka's (1998: 107-108) findings also agree with Roy's conclusion on CFL learners' dual motivation. Zheng investigated Japanese university CFL learners' purposes in learning Chinese by means of a questionnaire, finding four types of motivation: curious, random, practical and ideal. These can be categorised into two groups, with practical, random and ideal making up instrumental motivation, and curious belonging to integrative motivation, as is shown in the following table.

Table 2.2: Zheng's (1997) classification of motivational factors reinterpreted in terms of integrative and instrumental motivation

Curious type	Attracted by Chinese culture because of Chinse movies, etc.	Integrative
Random type	Ease in getting credit since both Chinese and Japanese have characters	Instrumental
Practical type	To travel or study in China	Instrumental
Ideal type (Cf. Dörnyei's L2 Self System)	To secure a job in the future	Instrumental

It seems that the Japanese CFL university students were more instrumentally than integratively motivated to learn Chinese. Chen (2013) used a questionnaire to compare the university CFL learners' strategies for learning Chinese in Thailand and America. He found that Thai learned Chinese both out of integrative and instrumental needs, but that their American counterparts regarded learning Chinese more as way to realise personal value, which can be interpreted as they were more integratively motivated to learn Chinese, as did Thompson (1980). Lin's (2013) investigation of the factors motivating 10 non-Asian high school learners of Chinese through interviews and other methods agrees with Chen's conclusion regarding American CFL learners. It was found that they held positive attitudes to Chinese language, Chinese culture and Chinese speakers, and wanted to communicate effectively with Chinese people, which implies they were integratively motivated so as to be a proficient Chinese speaker.

The impact of CFL learners' motivation on their actual learning process has also been researched. Wen (1997) found through a questionnaire that the integratively motivated first-year American university CFL learners received high examination scores in Chinese language, and their second-year counterparts who were willing to work harder and use effective learning strategies attained high scores. Using the same method to investigate the motivation of three groups of American university CFL learners: bilingual, heritage and non-heritage , Wen (2011) found that positive learning attitudes and experience (cf. Dörnyei's L2 Experience) were the first factors to determine how much effort they put into learning Chinese, and whether they would continue to learn it or not. A positive learning attitude can be considered to partly converge with integrative motivation. But Wen found instrumental motivation to be the second powerful predictor for American students to continue learning Chinese.

The relationship between Chinese proficiency level, national background, learning attitude, and motivation was also explored. With different subjects,Wen (2013) reconfirmed

the role of instrumental motivation and positive learning attitude in deciding whether a learner would continue to learn Chinese or not. A questionnaire put to Vietnamese CFL learners showedthat their integrative motivation correlated more with their self-assessed proficiency, and their motivation may change from instrumental to integrative motivation over time (Wang, Wuyu & Fanshi 2013).

The correlation between CFL learners' motivation and other learning resources, such as technology, has been explored by some researchers. Using Dörnyei's L2 Self system mentioned above (see 2.2.1), Cai and Zhu (2012) found the presence of an online learning community impacted positively on university CFL learners' experience of learning and their motivation . This points to the dynamic nature of L2 learning experience and its noticeable changeability even with a short period of intervention.

2.3.3 Summary on motivation for learning Chinese

Most research shows the dual motivation of both CSL and CFL learners. Not surprisingly, CSL learners tend to be more integratively than instrumentally motivated, while their CFL counterparts tend to be more instrumentally than integratively motivated. However heritage learners in both CSL and CFL contexts are more integratively driven to learn Chinese. Both CSL and CFL learners' motivations may change over the time of their Chinese study. Some studies suggest that different types of motivation have different impacts on CSL and CFL learners' academic performances in terms of their examination scores and persistence with their courses, and on their sociocultural or academic adaptation – all of which are relevant to this research investigation.

The review also shows several areas to be explored further. First, studies on the motivation of CSL and CFL learners from other national background, such as Australia, or fields of studies, would be desirable. Secondly, the motivation of heritage or non-heritage CSL/CFL learners can be further investigated to exploit its impact on their L2 Chinese learning. Thirdly, researchers also need to attend to the specific ways, including the use of technology, to stimulate CSL/CFL learners' motivation, and explore its possible effects on their learning of Chinese. More individual analysis of their motivation and incremental proficiency in language learning would be useful.

2.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

With Chinese developing as an international language, ever more learners are motivated to learn it as a second language. It is important to build a body of empirical research on the L2

learning process in CSL and CFL setting, so as to facilitate students' language learning and help cultivate their communicative competence. Ideally, learning Chinese pragmatics would be part of L2 Chinese study from the very beginning, so ways of helping these learners acquire Chinese vocabulary along with its (pragmatic) meaning need to be developed. To become pragmatically competent, learners need resources beyond the limited focus on speech acts. We should explore how to facilitate their acquisition of a wider range of Chinese pragmatics via other methods empirically, including pedagogical materials like textbooks and dictionaries. Investigating the impact of L2 Chinese learners' motivation on their ability to use learning materials independently in acquiring pragmatic skills, would also be of interest. But the fundamental issue is what should constitute the targets in Chinese pragmatics for beginners to acquire, which will become the topic of the following chapter.

Chapter 3: Pragmatic Meaning Relating to the Core Vocabulary for Chinese Learners

3.0 Introduction

3.1 Chinese Words and Language Functions Required of HSK Test-takers

3.2 Frameworks for Analysing Pragmatic Meanings in the Core Chinese Vocabulary

3.3 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Speech Acts

3.4 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Expressing Emphasis, Vagueness, Attitude, and Feeling

3.5 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Chinese Politeness

3.6 Pragmatic Meaning of Five Chinese Particles

3.7 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Interactive Discourse Marker-Pragmatic Markers

3.8 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

3.0 Introduction

Having explored some of the issues that challenge beginning students of Chinese in CSL and CFL settings in Chapter 2 (2.1), we have seen how difficulties inherent in the language itself may impede their appreciation of Chinese pragmatics. We have also observed the limited scope of research on the teaching of pragmatics, and its concentration on a handful of speech acts, despite the breadth of possible topics. The lack of a systematic approach to teaching pragmatics is evident. One way of addressing these problems is to explore ways in which beginning learners can be introduced to a wider range of pragmatic and intercultural knowledge through the foundational vocabulary of the Chinese language curriculum. This possibility has not so far been investigated, and would have the double value of embedding pragmatics in the material for CSL and CFL beginners, and of providing richer linguistic and sociolingustic contexts for learning and acquiring essential Chinese words and constructions. It thus takes us to the second research question (RQ2): How much pragmatics is embedded in core Chinese vocabulary and associated linguistic constructions?

For CFL curriculum design, there is a structured lexical syllabus associated with the *Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (HSK), originally published in 1989, and revised as HSK 2009. HSK

itself is a standardised test conducted throughout the world to assess L2 Chinese learners' competence in communicating with others in their daily life, study and work. Over a million Chinese learners have attempted it (Wang 2014: 43). The first two of the six levels in HSK can be used as a notional core vocabulary for beginners, with its inventory of 300 basic words and constructions, plus a few language "functions" (see below 3.1.2). To develop the pragmatic dimensions of this vocabulary, we need a framework for identifying the numerous pragmatic functions that words can serve, based on a sociolinguistic model like that of Verschueren (see Chapter 1: 1.1.1.3), but adapted to relate to the kinds of pragmatics that can be invested in words, i.e. analogous to those indicated in dictionaries (see above Table 1.1). In what follows, we will review the pragmatic meanings embedded in the vocabulary of the lowest levels of the HSK syllabus, so as to identify and categorize the various pragmatic functions that they can serve: performing speech acts, expressing interpersonal attitudes and emotions, and those with crucial interactive functions.

It needs to be acknowledged that not all the sources cited in discussing and categorizing the pragmatic meanings embedded in the Chinese words or linguistic structures discussed below enjoy equal credence. Examples are cited in many articles (e.g., Shi 2000; Wu 2013; Fang 2014) to support the central argument, with their sources as coined by the authors themselves, collected from real life or others, not clearly specified. Some articles (e.g., Hu 1987, 1999; Mao 2003) remain the author's personal or intuitive interpretation of pragmatically loaded Chinese words or associated linguistic structures, lacking either corpus or empirical evidence. A few articles (e.g., Shao 2008; Li 2009) have resorted to corpus evidence to support the author's view. There are also some adopting empirical evidence (e.g., Zhu 2005; Qian & Yang 2005; Wang 2008; Fu 2010; Li 2010; Nishi 2012) to arrive at arrive at more reliable conclusions. Dictionaries cited, like *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian*, are well acknowledged as authoritative Chinese references (e.g., Zhang 2013), thus lending good support to the individual pragmatic meanings as explained by me.

3.1 Chinese Words and Language Functions Required of HSK Test-takers

3.1.1 The original HSK vocabularies and the new one

The original HSK was first conducted in 1989 (Sun 2007: 134). It comprised three proficiency levels: basic, elementary and intermediate, and advanced. Aside from grammar

and some language functions, it required L2 Chinese learners to grasp over 1000, 3000 and 5000, and 8000 Chinese "*cí* 词 word" respectively ("*Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi*" 2016). The difficulty of HSK is determined to a great extent by the vocabulary required (Zhang & Zhang 2010: 34). The original HSK was criticised for being too difficult for learners at each level (Wang 2014: 46). The new HSK was devised by Beijing Language and Culture University and implemented in 2009 by *Hanban*, the only official Chinese organization for popularising the Chinese language globally. It is comprised of tests for 6 proficiency levels, with vocabulary required by each level listed in Table 3.1. The corresponding proficiency scales of the 6 levels are also included, with their European counterpart, *Common European Framework*, attached for reference.

Table 3.1: Vocabulary required by different proficiency levels of new HSK (2009) and Chinese language proficiency scales, with the *Common European Framework* for reference

HSK	Vocabulary	Chinese language proficiency scales for speakers of other languages	The *Common European Framework* for Languages, CEF
HSK Level 6	5, 000+	Band Five	C2
HSK Level 5	2, 500		C1
HKS Level 4	1, 200	Band Four	B2
HSK Level 3	600	Band Three	B1
HSK Level 2	300	Band Two	A2
HSK Level 1	150	Band One	A1

The table is retrieved, adapted and translated from http://www.hanban.edu.cn/tests/node

_7486. htm. Compared with the vocabulary required by the original HSK, that required by the new HSK syllabus can provide L2 Chinese learners with clear achievable goals, and keep them well motivated in learning Chinese (Zhang & Zhang 2010: 37).

3.1.2 Vocabulary and language functions required by the level 1 and level 2 new HSKs

Core vocabulary. L2 Chinese learners planning to take the new level 1 and 2 HSKs are expected to grasp 150 and 300 "*cí* 词 word" respectively (see Table 3.1), with the 300 including the previous 150. Chinese "*cí* 词" is a rather fuzzy concept (see Chapter 2: 2.1). It has always been difficult to differentiate between Chinese "*cí* 词 word" and "*duǎnyǔ* 短语 phrase" (e.g. Feng 2001: 173; Peng & Ma 2010: 107; Huang & Duanmu 2013: 10). In fact, the new HSK lexical syllabus includes three types of lexical items: "*zì* 字 Chinese character", "*cí* 词 word", and "*duǎnyǔ* 短语 phrase" (Zhang 2015). It marks a great advance in selecting

and grading Chinese words, like including new words or expressions brought by social changes and certain commonly used proper names (Lü 2012: 135-136). The amount of vocabulary required of new HSK takers is in line with the needs of teaching Chinese worldwide (Lü 2012: 134), for both CFL and CSL learners.

Essential language functions. The new Level 1 and 2 HSK syllabuses also require learners to grasp some language functions to help them with communicating in Chinese with their respective basic vocabularies. Level 1 HSK examinees are expected to understand and use some simple Chinese words and sentences to meet their specific communicative needs with 150 Chinese words, l (Confucius Institute Headquarters 2009a: 1). Level 2 language functions are needed to communicate directly on daily topics in simple Chinese with 300 Chinese words (Confucius Institute Headquarters 2009b: 2). In terms of language functions, level 1 new HSK expects Chinese learners to grasp 9 functions (Confucius Institute Headquarters 2009a: 25), while the level 2 syllabus requires them to grasp 13 functions (Confucius Institute Headquarters 2009b: 32). Many of the functions expected at level 1 are expanded at level 2. The language functions required by level 1 and 2 HSKs are summarised in the table below.

Table 3.2: A comparison of language functions required by level 1and 2 2009 HSK syllabus (Translated by the author)

Lanugage functions	Level 1	Level 2
Remain the same	1．Greetings and saying goodbye 2．Introducing oneself 8．Expressing or understanding simple requirements or requests（in terms of study, work, etc.）	1．Greeting and saying goodbye 2．Introducing oneself 8．Expressing or understanding simple requirements or requests（in terms of study, work, etc.）
Expanded	3．Expressing thanks, apology 4．Expressing quantity 5．Expressing time（minute, hour, day, week, date, month, year, etc.） 6．Simple description (weather, location, size, quantity, etc.) 7．Asking and answering simple questions (shopping, transportation, etc.) 9．Expressing simple feelings	3．Expressing thanks, apology and welcome 4．Expressing quantity and order 5．Expressing time（minute, hour, day, week, date, month, year, past, present and future, etc.） 6．Simple description (weather, location, size, quantity, correctness, mood, color, etc.) 7．Asking and answering simple questions (shopping, transportation, seeing a doctor, doing sports, and entertaining, etc.) 9．Expressing simple feelings and viewpoints
Added		10．Asking for opinions 11．Making suggestions 12．Making comparisons 13．Explain reasons

Level 1 language functions include pragmatic functions of performing speech acts, such as greeting and saying goodbye, expressing requests, expressing thanks, and expressing simple feelings. The level 2 ones add speech acts like making suggesting and welcoming to the list of speech acts.

The designers of the Level 1 and 2 new HSK syllabuses have taken L2 Chinese learners' communicative needs into account and expect them to grasp some essential language functions to develop their communicative competence. Table 3.2 thus maps the natural progression of the essential pragmatic knowledge expected of L2 Chinese learners embedded in more or less formulaic expressions. Grasping the pragmatic meanings associated with the core Chinese vocabulary of 300 words and constructions, i.e. their lexical pragmatics, will help improve their communicative competence. But pragmatic meanings can also be attached to the words or constructions signaling a speaker's communicative intention, without adding propositional content to the meaning of an expression (e.g. Fraser 1996: 168; Feng 2008: 1688), for example. in interactive discourse markers. For example, "*wǒ shuō zěnme* 我说怎么 I say why" is a polite reply to others' answering one's question or clarifying one's doubt. Pragmatic discourse markers associated should be acquired as part of L2 Chinese learners' repertoire of pragmatic knowledge as well.

3.2 Frameworks for Analysing Pragmatic Meanings in the Core Chinese Vocabulary

The 300 Chinese words and constructions required at level 2 of the new HSK suggest themselves as vehicles for learning essential pragmatic meanings which can be used to fulfil pragmatic functions in a communicative context (see Chapter 1: 1.4). To discover what kinds of pragmatic meanings are associated with core Chinese vocabulary, a functional classification is needed, based on generic pragmatic concepts in a communicative context (see Chapter 1: 1.1.4). To discover what kinds of pragmatic meanings are associated with core Chinese vocabulary, a functional classification is needed, based on generic pragmatic concepts. It includes speech acts and speech functions discussed by the Anglo-American school of pragmatics (Chapter 1: 1.1-2). It also covers the less direct expressions of pragmatic meaning in personal attitudes and feelings embedded in Verschueren's "mental" world; and interpersonal orientations and interactive strategies associated with his "social" world, both captured in his contextual world of pragmatics (Chapter 1: 1.4), as well as in pedagogical research on Chinese pragmatics (Chapter 2: 2.2).

3.2.1 Functional categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings

A functional categorization of 120 Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meaning is summarised in the diagram below.

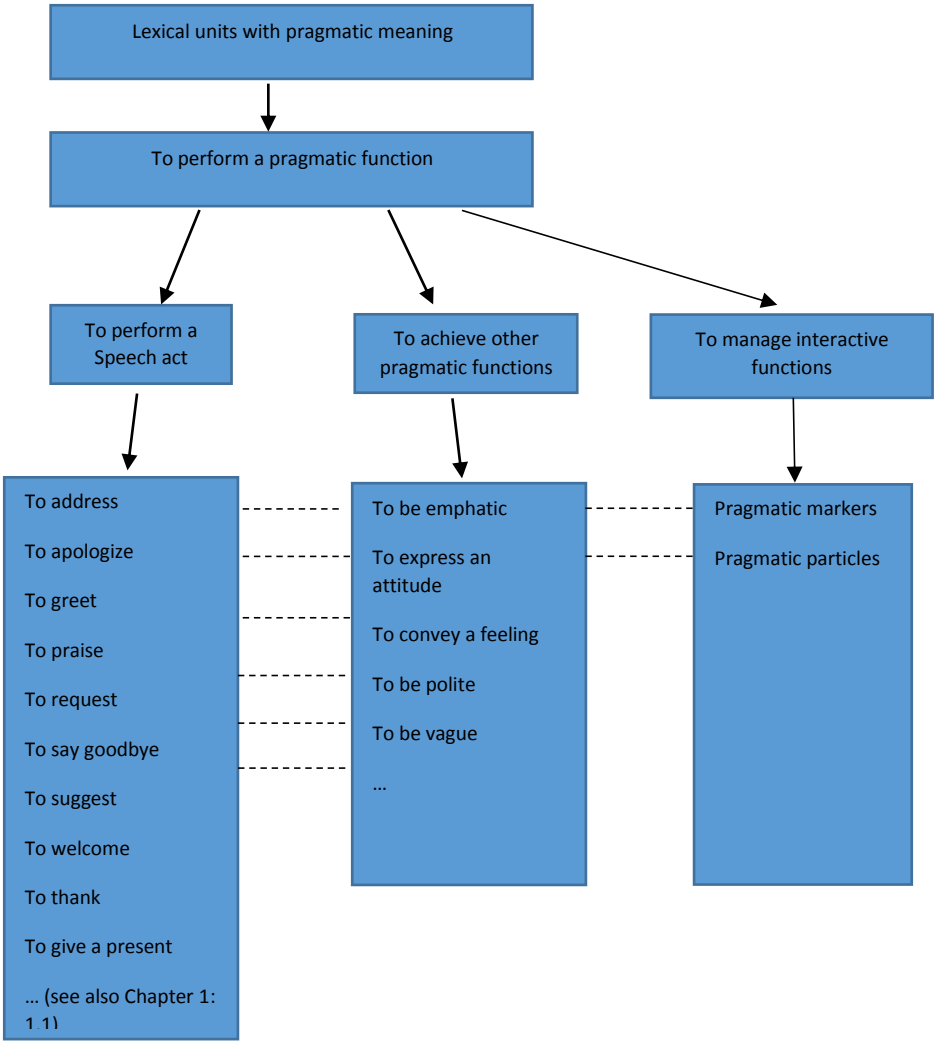

Figure 3.1: Functional classification of Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meaning

In the diagram above, vertical arrows indicate that the more or less conventionalised kinds of pragmatic meaning that can be conveyed in a communicative context. Dotted lines connect speech acts with other pragmatic functions or interactive functions to imply that the same language string can perform different kinds of pragmatic functions simultaneously, as often happens in a communicative context. The Chinese expression "*màn màn chī* 慢慢吃 slow slow eat" can illustrate this. This utterance fulfills two pragmatic functions simultaneously, performing a particular speech act and expressing politeness (Bi 1998: 19). It is used by a

Chinese host/hostess to ask a guest to take time to enjoy food, as a way of expressing his or her hospitality. However, foreign learners of Chinese often take its meaning literally and mistake it for a request to eat slowly (e.g. Chen 2006: 6).

The duality of pragmatic meanings conveyed by Chinese words and constructions means there can be some convergence in classifying them. As in the previous example, a linguistic string is readily classified under the group of expressions for performing speech acts. However, such a string may also convey a certain attitude, feeling or, polite suggestions, as in "*màn màn chī* 慢慢吃 slow slow eat". Speech acts are prioritised over politeness for classification purposes, except when politeness is the dominant function. In addition, Chinese particles need to be separated out for concentrated discussion because they do not add propositional content, but do fulfill different pragmatic functions. The same is true of what are called "pragmatic markers" (Fraser 1996; Feng 2008), whose prime function is the management of interactive discourse.

3.2.2 Structural categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings

In terms of their linguistic structure, Chinese words and constructions will be classified into those that consist of a word, phrase or clause, as is shown in the following diagram.

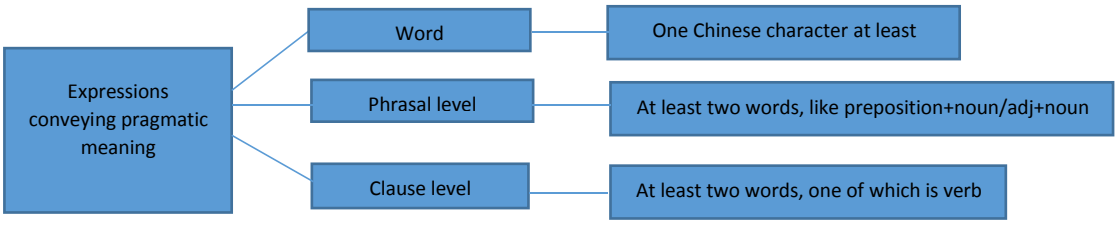

Figure 3.2: Structural categorization for Chinese words and constructions conveying pragmatic meanings

Chinese expressions with pragmatic meaning include a few one-character Chinese words, such as the particle "*ba* 吧", and two-character ones, like "*tóngxué*同学 classmate". The constructions on the phrase level are composed of at least two words or characters, like "*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 good morning" (noun+adjective), "*shénme shíhou … le* 什么时候…了 what time…*particle*" (adjective+noun…*particle*). Those on the clause level comprise at least two words or characters as well, with one of them being a verb, like "*kànkan* 看看 look look", "（*nǐ*） *kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you", "*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*) 你知道（吗/吧）you know

(*particle*/*particle*)". Among these Chinese words and constructions, there are some "lexical chunks that result from ... frequent collocation" (Ellis 2002: 155), used in specific social interactions to perform a pragmatic function. They are "stored and retrieved as a single…unit" (Bardovi-Harlig 2008: 205) and thus work as linguistic formulas. For L2 language learners, formulas like them are important to learn "at any learning stage because they embody the societal knowledge that members of a given speech community share" (House 1996: 226-227). This structural classification will be used to supplement the functional framework in the analysis.

3.2.3 Classification of pragmatic meanings in Chinese core vocabulary

The functional as well as structural classification system presented in 3.2.1 has been applied as a heuristic to the core Chinese vocabulary of new HSK Levels 1 and 2. Among the 300 words, 120 words and their associated constructions are found to carry pragmatic functions in expressing speech acts or other individual functions, like attitudes, feelings, emphasis, vagueness, and Chinese politeness. These will be discussed in the following sections: 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. The pragmatic meaning associated with five Chinese particles is discussed in a separate section 3.6, because they are used in combination with other language structures to perform a certain speech act, express politeness, conveying certain attitude or feeling, and so on. The analysis of pragmatic meaning of pragmatic markers comes as 3.7. The full analysis of the 120 words/constructions with pragmatic meaning is presented in Appendix 1 for the discussion.

3.3 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Speech Acts

L2 Chinese learners need to become aware that by uttering certain Chinese linguistic structures, an action is done or performed (Austin 1962: 5). Such structures can be used to perform direct speech acts, but learners should familiarise themselves with Chinese linguistic structures that perform indirect speech acts as well: "cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another" (Searle 1975: 60). Also according to Searle, the shared background between the speaker and the hearer, plus the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer can ensure the indirect speech act to be conventionally understood as it is desired (Searle 1975: 60-61). For L2 Chinese learners, both the conventional linguistic structures to perform speech acts, and more indirect ways of

expressing pragmatic meaning, are highly important. If different linguistic expressions are used to perform the same speech act, the differences between them need to be understood. The Chinese words or linguistic structures that perform speech acts directly and indirectly are classified and analysed in sections 3.3.1 to 3.3.8 below.

3.3.1 Greetings

The Chinese expressions below can be used to greet others, taking different forms like an interjection, statement or question (Qu & Chen 2001: 119-120). However, if the differences between Chinese and English greetings are not understood, misunderstanding would ensue (Hu 1987: 33). Almost all the greetings are formulaic phrases.

Table 3.3: Chinese words and constructions for greetings

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	… *hǎo ma*?	…好吗	…good+*particle*?	How are things	Greeting/formula
2	（*nǐ*）*chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	(You) eat+*aspect marker+particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula
3	*nǐ*/*nín hǎo*	你/您好	You/(polite) you good	Hello	Greeting/formula
4	*nǐ máng ma*/*máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	You busy+*particle*/busy not busy	How are you	Greeting/formula
5	*nǐmen hao*	你们好	You good	Hello	Greeting/formula
6	*nǐ qù nǎli/'r a*	你去哪里/儿啊	You go where+*particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula
7	*nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng*	你身体怎么样	You body how about	How are you	Greeting/formula
8	*nǐ…zěnmeyàng*	你…怎么样	You how about	How are you	Greeting/formula
9	*wèi*	喂	Hello	Hello	Greeting/formula
10	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Evening good	Good evening	Greeting/formula
11	*xiàwǔ hǎo*	下午好	Afternoon good	Good afternoon	Greeting/formula
12	*zǎo*, *zǎoshang hǎo*	早, 早上好	Early/morning good	Good morning	Greeting/formula

"（*nǐ*）*chī le ma*（你） 吃了吗 (you) eat +*aspect marker+particle*" is a conventional expression for Chinese to greet others. It plays the same function as English greetings like "Hi" or "hello" (e.g. Chen 1992: 26; Tang 1998: 40; Gu 2011: 156). However, people from English-speaking countries often misunderstand it as an invitation for dining together, thus a real question (e.g. Bi 1997a: 15; Deng 1996: 85; Qu & Chen 2001: 118). It should be noted as

well that this greeting is usually used around meal time (e.g. Chen 1992: 26), except the time for breakfast.

Questions like "*nǐ qù nǎli/r a*你去哪里/儿啊? you go where+*particle*?", "*nǐ máng ma*/*máng bù máng?* 你忙吗/忙不忙? you busy+*paticle*/busy not busy?" are Chinese everyday greetings. They may sound nosy to L2 Chinese learners, and be taken as intruding into their privacy (e.g. Chen 1992: 26; Bi 1997a: 15; Wang 1999: 94). The particular activity the party being addressed is involved in at the moment can also be queried as a kind of greeting, though to foreigners it is self-evident and unnecessary to ask about it (e.g. Chen 1992: 26; Gu 2011: 156). This is a typical way for Chinese to show concern to the other party over their job, health, study, and so on, not intended to invade the privacy of the other party (e.g. Hu 1987: 33; Chen 1992: 26). Asking questions like this is the most frequent and typical Chinese greeting in the data they collected on Chinese greetings (Qu & Chen 2001: 120).

Enquiring of the other party or of others about their well-being can be a topic for Chinese greeting, like "*nǐ…zěnmeyàng* 你…怎么样 you…how about". Physical well-being can be the focus (Qu & Chen 2001: 120). This can take the form of "*nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng?* 你身体怎么样? Your body how about?" (Chen 1992: 26). Sometimes the greeting can be extended to the family members, relatives or friends of the addressee (Qu & Chen 2001: 120), which can take the form of "…好吗？…*hǎo ma*?...good+*particle*?". For example, "*nǐ dìdi hǎo ma*? 你弟弟好吗？Your younger brother good+*particle*?". It should be noted that "*nǐ hǎo ma*? 你好吗 you good+*particle*" is a common greeting usually used among acquaintances who have not seen each other for some time rather than strangers (Hu 1999: 13; Zhong 2009).

"*nǐ hǎo* 你好 you good" is the most frequently used Chinese greeting (Huang & Cheng 2014: 23). As is pointed out in section 3.5 below, "*nín* 您" is the polite form of the second person pronoun—"*nǐ* 你", which is usually used to greet people senior in age or status or on more formal occasions (Li 2008: 89). Therefore, one can use "*nín hǎo* 您好 (polite) you good" to be more polite in greeting others. In greeting a group of people, "*nǐmen hǎo* 你们好 you good" can be used.

Even if expressions like "*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 morning good", "*xiàwǔ hǎo* 下午好 afternoon good" and "*wǎnshang hǎo* 晚上好 evening good" are used by people in the press and entertainment, they are not so widely accepted by the general public (e.g. Bi 1997a: 16; Wu & Zhang 2007: 73). The possible explanation for this is that they sound a bit formal. Many people use informal or casual "*zǎo* 早 early" as a morning greeting (Qu & Chen 2001:

119; Wu & Zhang 2007: 73), which can be preceded by different address forms. "*wèi* 喂" is often used to greet others as well (e.g. Zhang 2004: 143; *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1360), including those on the phone.

3.3.2 Saying goodbye

Different Chinese words or linguistic structures commonly adopted to say goodbye to others are summarised in the table below. Again they take the form of formulaic phrases.

Table 3.4: Chinese words and constructions for saying goodbye

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*bú sòng le*	不送了	No see off+ *particle*	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
2	*màn zǒu* （*a*）	慢走（啊）	Slow walk (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
3	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	Tomorrow see	See you tomorrow	Saying goodbye/formula
4	*nǐ máng* （*ba*）	你忙（吧）	You busy (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
5	*nǐ xiān máng*	你先忙	You first busy	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
6	*zàijiàn*	再见	Again see	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula

"*zàijiàn* 再见 again see" and "明天见 *míngtiān jiàn* tomorrow see" are typical formulaic ways for Chinese to say goodbye to others (e.g. Qu & Chen 2005: 26). Meanwhile, there are other linguistic constructions that conventionally perform the same function in Chinese. "*nǐ máng* （*ba*）你忙（吧） you busy+*particle*" or "*nǐ xiān máng* 你先忙 you first busy" are typical examples as well (Bi 1997c: 37). Such expressions can be misunderstood by L2 Chinese learners, since the speaker attributes the reason for leaving to the other party rather than himself or herself. This is to show concern to the other party, not to tell a lie (ibid.: 38). One common way said to the other party who is leaving is "*màn zǒu* （*a*） 慢走（啊）slow walk+ *particle*". The party being addressed may misunderstand it as a request for them to walk slowly (e.g. Lü & Lu 1993: 43; Li 2008: 85; Gu 2011: 159). However, this is again to show the consideration to the other party. L2 Chinese learners cannot deduce its meaning from the components constituting such structures (Zhang 2015: 7). Therefore, the pragmatic meaning of saying goodbye conveyed by such structures needs to be explained to them. Similar comments apply to "*bú sòng le* 不送了 no see off +*particle*", which is said by the party leaving to the other party to show his/her concern (Li 2003: 80; Wang 2007: 59).

3.3.3 Expressing gratitude and replying to thanks given

Chinese do not thank others as often as their English counterparts do (e.g. Zhang & Wang 2004: 49; Li 2005: 94). There are nevertheless several different forms that are conventionally used by Chinese to express their thanks, and reply to others' thanks, as shown in the following table.

Table 3.5: Chinese words and constructions for expressing gratitude or replying to thanks given

No.	Pinyin transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	Thank	Thanks	Expressing thanks/formula
2	*bú kèqì/yòng xiè*	不客气/用谢	Not polite/need thank	You are welcome	Reply to thanks/formula
3	*méi guānxi/shén me/shì'（r）*	没关系/什么/事（儿）	No relation/what/thing	You are welcome/don't mention it	Reply to thanks/formula

"*xièxie* （…）谢谢（…） Thank (…)" is one common way for Chinese to convey their gratitude. To show the profusion of one's gratitude, "*xièxie* 谢谢 thank" can be duplicated (Wu 2013: 93), which sounds politer as well. Meanwhile, it should be noted that Chinese gratitude usually targets the person rather than the favour the other party has done (e.g. Huang 2013: 38) by focusing on the other party. Chinese people usually do not thank their family members (Chen 1992: 26; Zhang & Wang 2004: 46) or close relatives (Liu 2000: 41), since they consider the relationship very close and there is no need to do this. If one wants to be more polite, expressions like "*xièxie nín* 谢谢您 thank (*polite*) you", "*tài xièxie nín le* 太谢谢您了 too thank (*polite*) you+*particle*" could be used. At the same time, if a speaker wants to be more casual, "*duō xiè* （*le*）多谢 （了）many thanks (+*particle*)" (Li 2004: 93; Chu & Liu 2014: 56) and "*xiè le* 谢了 thanks" can be used. In replying to one's thanks, expressions like "*bú kèqì/yòng xiè*不客气/用谢 not polite/need thank", "*méiguānxi/shénme* 没关系/什么 No relation/what" (e.g., Nishi 2012: 92, Wang 2008: 90), "*méi shì'r* 没事儿 no thing" (e.g. Nishi 2012: 92; Chu & Liu 2014: 55) and so on, are often used.

3.3.4 Apologising and replying to others' apology

If one has done something wrong or has inconvenienced others, s/he has to apologise. Chinese words and constructions used as formulae for making or replying to an apology are presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Chinese words and constructions for apologising or replying to an apology

No	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Sorry	Apology/formula
2	*méiguānxi/shénme/shì'（r）*	没关系/什么/事（儿）	No relation/what/thing	It is nothing/ no worries	Reply to Apology/formula

In Chinese, "*duìbùqǐ*对不起 sorry" is often adopted to apologise for one's wrongdoing (e.g. Hao 2005: 51; Fu 2010: 72). To show depth of one's apology, Chinese adverbs, like "*fēicháng* 非常 very" "*hěn* 很 very" and "*zhēn de* 真的 really", can be added as intensifiers (Fu 2010: 74). To respond to an apology, "*méiguānxi*/*shénme* 没关系/什么" are typical responses (Qian & Yang 2005: 155-156; Sun & Xiao 2010: 52; Fang 2014). But "*méi shì'*（*r*）没事（儿）no thing" is a more casual way to respond to others' apologies (Qian & Yang 2005: 155-156; Fang 2014: 94), and for responding to others' thanks.

3.3.5 Making suggestions

In making suggestions, it is usually important to be polite. Therefore, tag questions and modal particles are incorporated into Chinese suggestions to show politeness. Chinese expressions for making suggestions are summarised in the table below.

Table 3.7: Chinese words and constructions for making suggestions

No.	Pinyin transcription	Chinese	English translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	… *hǎo ma*/*kěyǐ ma?*	…好/可以吗？	…good/Ok.+ *particle*	How about…/Be …OK.	Politeness/suggestion
2	…*zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	…how about	How about…	Politeness/suggestion

Expressions, like "*hǎo*/*kěyǐ ma* 好/可以吗…good/Ok.+*particle*" and "…*zěnmeyàng*? …怎么样? …how about?" (e.g. Ding 2001: 31), can be used to make indirect suggestions. Various constructions can also be adopted for making direct suggestions (Wu 2008: 53-54), such as "*wǒ juéde*… 我觉得…", "*wǒ kàn*...我看…" and "*wǒ xiǎng* …" (Ding 2001: 31). Another is "*qǐng*… 请… please…" which can be used to start a direct suggestion, usually used by someone with more power (Wu 2008: 53).

3.3.6 Making and replying to requests

Factors like power and status, the familiarity between a speaker and a hearer, and the degree of imposition (Sun & Zhang 2008: 111) affect the way that Chinese make a request.

Expressions like those listed in Table 3.8 can be attached to specific requests for something or for information. One does not need to be polite all the time in making or replying to requests, unless the above-mentioned factors call for it in a specific context, such as asking a stranger for something.

Table 3.8: Chinese words and constructions for making and replying to requests

No.	Pinyin transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*bù zhīdào…*	不知道	Not know	I wonder	Request/formula
2	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Excuse me	Request/formula
3	*kéyǐ/néng … ma … hǎo/kéyǐ ma?*	可以/能…吗/…可以/好吗？	Ok./can…*particle*/…Ok./good+*particle*	Can…?/Be…Ok.	Politeness/request
4	*méi（yǒu）wèntí*	没（有）问题	Not (have) problem	No problem	Formula/replying to a request
5	*néng bu néng…?*	能不能…	Can not can …	Can…	Politeness/request
6	*qǐng*	请	Please	Please	Politeness in request
7	*qǐngwèn*	请问	Please ask	Excuse me	Request/formula

A variety of expressions like "*kéyǐ/néng … ma*? …可以/能…吗? Ok./can…*particle*?", "…*kéyǐ/hǎo ma*? …可以/好吗？Ok./good+*particle*", "*néng bu néng*…? 能不能…? Can not can…?" (Zhu 2005: 59-60) and "*bù zhīdào*…不知道… not know…" can be used in indirect requests for something, or for particular information.

"*qǐng* 请 please" can be used on its own when expecting somebody to do something (Lü 1996: 399 cited in Qu & Chen 2001: 25; *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1063). This indicates that the action involved at the moment can be started (Qu & Chen 2001: 25), which is usually clarified by the context. For example, asking somebody to go into a place ahead of you or enjoy food can simply be expressed as "*qǐng* 请 please". According to Li (2004: 42-45), "*qǐng* 请" usually targets the hearer, making a request to respect his/her face, and is just a component to show politeness.

According to Li (2010: 45), CFL learners used few supporting expressions in making a request, and relied on a limited number of expressions, like "*duìbùqǐ*对不起 sorry", "*qǐngwèn* 请问 please ask", to show politeness in making a request. It should be pointed out that "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 excuse me" can be used together with "*qǐngwèn* 请问 please ask", which makes a request sound politer (Tseng 1996: 99). Upon hearing another person's request, "*méi*（*yǒu*） *wèntí*没（有）问题 not (have) problem" can be a positive reply to it, showing that

the speaker is happy to do the thing requested (Fang 2014: 89). However, Chinese can refuse others vaguely or indirectly by using expressions like "*wǒmen yánjiū yánjiū zài shuō*我们研究研究再说 we research research again say" (Chang 2000: 34) as well.

3.3.7 Pragmatic meaning associated with the terms for addressing others

Address forms are the reflection of customs, habits, traditional culture and the socioeconomic relations of a country (Liu 2003: 136). Addressing others appropriately can create favourable conditions for successful communication and make it move on smoothly (e.g. Ling 1998: 183; Han & Fan 2004: 79). Different address forms, which express the identity of the speaker and hearer is expressed and the implied relationship between them (Levinson 1983: 90), can produce different communicative effects (Liu 2003: 136).

L2 Chinese learners, including those from English-speaking countries, find Chinese address forms much more complicated than those in their mother tongues, thus a big headache for them (Li 2000: 122). They have to choose the appropriate forms according to various factors, such as the addressee's age, rank, social status, seniority in the hierarchy of clan, the closeness of the relationship between them, and the communicative occasions (Li 2000: 125). It could be argued that the different Chinese address forms are imbued with different conventionalised pragmatic meanings, which are part of the Chinese language system. According to Zhu (1994 cited in Zhang & Chen 2007: 42), such address forms can be classified into those for addressing one's family members, both family and non-family members, names, general ones, positional and professional titles and zero ones. Different names can be used in addressing others, using full name, nickname, pet name, prefix "*lǎo*/*xiǎo*/*dà*老/小/大 old /little/big"+ one's surname. In discussing the pragmatic meaning associated with the address forms below, Zhu's classification will be followed.

3.3.7.1 Terms for addressing one's family members

Various forms can be adopted to address one's parents, spouses or siblings, which are presented in the table below.

Table 3.9: Terms for addressing one's family members

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*bà*（*ba*）	爸（爸）	Father	Dad	Addressing one's father
2	*dìdi*	弟弟	Younger brother	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger brother, but for talking about him
3	*érzi*	儿子	Son	Given name	Not used for addressing one's son
4	*gē*（*ge*）	哥（哥）	Elder brother	Given name	Addressing one's elder brother
5	*jiě*（*jie*）	姐（姐）	Elder sister	Given name	Addressing one's elder sister
6	*mā*（*ma*）	妈（妈）	Mother	Mom	Addressing one's mother
7	*mèimei*	妹妹	Younger sister	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger sister, but for talking about her
8	*qīzi*	妻子	Wife	Wife	Referring to one's wife in introducing
9	*xiānsheng*	先生	husband	Husband	Referring to one's husband in introducing
10	*zhàngfu*	丈夫	husband	Husband	Referring to one's husband in introducing

The terms for addressing one's parents: "*bà*（*ba*）爸（爸）father" and "*mā*（*ma*）妈（妈）mother", are used to address one's father and mother respectively (Yao 1995: 94; Ling 1998: 184, 2008: 41). In addressing one's elder brother or sister, "*gē*（*ge*） 哥（哥） elder brother" and "*jiě*（*jie*） 姐（姐） elder sister" can be adopted (Yao 1995: 94; Ling 1998: 184, 2008: 41; Guo & Liang 2008: 118). In the Chinese mainland "*qīzi* 妻子 wife" and "*zhàngfu* 丈夫 husband" are often used to refer to one's spouse on formal occasions, while overseas Chinese often introduce one's husband as "*xiānsheng* 先生" (Chen 1990: 20). However, "*érzi* 儿子 son", "*dìdi* 弟弟 younger brother" and "*mèimei* 妹妹 younger sister" are usually not used when addressing them (Yao 1995: 94; Ling 1998: 184, 2008: 42; Tang & Liu 2004: 13). According to Gu (1992:14), addressing one's son or younger siblings in this way would go against the principle of self-denigration, and is thus deemed impolite in Chinese culture.

3.3.7.2 Terms for addressing both family members and non-family members

The term "*háizi*孩子 child" can be used to address one's child affectionately (Ning & Montanaro 2012: 121), and is also used for a child belonging to others. However, it should be

noted that the addresser should be an adult or someone a great deal older. Otherwise it will be inappropriate. Its plural form—"*háizǐ men* 孩子们 children", can be used to address a group of kids affectionately (Ling 2008: 42).

3.3.7.3 Terms used as general address forms

Some Chinese lexical items can be used to address others in a general way, summarised in the Table 3. 10.

Table 3.10: Terms used as general address forms

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	…*tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate…	Hi	Politeness/address
2	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	Hi	Politeness/address
3	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmates	Everyone	Politeness/address
4	….*xiānsheng*	…先生	… gentleman	Mr.	Politeness/address
5	*xiānsheng*	先生	Sir.	Sir.	Politeness/address
6	…*xiáojiě*	… 小姐	… Miss	Miss…	Politeness/address
7	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	Miss	Politeness/address
8	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	Little friend	Dear	Feeling/address
9	…*jiě*	…姐	…elder sister	Sister	Politeness/address
10	… *gē*	…哥	…elder brother	Buddy	Politeness/address

The term "*tóngxué*同学 classmate" can be used to address fellow students politely (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1307, or by teachers or strangers. An individual student's full name can be added before it. In addressing a group of students, "*tóngxué men* 同学们 classmate+plural form marker" can be used (Lei 1995: 7; Xu 1996: 30). To address an unknown child, "*xiǎo péngyou* 小朋友", which literally means "little friend", is used affectionately (Chen 1990: 23; Li 1997: 95).

The terms "*xiānsheng* 先生 Sir." and "*xiáojiě*小姐 Miss" are the most widely Chinese social forms of address (Cui 1996: 39). "*xiānsheng* 先生" is usually used to politely address intellectuals and male adults with certain social status (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1408). The addressee's surname can precede it. As for "*xiáojiě*小姐 Miss", it was used to refer to an unmarried lady from 1910s and then extended to refer to a lady regardless of her marital status (Liu 2002: 158). Her surname can also be used together with it. It has since developed the derogatory connotation of referring to those who are engaged in prostitution or sexual

business (e.g. Cui 1996: 39; Liu 2002: 159), from the late 1980s or early 1990s. Yet still it is the dominant form to address a lady politely (Ren & Liang 2009), even if some people may be offended to be addressed in this way. The addressee's surname can also be placed before "*gē* 哥 elder brother" and "*jiě*姐 elder sister", to address a man or woman slightly older than oneself in a polite as well as affectionate manner.

3.3.7.4 Names

A person's name can be used to address him/her. Chinese names usually do not have middle names but comprise surnames and given ones. Full names cannot be used to address one's seniors, only someone about one's age or younger. Addressing others only by given names may convey unwanted closeness, particularly for people of different gender (e.g. Cui 1996: 43; Ling 2008: 42). Before a person's surname "*xiǎo* 小 little" can be used as a prefix (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1431), to show the speaker's affection towards the addressee (e.g. Cui 1996: 44; Han 2001: 72). It is usually used by an elder person to address a young adult.

3.3.7.5 Positional or professional titles

Chinese positional or professional titles can also be used to address another person, as the table below shows.

Table 3.11: Positional or professional titles

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Server	Sir./Ms.	Politeness/address
2	… *lǎoshī*	…老师	…teacher	Given name	Politeness/address
3	*lǎoshī*	老师	Teacher	Given name	Politeness/address
4	*yīshēng*	医生	Doctor	Dr….	Politeness/address

The title "*fúwùyuán* 服务员" can be used a general polite address (Ling 2008: 42) for those involved in service industries. It should be noted that its denotation is wider than its English translation equivalent—"waiter". According to *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* (2012: 399), it can refer to those who work in restaurants, hotels and other fields. The same address form is used for females and males. The title "*lǎoshī*老师" is used as a polite address for those engaged in teaching (e.g. Liu 2003: 138-139; He 2005: 316), and the surname of the addressee can be placed before it as part of the address form. For an unknown teacher, just "*lǎoshī*老师" can be used. However, for a teacher you are already familiar with, the surname must be added before

it to be polite (Liu & Tian 1999: 88). In a school, it has become also an address form not just confined to those who are engaged in teaching, but extended to cover those who are there in an auxiliary role, e.g. secretaries (Liu 2003: 137). Its usage as a general polite address form has been extended further to include those who work in publishing and literary and artistic fields (e.g. Huang 1988: 103-104; Chen 1990: 23; Wang & Yang 2005: 94-95). The title "*yīshēng* 医生" can be used to politely address a doctor in Chinese (Cui 1996: 40; Liu 2003: 138).

3.3.8 Other specialised speech acts

Set linguistic expressions are used to perform various specialised speech acts, summarised in the table below.

Table 3.12: Chinese words or linguistic structures for performing other speech acts

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	*Literal translation*	*Free translation*	Pragmatic meaning
1	*bié…*	别…	Not	Do not…	Advising/forbidding
2	*bù le*	不了	No+*particle*	No, no	Politeness/refusal
3	*bú yào*	不要…	No need…	Do not	Advising/forbidding
4	*děi*	得	Have to	Have to	Command
5	*duì, …*	对, …	Right	Right	Agreement/confirmation
6	*hǎo （de）*	好（的）	Good (*particle*)	Right	Agreement/formula
7	*jiào*	叫	Call	Order/require	Command
8	*kàn nǐ shuō de*	看你说的	Look you say+*particle*	What are you saying	Disagreement/formula
9	*nǎ'r lái de…*	哪儿来的…	Where come+*particle*	How come…	Refusal/attitude
10	*shì….*	是…	Be…	Yes	Agreement/confirmation
11	*…shì…wèntí*	…是…问题	…be… problem	…be something…	Criticism
12	（*wǒ*）*xīwàng…*	（我）希望…	(I) hope.	I hope	Criticism

The negative form "*bié*…别… Not…" can be used to stop someone from doing something, or forbid others to do something (Pan 2010: 63; *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 88). Likewise "*bú yào* 不要… not need" is used in this way (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 88, 112). When a person declines another's invitation, the way to reply is: "*bù* 不 No"+verb+ "*le* 了 *particle*", which is much more indirect and polite than the straight combination of "*bù* 不 No" and the verb (Deng 1996: 86; Hu 2003: 101, 2008: 21). Using "*bù* 不 No" plus a Chinese verb implies a strong direct refusal (Tang 2004: 50). In refusing others, the verb in "'*bù* 不 no'+verb+ '*le*

了 *particle*'" can be omitted. The phrase "*bù le* 不了 no" is still a polite rejection of others' invitation, which is mostly used in spoken contexts (Hu 2003: 101, 2008: 21).

The expression "*děi* 得 have to" makes it necessary to do something out of obligation or requirement (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 273). When used with the second person pronoun in Chinese, it implies that the speaker is giving an order or command. The expression "*hǎo* （*de*） 好（的）" can indicate the agreement to others' request or, invitation (Guo 2000: 106; Zhang 2011: 49; *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 517). According to *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* (2012: 654), "*jiào* 叫" can mean "order" as well, used in the construction of "…make…do something" (Qi 2010: 67; Deng 2012: 60). However, it needs to be noted that the verb requires the speaker to have the right status to use it. It is inappropriate for someone junior in age or status to direct it towards someone who is senior in age or status, since it shows strong personal feelings (Deng 2012: 64-66). The phrase "*kàn nǐ shuō de* 看你说的 look you say+*particle*" is used to show one's disagreement (Zhou 2005: 38), while "*nǎ'r lái de*...哪儿来的… where come+*particle*…" conveys a strong tone of refusal, implying that it is impossible for the party involved to have something (Ren 1994: 80). To express agreement or confirmation of something, "*duì*对 right" and "*shì* 是 be" are used (e.g. Zhou 2005: 36; Zhang 2011: 49). The construction "…*shì*…*wèntí*是…的问题 …be…problem" is used for criticising somebody (Zhu 2004: 99). An alternative expression "（*wǒ*） *xīwàng*…（我）希望 (I) hope" is a way to criticise somebody indirectly (e.g. Chang 2000: 34; Zhu 2004: 99).

3.4 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Expressing Emphasis, Vagueness, Attitude, and Feeling

3.4.1 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing emphasis

Chinese words like "*jiù*就 exactly", "*shì*是 be" and "*zhēn* 真 real" can help convey the pragmatic meaning of emphasis. The sense "h" of "*jiù*就 exactly" in *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* (2012: 697) is to give emphasis, like in the following example: "*nà jiù shì tā jiā*那～是他的家 That exactly is his home". Other researchers (e.g. Wang 1998: 128; Huang 2009: 54) have also commented on this usage. The verb "*shì* 是 be" can also be used to convey a speaker's emphasis (Zhang 2007: 98; Xie 2012; He & Hua 2013: 55-56), thus highlighting the piece of information a speaker wants to convey. Meanwhile "*zhēn* 真 real", as its third sense and

examples show (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 1652), is used to emphasise a degree of comparison, which is usually used to modify adjectives (e.g. Liu 2004: 99; Fang 2012: 98).

3.4.2 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing vagueness

Speakers may choose to express themselves vaguely, to verbalise thoughts that are not clearly defined (e.g. Allot 2010: 194). Chinese linguistic structures can be adopted to indicate a weakened commitment from the speaker's perspective (ibid.: 85), thus to achieve a kind of vagueness. The pragmatic meaning like this can be conveyed by "*kěnéng* 可能 possible", since it indicates something is not so certain (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 734). It can also be used to show a speaker is not so confident about it themselves (e.g. Hu 2014: 59; Zhou & Zeng 2015: 119), indicating the speaker's weakened commitment to the truthfulness of a proposition expressed. When "*hěn* 很 very" is added, it shows the speaker is more certain about it (Li 2012: 86).

3.4.3 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing personal and interpersonal attitude

An attitude can be part of the conventionalised pragmatic meaning integrated into Chinese linguistic constructions. If a linguistic construction conventionally conveys a certain attitude, positive or negative, learners of Chinese need to know about it. In this way, they can pay heed to the built-in attitude as listeners, and avoid miscommunication when using the pragmatic construction themselves. Chinese words or linguistic constructions from the core vocabulary that express an attitude are shown in the table below.

Table 3.13: Chinese words or linguistic structures expressing an attitude

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*bié shì*	别是	Not be	Is is possible that…	Attitude of surprise
2	*…bù …*	…不…	…not…	…not…	Attitude of reluctance
3	*bù zěnmeyàng*	不怎么样	Not how about	Not so good	Attitude of contempt
4	*…cóng nǎr lái de*	…从哪儿来的	…from where com+*particle*	Where did …get…	Attitude of suspicion
5	*dà … de*	大…的	Big… *particle*	So…	Attitude of disagreement
6	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Can speak	Pay lip-service	Satirical attitude
7	（*nǐ*）*mǎi bù mǎi*	（你）买不买	You buy or not buy	Do not you want to buy	Attitude of impatience
8	*…shénme… a*	…什么…啊	…what… *particle*	What is the point of	Attitude of disagreement
9	*shì*	是	Be	Even if …be…	Attitude of concession

The expression "*bié shì* 别是 not be" is used to imply an assumption, usually that the thing predicted is not something that one wishes to happen (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 88). When "*bù*不 not" is used to negate a present or future action, it shows the unwillingness of the person to be involved (e.g. Li 1981: 23; Wang 2000: 35); Xu 2009: 84). If someone is providing his/her opinion of something, the combination of "*bù*不 not" and "*zěnmeyàng*怎么样 how about" carries the overtone of disparagement, which often implies the speaker considers something barely passable (Wang 2013: 316). Thus the tone implied in this expression needs to be carefully managed.

When somebody utters "…*nǎ'r lái de*? …哪儿来的 …? …where come+*particle*?", s/he is not really asking the origin of something. Instead it shows that s/he has become suspicious of or dissatisfied with something (Ren 1994: 80; Chen 2010: 28). In "*dà … de* 大…的 big…*particle*", words like time, season, holiday can be filled into the omitted part to show the speaker's dissatisfaction, implying that the person concerned is not supposed to be engaged in a certain action at the time indicated (e.g. Guo 2007: 22; Wu 2007: 63; Gui 2014). Likewise there are special implications when the Chinese words "*huì* 会 can" and "*shuōhuà* 说话 speak" are combined into "*huì shuōhuà* 会说话". Literally it means "can speak", which on the surface, seems to be a way of praising somebody who is good at expressing himself/herself. However, in its Chinese context, it carries the connotation that the person concerned is only good at

paying lip-service, thus giving it a derogatory sense (Zhang 2000: 53). Hence it is used neither for self-praising nor for praising others.

The construction "（*nǐ*） *mǎi bù mǎi* （你）买不买 (you) buy not buy" can be used when you want to know if the person you are shopping with intends to buy something or not. However, when it is used by a seller to a potential buyer, it may imply impatience (e.g. Su 1991: 18; Cheng 1995: 29). Putting "*shénme* 什么 what" in front of a noun, as in the construction "*yǒu shénme yòng a* 有什么用啊 have what use+*particle*" conveys very strong tone of disagreement (Shao & Zhao 1989: 35-36; Wang & Wang 2003: 23). According to *Xiandai Hanyu Cidan* (2012: 1191), "*shì* 是 be" must be stressed to show a speaker is absolutely sure about something. Meanwhile, the word can also be used between two similar nouns, adjectives or verbs, to indicate concession from a speaker (*ibid.*).

3.4.4 Pragmatic meaning associated with expressing feeling

The feelings conveyed by the 120 Chinese words and constructions also makes up part of their pragmatic meaning, as is listed in the following table.

Table 3.14: Chinese words and constructions expressing feeling

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Feeling
1	*duō*	多…	Much/many	How…	Strong feeling
2	*jiù*	就	Already (+*verbal structure*)	So (fast, early,...)	Surprise
3	(*nǐ*) *zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	(You) how+*particle*	What is up/wrong	Surprise
4	*shì ma*	是吗	Be+*particle*	Really	Surprise
5	*yígè huài dōngxi*	一个坏东西	A bad thing	A bad person	Dislike
6	*zhēnde ma*	真的吗	Real+*particle*+*particle*	Really	Surprise

When the adverb "*duō*多 much/many" is placed before another adjective or adverb, it displays the speaker's strong feeling (Du 2004: 55), indicating the purpose of suggesting, persuading, blaming and so on (Ren 1994: 80). When "*jiù*就" is used to modify an action happened in the past, it shows the speaker considers the timing of the action earlier than his/her expectation (e.g. Zhang 1999: 72; Chen 2005: 18; He 2014: 36). When "(*nǐ*) *zěnme* 怎么 (you) why" is used to ask reasons for something, it usually shows the speaker's surprise (e.g. Liu 1985: 130;

Deng 2011: 44; Ying 2014: 48). It usually needs to be followed by particles like "*le* 了" (Ying 2014: 48) to show the speaker's surprise (Xiao 2009: 47-48).

The particle "*ma* 吗" is put at the end of a sentence to form a question (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 865). According to Peng (2006: 4-5), when it is used at the end of a Chinese sentence to form a yes-no question, two types of "*ma* 吗" should be distinguished: the low-flat tone indicating a neutral tone yes-no question, the high-rise one showing the speaker's surprise, suspicion and so on. This accounts for the implied meanings of two constructions below: "*shì ma*是吗" and "*zhēnde ma* 真的吗". Both can be used as the reply to another person's utterance, to show the speaker's surprise or disbelief (Li 2011: 148).

The expression "*dōngxi* 东西 thing" is usually not used to refer to person. However, when used with an adjective is attached to it, it shows the speaker's positive or negative feeling (Zeng 2010: 69; Ma 2012: 102). For example, "*xiǎo dōngxī* 小东西 little thing" can often be used to address a kid with affection (Wu 1998: 31), while "*huài dōngxi* 坏东西 bad thing" conveys strong dislike towards the addressee.

3.5 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Chinese Politeness

Linguistic expressions conveying pragmatic meaning relating to the dimension of Chinese politeness are listed in Table 3.15. As has been pointed out in section 3.2.1, if politeness is the dominant pragmatic function fulfilled by some Chinese expressions, it will be foregrounded.

Table 3.15: Chinese words and constructions conveying politeness

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*guì xìng*	贵姓	honorific surname	May I have your name	Politeness in asking names/formula
2	*kànkan*	看看	Look look	Have a look	Politeness in tenor
3	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Slow slow eat	Take your time in enjoying the food	Politeness in food manners/formula
4	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	You how big+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age
5	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	You several year+*particle*	How old are	Politeness in asking age
6	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	You call what name	What is your name	Politeness in asking names
7	*nǐ zhēn/hěn piàoliang*	你真/很漂亮	You really/very beautiful	You are really/so beautiful	Politeness in praising females for appearance
8	nín	您	(Polite) you	You	Politeness in addressing
9	*shénme shíhou … le*	什么时候…了	What time …*particle*	How can I do...	Politeness in refusal
10	*shì…háishì…*	是…还是…	Be…or…	Be…or…	Politeness in offering
11	*xiǎo yìsi*	小意思	Little value	A token of our gratitude	Politeness in presenting a gift/formula
12	*zài …zhe…ne*	在…（着）…呢	(At)...*progressive marker…particle*	Be+verb+ing	Politeness in replying to others

The construction "*kànkàn* 看看 look look" illustrates the pragmatic meaning conveyed by reduplicating a Chinese verb. Reduplicated Chinese verbs basically imply a short duration and small scale of action (e.g. Zhu 1998: 378; Wang & Zhang 2009: 52), indicating a relaxing tone (Xing 2000: 428). When such reduplication appears in an imperative, like a request, it can soften its tone and make it more polite (Liu 1983 cited in Fan & Bai 2009: 68; Dai 2000: 18). As noted earlier, "*màn màn chī* 慢慢吃 slow slow eat" is used by a Chinese host/hostess to ask a guest politely to take his or her time to enjoy food (see 3.2.1).

Chinese politeness is also integrated into the linguistic structures for asking a person's age. Age is not regarded as something so private in Chinese culture. To ask a child his/her age, "*nǐ jǐ suì le?* 你几岁了? you several year+*particle*" can be used (e.g., Cui 1980: 20; Zhang

2005: 64). But "*nǐ duō dà le?*你多大了? You how big+*particle*" is usually used as a casual way for senior people to ask junior ones their age or between people of similar age. The addressee's age is usually above ten (Cui 1980: 20). It would be considered rather inappropriate or impolite to use either of the two expressions to ask the age of a senior person.

In addressing others, the Chinese second person pronoun "*nǐ*你 you" has a politer form: "*nín* 您" (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 951), which can be combined with other Chinese words or linguistic structures to convey politeness. In asking another person's name, Chinese deem it politer to ask one's surname rather than full name upon first meeting. So "*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 (polite) you honorific surname" is often adopted to show a speaker's politeness (Bi 1997b: 29). It is polite for the hearer to reply modestly by uttering "*wǒ xìng*…我姓…I surname…" (ibid.). This agrees with Chinese politeness of degrading oneself and elevating other (Gu 1990: 246, 1992: 11). However, if a speaker considers there is no need to be so polite, as in the case of two persons of similar age or when the communicative setting is not so formal, then "*nǐguì xìng*你贵姓 you honourable surname" or "*nǐ xìng shén me* 你姓什么 You surname what" can also be adopted. In Chinese, you can also ask another person's name directly: "*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi* 你叫什么名字 You call what name", however this is only used by an adult talking to a child or among youngsters (Liu 2000: 95). It would be considered impolite for a junior person to ask a senior person his or her name this way.

The phrase "*nǐ zhēn*/*hěn piàoliang* 你真/很漂亮 you really/very beautiful" can be used to praise a female's appearance. However, praising a Chinese lady, particularly a stranger, for her beauty by a male would be considered impolite (Chen 1992: 27; Bi 1997a: 16; Liu 2000: 39), since the hearer may question the speaker' motive.

The expression "*shénme shíhou … le?* 什么时候…了? What time …*particle*" may be taken by L2 Chinese learners as a way to enquire about the time when something happened. It can be translated literally as "what time…aspect marker?". In fact, by saying it, a speaker is not asking the time of an action, but denying impolitely s/he has done something (e.g. Ren 1994: 80). By contrast, "*shì*…*háishì*…是…还是… be…or…" is a structure that gives a hearer the right to make choices (Wang 1994: 33; Zhang 2009: 75). Speakers tend to use this when talking to someone who is senior in status, age or social rank, so as to give them the opportunity to decide the matter, thus sounding more polite (Ying 2013: 73).

In presenting a gift to others, Chinese tend to understate its value, in accordance with Chinese negative politeness. Expressions like "*xiǎo yìsi* 小意思 little value" imply that

Chinese think the gift is not enough to express one's respect (Bi 1998: 20). This is again influenced by Chinese politeness of denigrating oneself (Gu 1990: 246, 1992: 11), including the things and people related to oneself (Chen 1992: 26).

When asked what you are doing at the moment, replying with the structure "*zài*…（*zhe*）… *ne* 在…（着）…呢…at…(*progressive marker*)…*particle*" appears polite (Qu 1988: 163), since it sounds as if the speaker invites conversation (Chu 1991: 25). Alternatively, "在…（着） at … *progressive marker*" indicates an action is going on (e.g. Chen 1999: 10; Yang 2013: 58) at the time specified. With the particle "*ne* 呢" and progress marker "*zhe* 着" omitted, the reply would sound quite impolite, since it may make the hearer feel you do not like being troubled or asked.

3.6 Pragmatic Meaning of Five Chinese Particles

Chinese particles often serve pragmatic functions, thus they can be regarded as a yardstick for L2 Chinese learners' pragmatic competence (Taguchi 2015b: 13). However, what the particles convey is non-propositional. They are usually attached to freely constructed utterances, i.e. non-formulaic expression, and are therefore more difficult for learners to know how and when to apply. For level 1 and 2 HSK takers, the following five particles need to be grasped, with their pragmatic meanings presented in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16: Pragmatic meaning of five Chinese particles

No.	Chinese	Pinyin transcription	Pragmatic meaning
1.	吧	*ba*	Suggesting, requesting politely; Asking politely and expecting confirmation; showing uncertainty
2.	了	*le*	Stopping someone from; hurrying someone to do something; Softening the tone of rejection
3.	吗	*ma*	Emphasising; drawing attention; showing different attitudes, feelings and intentions
4.	呢	*ne*	Emphasising; reminding a hearer to pay attention
5.	一下	*yíxià*	Softening the tone of request; indicating the casual attitude to an activity; reducing the value of something offered; lessening the severity of the hearer's mistake

The particle "*ba* 吧" is one of the few Chinese particles to help convey tones, and performs various functions. It can be used at the end of a sentence to suggest, propose or request politely (e.g. Xu 1998a: 28). Meanwhile, it can be used to ask politely and expect confirmation from the hearer (ibid.), or to show the speaker's uncertainty (e.g. *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 22). All the functions center on the speaker's expressing uncertainty about what s/he utters (Xu 2003: 143; Qu & Li 2004: 1), thus demanding the confirmation from the hearer.

The particle "*le* 了" is an aspect marker usually used at the end of a sentence to indicate the completion of an action or change (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 784). It can also be used in the middle of a sentence where there is a pause or at the end of a sentence to perform two functions: stopping someone from doing something or hurrying someone to do something (ibid.). It can be used to soften the tone of the rejection of an offer or invitation, thus being more polite (Chen 1979: 42; Deng 1996: 86) (see "*bù le* 不了 no+*particle*" in 3.3.8).

The particle "*ma* 吗" is usually added to a declarative sentence to turn it into a question. Apart from this grammatical function, it can be used in rhetorical questions for emphasizing, expressing different feelings, attitudes or intentions (Xu 1998a: 30). It can also appear in the middle of a sentence to draw the hearer's attention.

The particle "*ne* 呢" can be used to serve the grammatical functions of indicating an action is continuing, introducing a topic in the middle of a sentence (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 938), and to indicate a subject has already been mentioned previously (Qu 2008: 17). Like "*ma* 吗", it can also be used in a sentence to emphasise or remind a hearer to pay attention (Xu 1998a: 29).

The particle "*yíxià*一下 one+*measure word*" can be used after a verb to emphasise the short duration of an action or how small it is (Hu 1997: 18), mainly for the purpose of being polite. It can be used as a polite strategy to soften the tone of a request, etc. (Shan & Xiao 2009: 53; Jiang 2012: 1893-1895). It can also be attached to a verb to imply the speaker's casual attitude to something expressed, thus being more polite (Shan & Xiao 2009: 55; Jiang 2012: 1895). When a speaker makes an offer, "*yíxià*（*r*）一下 one+*measure word*" can also appear after a verb to "reduce the value of the offer s/he provides so that the hearer will not feel s/he owes the speaker too much" (Jiang 2012: 1898). In an act like blaming others, "*yíxià*（*r*）一下 one+*measure word*" can help lessen the severity of the hearer's mistake, thus being more polite as well (Jiang 2012: 1899; Shan & Qi 2014: 12).

3.7 Pragmatic Meaning Associated with Interactive Discourse Marker—Pragmatic Markers

As is pointed out in section 3.1.2, some Chinese expressions do not contribute to the propositional content of an expression, but signal a speaker's communicative intention in an interactive discourse. They are usually more formulaic than the Chinese particles in their application. Such structures are classified as "pragmatic markers", and listed in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17: Chinese words or linguistic structures used as pragmatic markers

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning
1	*duì bu duì*	对不对	Correct not correct	Correct	Asking or providing confirmation
2	*duì le*, ….	对了	Correct+ *particle*	By the way	Switching topic
3	*nǎ'r ya*	哪儿呀	Where+*particle*	No	Showing disagreement
4	*nǐ bù zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你不知道（吗/吧）	You not know (*particle/particle*) …	You know	Targeting speaker's words, explaining or providing new information
5	*nǐ hái bié shuō*	你还别说	You still not say	You are right	Showing agreement
6	（*nǐ*） *kàn nǐ*	（你）看你	(You) look you	Look	Showing criticism
7	（*nǐ*）*zhè ge*	（你）这个	(You) this+*measure word*	You	Showing criticism
8	*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你知道（吗/吧）	You know (*particle/particle*)	Don't you know	Drawing attention, seeking agreement
9	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Be not be?	Right	Affirming, drawing attention, and being polite
10	*wèntí shì*…	问题是…	Problem is	The problem is…	Criticising
11	*wǒ de yìsi shì*	我的意思是	My meaning is	I mean	Supplementing, correcting, or emphasizing one's words
12	*wǒ* (*shì*) *shuō*	我是说	I be say	I mean	Supplementing, correcting, or emphasizing one's words
13	*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe*	我说什么来着	I say what come+ *progressive marker*	I said so.	Showing criticism
14	*wǒ shuō zěnme*/*ne*	我说怎么/呢	I say why/*particle*	I see	Polite reply to others' answer/explanation
15	*zài*…*kàn lái*	在…看来	At…look come	In … view	Making personal comment
16	*zhème shuō*	这么说	So speak	*So*	Assuming, concluding

When used as a pragmatic marker, "*duì bu duì*对不对 correct not correct" usually appears at the end of a sentence. It serves different functions, like asking for confirmation or providing confirmation (e.g. Shao 1990: 86; Chen & He 2001: 1455), depending on whether a speaker has authority or not. If the speaker has authority, it will be used for providing confirmation. Otherwise it will be used to ask for confirmation (Chen & He 2001:1454-1455).

The phrase "*duì le* 对了 correct+*particle*" is used to show that a speaker adds something that he/she suddenly thinks of (Liu 2007: 51-52; Li 2010: 121; Luo 2010: 53; Ji 2012: 51). Thus it is used to introduce a new topic, like "by the way" in English. Disagreement with what the other party has said is expressed by "*nǎ'r ya* 哪儿呀 where+*particle*" (Zhou 2005: 38; Yang 2014: 442).

As for "*nǐ bù zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*) 你不知道（吗/吧）you not know+*particle*", when it is used at the beginning of the second speaker's utterance, it is used to make the other party aware that the speaker's utterance is targeting his or her words. When it appears in the middle of a speaker's utterance, it may imply that what he/she says after "*nǐ bù zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*) 你不知道（吗/吧）is just the explanation of what goes before it, or that it provide new information to the hearer (Zhou & Li 2014: 82-84). The expression "*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*) 你知道（吗/吧）you know+ *particle/particle*" can also express more than one pragmatic function, including drawing the hearer's attention to the speaker's words (Liu 2006: 425; Zhang 2008: 88; Shan 2014: 64, and seeking agreement from the hearer (Shan 2014: 64). The phrase "*nǐ hái bié shuō* 你还别说 you still not say" is an idiom and focuses on what is going to be expressed, indicating the change of the speaker' viewpoint (Chen 2003: 60; Guo 2007: 22; Fan 2012: 136).

In the structure "（*nǐ*）+*zhè*+measure word+noun（你）这…+ noun you this+ noun", the pronoun and the noun structure are appositive in nature. The structure, when used to refer to the people in front of you, could convey anger, disagreement or, criticism (Okuda 1998: 29, Zhang & Ying 2004: 77; Zhang 2005: 79). In this construction, the pronoun you is optional. However, the implied meaning of the whole is retained.

As a pragmatic marker, "*shì bu shì*是不是 correct not correct" can serve different functions, like affirming the information before it, drawing the hearer's attention to the new information, and simply as a politeness strategy to ensure that the hearer's face need is attended to (Shao & Zhu 2002: 27-29; Li 2009: 84). Speakers can use "*wǒ de yìsi shì*我的意思是 My meaning is" (Qi & Peng 2011: 223-224; Cheng & Li 2011: 23-24) and "*wǒ shì shuō* 我

是说 I be say" to supplement, correct or emphasise what the speaker has said (Cheng & Li 2011: 20-23). The expressions are reckoned to be appropriate when the speaker realizes the need to "repair" his/her words, which can be triggered by his/her, or the hearer's utterances. (Cheng & Li 2011: 20-23) The phrase "*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe* 我说什么来着 I say what come+*aspect marker*" is simply used to convey the speaker's subjective attitude, implying the criticism of the speaker (Lü 2011: 75). The whole construction indicates that the hearer did not follow the speaker's advice and now a bad result has appeared, as predicted by the speaker (Guo 2009: 114; Lü 2011: 77; Zhu & Guan 2016: 142).

According to (Li 2008; Zhang 2015: 29-30), the phrase "*wèntí shì* 问题是 the problem is" is a pragmatic marker to introduce a speaker's negative comments and criticism. The expression "*wǒ shuō zěnme* 我说怎么 I say why" is a polite reply to others' answering one's question or clarifying one's doubt. It is quite similar to "*wǒ shuō ne* 我说呢 I say+*particle*". The only difference is that when a questioner uses "*zěnme* 怎么 how" in his/her question, "*wǒ shuō ne* 我说呢 I say *particle*" ought to be used. They both indicate that the speaker suddenly understands something (Chang 1989: 150; Chen 2003: 60; Ying 2009: 48; Zhang & Ni 2015: 218), thus preparing the conversation to move on. However, it is not uncommon for foreign learners of Chinese to reply with "*xièxie* 谢谢 thank", which causes a conversation to break down (Chen 2003: 60).

The pragmatic marker "*zài…kàn lái* 在…看来 at …see come" distances a speaker from the content s/he expresses, which is often used to make a personal comment (Zhang 2007: 384-385; Hu 2011: 41-42). The expression "*zhème shuō* 这么说 this say" when used at the beginning of a hearer's utterance, implies that what follows is his/her current assumption, which often takes the form of question and needs a speaker's confirmation (Xu 1998b: 51-52). This construction can convey strong feelings, like surprise or admiration (Xu 1998b: 51-52; Wang 2012: 137).

3.8 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

Among the 300 Chinese words required by the revised lexical syllabus for the first two levels of 2009 HSK, we have identified 120 words and constructions that carry various types of pragmatic meanings, as shown in the analysis above. The findings are summarised in full in the Appendix 1. Even within the core Chinese vocabulary, there is plenty of scope for

discussing pragmatic meaning, to lay the foundation stones of L2 Chinese learners' pragmatic knowledge.

The pragmatic meaning of these words and constructions goes well beyond the limited range of speech acts, which were found in the review of research on the teaching of Chinese pragmatics (see Chapter 2: 2.2). They also extend beyond the small set of language functions identified within the HSK syllabus for Levels 1 and 2 test-takers. Language teachers can of course help cultivate L2 Chinese learners' pragmatic competence beyond speech acts to the wider range of pragmatic functions associated with the core vocabulary, through a combination of implicit and explicit instruction in classroom settings. Meanwhile, it is worthwhile to investigate what kinds of pragmatics have been incorporated into learning materials like textbooks or reference materials to complement the classroom instruction, since they could be an important source for learners to encounter aspects of Chinese pragmatics. In Chapter 4, selected CFL textbooks will be reviewed to see how far they cater for Chinese learners' pragmatic needs, using as benchmarks the pragmatic meanings relating to 120 Chinese words and associated constructions identified in this chapter. The system developed here for classifying pragmatic meanings will also be applied in Chapter 5, in reviewing the pragmatic elements embedded in the contents of selected reference dictionaries for beginning CFL learners.

Chapter 4: Pragmatic Information in Four Chinese Textbooks for Beginners

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Selection Criteria for the Four Textbooks for Chinese Beginners

4.2 Brief Introduction to the Four Textbooks

4.3 Four Ways of Presenting Chinese Pragmatics in the Textbooks

4.4 Chinese Pragmatics in Four Textbooks

4.5 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

4.0 Introduction

The many types of pragmatic meanings associated with 120 Chinese words and constructions among the basic HSK 300 have been analysed and categorised in Chapter 3 (see Chapter 3: 3.3). It confirms that a considerable range of pragmatic functions can be acquired through the standard core vocabulary, and gives a very positive response to RQ2. This takes us to the first part of RQ3: how many of these functions embedded in basic words or constructions are incorporated into current textbooks for Chinese beginners?

Numerous Chinese textbooks, including general ones and those targeting a specific skill like speaking, have been compiled for L2 learners of different proficiency levels. Compared with the early ones which focus mainly on Chinese grammar and structure, the later ones are increasingly topic-focused, presenting contents related to Chinese culture in diverse ways (Zhu et al. 2008: 132-133), to cater to L2 learners' communicative needs. In terms of their design, they increasingly introduce color illustrations and other graphic features to contextualize the verbal information and appeal to the learner. They face new challenges in that their content now needs to be presented on the web and in the digital medium (Wang 2012: 117), to better meet L2 Chinese learners' need in the information age. But the question of how much of the range of possible pragmatic topics do they address, to help build learners' pragmatic competence.

Four textbooks were selected to address the research question above. The publishing dates of those textbooks, their compilers' background, their popularity with Chinese learners at university level and their focus on cultivating L2 Chinese learners' communicative

competence, make them quite comparable in terms of providing pragmatically loaded words and constructions. They also provide some coverage of the pragmatic meanings associated with Chinese particles, and of pragmatically acceptable conversational topics to be compared. These focuses allow us to explore systematically how far the discussion of pragmatics in these textbooks helps to support "teaching of Chinese pragmatics [in classroom settings]", which Kasper and Zhang (1995: 19) deem advisable.

4.1 Selection Criteria for the Four Textbooks for Chinese Beginners

The four textbooks selected for this discussion are *Chinese Link* (2010), *Encounters: Chinese Language and Culture* (2012), *Integrated Chinese* (2009) and *New Practical Chinese Reader* (2010). Those textbooks target adult Chinese learners, particularly those at university level. Their publication details, including full title, the abbreviated title, authorship, and publication date of the first and latest editions, are summarised in the following table.

Table 4.1: The publication details of the four textbooks

Title	Abbreviated Title	Author	Publication Date of the First Edition	Publication Date of the Latest Edition	The Latest Edition
Chinese Link	*Chinese Link*	Wu et al.	2007	2010	2nd
Encounters: Chinese Language and Culture	*Encounters*	Ning & Montanaro	2012		1st
Integrated Chinese	*Integrated Chinese*	Liu et al.	1997	2009	3rd
New Practical Chinese Reader	*Practical Chinese*	Liu	2002	2010	2nd

The textbooks have been selected for four reasons: their recent publication dates, popularity with Chinese beginners, compilers' background, as well as their emphasis on the communicative competence of foreign Chinese learners, as will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

To begin with, the four textbooks, with their latest editions all published in 2000s or 2010s, may be expected to integrate up-to-date approaches to the field of Chinese pragmatics, including those 120 pragmatic points discussed in Chapter 3: 3.3-3.7. "[U]se of the word 'pragmatics' to describe a separate field of study, on a par with syntax and semantics, was

established during 1970s", according to Allot (2010: 14). Even the first editions of those textbooks were published well after the time that pragmatics was developed as a separate field of study. Three textbooks—*Chinese Link*, *Integrated Chinese* and *Practical Chinese*, were all published in the late 1990s or mid 2000s; their latest editions all came out in late 2000s or early 2010s. *Encounters* was first published in early 2012. Therefore, it can be said that the four textbooks, including their latest editions, are published well after pragmatics had been established as a field of study, and L2 learners and researchers were aware of its importance. Consequently the textbook compilers should have been well positioned to integrate up-to-date Chinese pragmatics into their publications. The dates of publication of these textbooks make them comparable in their potential capacity to provide pragmatic information.

In addition, the four textbooks are frequently prescribed by teachers for those beginning university CFL learners in English-speaking countries like Britain, U.S.A., Canada, Australia and New Zealand. *Integrated* and *Practical Chinese* have been ranked among the most popular Chinese textbooks for beginners at university level in Britain, U.S.A, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. *Practical Chinese* is one of the two textbooks most frequently prescribed for students majoring in Chinese at British universities (Zhang & Li 2012). Aside from *Practical Chinese*, *Integrated* was also widely used by Chinese learners in American universities (Luo 2011, Luo et al. 2013, Luo & Zhang 2014, Li et al. 2014). Luo investigated the Chinese textbooks used in 30 universities in the USA, most of which have strong tradition of Chinese teaching. She found that *Integrated Chinese* was more widely used than *Practical Chinese*, ranking No. 1 among the textbooks for beginners. *Practical Chinese* was the second most used of the textbooks. In English universities in eastern Canada, *Practical Chinese* was selected for beginning Chinese learners (Cui 2005). In 6 Australian universities in four states and Canberra, *Practical Chinese* and *Integrated Chinese* were often set for beginners in Chinese (Wang & Niu 2014). According to Quan (2013), *Practical Chinese* was one of the four most widely used textbooks by New Zealand university Chinese learners. The largest survey of Chinese teaching at university level in America in 2012 showed that aside from *Practical Chinese* and *Integrated Chinese*, *Chinese Link* and *Encounters* also stood out as textbooks most popular with Chinese beginners in the United States (Li et al. 2014: 26). Their view echoed what the compilers of *Integrated Chinese* claimed: it "has been a widely used textbook at the college level all over the United States and beyond" (Part 1: Preface to the Third Edition xiv). Therefore, it can be said that the four textbooks all enjoy great popularity amongst students commencing Chinese at university.

The compilers' background is also an important reason for selecting the four textbooks. The compilers of the textbooks have differing contexts for teaching Chinese, which may help to show their differences in incorporating Chinese pragmatics. *Chinese Link*, *Encounters* and *Integrated Chinese* were compiled by CFL teachers in America for international use. Meanwhile, *Practical Chinese* was compiled by CSL teachers in China, but designed particularly for English-speaking CFL learners (1: III). From these different backgrounds, the four textbooks invite comparison into the way pragmatics is presented in each of them, and how learner-friendly they are. It may be expected that the compilers of *Chinese Link*, *Encounters* and *Integrated Chinese* are better positioned to present such information, since as CFL teachers they are probably more aware of CFL learners' pragmatic needs when studying Chinese outside China.

The compilers of the four textbooks all emphasise cultivating CFL learners' communicative competence. With the guidance from the "5Cs" principles—Communication, Cultures, Comparisons, Connections, and Communities of American National Standards for Foreign Language Education ("World related standards for learning languages" 2016), the compilers of *Chinese Link*, *Encounters* and *Integrated Chinese* have adopted various means to help meet the communicative goal in teaching Chinese to CFL learners. In *Encounters* (1: xvii), a "fully integrated array of learning materials focuses on **communication** and **authentic language used in real-life contexts**" [emphasis added] , which "guides learners along a well-prepared path toward intercultural communication and understanding". Similarly, the compilers of *Chinese Link* (Part 1: ix) aim to "help [Chinese] beginners develop their communicative competence in the four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing" . In *Integrated Chinese*(Part 1: preface xv), the compilers hope to "place language acquisition in **a real-world context** and make [it] all the more conducive **to active use of the language** in the classroom and, more importantly, beyond it" [emphasis added]. In *Practical Chinese* (1: Preface VIII), the combination of the **communicative functions of Chinese** and grasping its structure to develop students' four basic skills-listening, speaking, reading and writing is emphasised. Since the acquisition of Chinese pragmatics can only help CFL learners communicate, pragmatic competence should be taken as part of CFL learners' communicative competence. Therefore, it might be expected that aspects of Chinese pragmatics would have been incorporated into those textbooks.

4.2 A Brief Introduction to the Four Textbooks

The four textbooks, though slightly different in the number of units/lessons, are designed to be used over two semesters by CFL beginners, Book/Part 1 for the first semester, Book/Part 2 for the second one.

Table 4.2: The number of pages and units/lessons in each textbook

Title	Book	Pages	Units/lessons
Encounters	Book 1	336	10 Units
	Book 2	398	10 Units
Integrated Chinese	Part 1	366	10 Lessons
	Part 2	430	10 Lessons
Chinese Link	Part 1	310	11 Lessons
	Part 2	334	11 Lessons
Practical Chinese	Book 1	295	14 Lessons
	Book 2	327	12 Lessons

The four textbooks have common features in design, and to differing degrees, are all designed in colored formats. *Encounters* and *Chinese Link* engage the user with coloured illustrations, icons and photographs. But *Encounters* is the more aesthetically pleasing, because of its effective use of more real-life photographs, which build up the settings for communicative activities. The other two textbooks—*Integrated Chinese* and *Practical Chinese*, mainly adopt coloured illustrations for this purpose.

In addition, the textbooks share some common features in their content, including up-to-date vocabulary. To meet beginning Chinese learners' communicative needs, the texts in each lesson/unit of the four textbooks take the form of dialogues following a storyline, with some central figures engaged in different activities in various contexts. The activities all start from campus and then go beyond it. To support CFL learners' communication, Chinese cultural information is also provided in the four textbooks. *Integrated Chinese*, *Chinese Link* and *Practical Chinese* offer just a few cultural points only at the end of a lesson, whereas the compilers of *Encounters* provide more of such information through "FYI (For Your Interest)": it is dispersed throughout each lesson. At the same time, in designing the exercises, the compilers of four textbooks all have tried to improve Chinese learners' listening, speaking, reading and writing skills comprehensively to meet their communicative needs. However, as Cui (2014: 51) pointed out, *Encounters* succeeds better in mingling form-based practice and meaning-based communicative exercises. By contrast, *Integrated Chinese, Chinese Link* and *Practical Chinese* still feature somewhat mechanical drills on sentence patterns.

4.3 Four Ways of Presenting Chinese Pragmatics in the Textbooks

To put the four textbooks selected on an equal footing, only the Chinese pragmatics in the four student books, which all belong to a particular series, is compared. This is because all four textbooks are linked with supplementary print and online resources. *Encounters* student book is just part of the *Encounters* program, which "provides an integrated series of learning materials: student books, character writing workbooks, companion website, CD-ROMs…, and annotated instructor editions" (Cui 2014: 49). *Chinese Link* has student books, instructor's resource manuals, testing programs, student activity manuals, character books and audio materials (Part 1: XIV-XV). It also has a companion website offering audio program and web resource links for completing Internet-based activities in the textbook and MyChinese LabTM, an online learning system for students and teachers (Part 1: XV). The *Integrated* series comprises student books, workbooks, character workbooks and audio CDs, plus a companion site providing teacher resources, links to previews and demos, etc. (Part 1: The Integrated Chinese Series). *Practical Chinese* provides student books, workbooks and instructor's manuals and audio materials. Its compilers also offer some resources, like the texts in unsimplified Chinese characters, which are widely used in Hongkong, Taiwan, Macau, and overseas Chinese communities, on the website of the publishing house (*Practical Chinese* I: XI). Therefore, in comparing the presentation of Chinese pragmatics, only what is incorporated into the student books is compared. When the textbook titles are mentioned below, if not specified otherwise, they only refer to student books.

Neither the word "pragmatics" as a field of study, nor any of derivatives in this sense, are mentioned in the four textbooks. This could mean that Chinese pragmatics is marginalised in them. Nevertheless, as has been noted above, cultivating Chinese learners' communicative competence has been emphasised by all the compilers of the four textbooks, and information on Chinese pragmatics, which aims at building up their pragmatic competence, could have been incorporated into them. It may be there though not noted as *pragmatics*. Closer investigation shows that such information has been provided mainly through (1) translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations), (2) language notes, (3) cultural notes, and (4) grammatical explanations, which are all detailed below.

4.3.1 Translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations)

Each textbook features a vocabulary section, even if the section title and the actual form of

each lexical item in it varies between textbooks. In *Integrated Chinese*, *Chinese Link* and *Encounters*, it is named "Vocabulary". In *Practical Chinese*, it is called "New Words", the literal translation of its Chinese title—"*shēngcí*生词". A typical item in the vocabulary section comprises a Chinese word, its *pinyin* transcription, part of speech as well as translation equivalent (with explanations in a pair of parentheses). The order of the first two components differs between textbooks. The *pinyin* transcription of a Chinese word appears before it in *Practical Chinese*, but after it in the other three textbooks.

Offering information on Chinese pragmatics via the translation equivalent (with bracketed explanations) of a Chinese word in the vocabulary section is found in every textbook. Owing to the differences between Chinese and English, including their pragmatics, there could be a lack of absolute equivalents in English in many cases for a Chinese word, because "anisomorphism must be expected in all lexical units and can be found in most of them" (Zgusta 1971: 296). To patch up the pragmatic differences, the translation equivalent of a Chinese word needs to be supplemented via other means. In this regard, the compilers of the four textbooks are identical in providing bracketed explanations before or after the translation equivalent.

The bracketed explanations to supplement the English translation of "*nín* 您 (*polite*) you" pragmatically can help illustrate this point. "you" plus the bracketed explanation have been presented as its translation equivalent. However, "*nǐ* 你" also has "you" as its translation equivalent (*Encounters* 1: 39, *Integrated Chinese* Part 1: 20, *Chinese Link* part 1: 3*, Practical Chinese* 1: 4). According to one of the most authoritative Chinese dictionaries—*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* (2012: 951), "*nín* 您" differs from "*nǐ* 你" in that it shows respect to the addressee, thus more polite. Providing supplementary explanations in brackets for "you" is a neat way to help patch up this pragmatic difference, which has been adopted in all four textbooks. In *Chinese Link* (Part 1:20), *Integrated Chinese* (Part 1:152) and *Practical Chinese* (1:30), "polite (form)" or its variation "honorific" is added in parentheses either before or after "you" to indicate that it is used as a polite Chinese second person pronoun (*Integrated Chinese* Part 1: 20, *Chinese Link* part 1: 152*, Practical Chinese* 1: 30). However, in *Encounters*, only "(formal)" is provided, which focuses on the stylistic feature and fails to bring out the implicit politeness of "*nín* 您" (1: 39).

It can be argued that the pragmatic information supplied this way is rather limited, and far from adequate in many cases. Without additional information specifying how a Chinese

lexical item is applied in a specific context, in accordance with factors like the addressee's age, social status, power, and so on, foreign Chinese learners may still be unable to benefit much from translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations). It should be noted as well that some Chinese words, when used independently, do not convey pragmatic meaning – only when combined with other words in a given linguistic construction. For example, the four Chinese words in this sentence – "*nǐ jǐ suì le*? 你几岁了? you several year+*particle*?" (see Chapter 3: 3.3.7), do not possess pragmatic meaning individually. However, when they are combined like this, the whole linguistic structure can be used only to ask a child's age. It would be rather impolite to use it to ask an adult, particularly a senior, his or her age. However, it is challenging to present the pragmatic information like this in the vocabulary section of a textbook.

4.3.2 Language notes

Language notes also serve as a major way of presenting information on Chinese pragmatics in the four textbooks. These notes appear in different places, under different names, and in various forms. Such notes are placed in the margin next to a text or somewhere after a text. They come after a text in *Practical Chinese* and *Encounters,* but next to it in *Chinese Link* and *Integrated Chinese*. They are differently titled as well: "Notes" in *Practical Chinese*, "Language notes" in *Integrated Chinese*, "For Your Interest (FYI)" in *Encounters*. However, no name was given to them in *Chinese Link*. In terms of their form, in *Integrated Chinese*, *Encounters* and *Chinese Link*, they are all boxed. By contrast, in *Practical Chinese*, they are just listed out immediately following a text.

Compared with translation equivalents (with bracketed supplementary explanations), language notes can offer textbook compilers more space, thus more freedom to expound the pragmatic meaning associated with a Chinese word or particular linguistic structure. They are an important means to provide information on Chinese pragmatics which the vocabulary section fails to present or presents inadequately. It should be emphasised that not all (language) notes provide such information.

The pragmatic meaning associated with "*nín* 您 you" is again an example for showing how language notes supplement the pragmatic information which is missing or is inadequate in the vocabulary section. In supplementing it, it seems that the compilers' focus differs a bit. In *Integrated Chinese*, it is pointed out that speakers can switch to "*nín* 您" to be more

respectful or polite (Part 1: 20). It further adds that "*nín* 您" is often used to address an older person, a person with higher social rank or a stranger (*Integrated Chinese* Part 1: 150). The compilers of *Chinese Link* take more or less the same view, pointing out "*nín* 您" is saved for addressing people with higher social status and one's elders (Part 1: 21). Meanwhile, it can be used to address someone of one's own age or social status to be polite while meeting him/her for the first time. This is more detailed than just mentioning it can be used to address a stranger, as is the case in *Integrated Chinese*. In addition, using it to address a friend implies distance, irony or sneering (*Chinese Link* Part 1: 85). However, it needs to be clarified that the piece of pragmatic information associated with "*nín* 您" is not provided through a boxed language note, but in Grammar. In *Practical Chinese* (1: 31), it is pointed out that the focus is more on the addressee's age rather than his/her social status, which is echoed in *Encounters* as well. Using it for addressing people of one's own age is also mentioned in *Practical Chinese*. Aside from age, the compilers of *Encounters* also emphasise that it is a polite form only used on formal business or social occasions (1: 19). By providing fuller information through language notes, CFL learners can make out factors like when, where and to whom "*nín* 您" should be used as a polite Chinese address. Thus, through such language notes, the information on Chinese pragmatics supplied can help clarify or extend pragmatic information offered through translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations) in the vocabulary section.

Language notes can present the pragmatic information for linguistic constructions like "*nǐ hǎo* 你好 you good". Translation equivalents (with supplementary explanations) in the vocabulary section are incapable of providing it, since the section mainly focuses on explaining the meaning of words. *Practical Chinese* (1: 4) points out that it is the most common form of greeting in Chinese, which can be used to greet people you meet for the first time or you know. The reply of the addressee is the same. Similar points have been made in *Encounters* (1: 19) and *Integrated Chinese* (Part 1: 20). The compilers of *Encounters* also add that this is informal and when greeting a person of higher status, "*nín hǎo* 您好 (polite) you good" should be used instead. *Chinese Link* (Part 1: 4) simply mentions that it means "hello", and is a common greeting, which is not detailed enough to guide Chinese learners in its proper use.

Thus language notes can supplement the pragmatic information associated with a given Chinese word which cannot be presented through translation equivalents, with or without explanations. In this sense, the two means to offer such information are complementary.

Meanwhile, they can also help provide pragmatic information associated with conventional Chinese constructions, which the translation equivalents in the vocabulary section usually fail to provide.

4.3.3 Cultural notes

Cultural notes are adopted as another important vehicle to offer the pragmatic information in the four textbooks, particularly the information associated with Chinese linguistic constructions. Each textbook has a separate section or sections dealing with cultural contents with a different title, like "Cultural Highlights" in *Integrated Chinese*, "Cultural Note" in *Practical Chinese*, and "Culture Notes" in *Chinese Link*. The section entitled "Cultural Bits" in *Encounters* just asks CFL learners to watch a video and discuss some questions relevant to the contents of lessons in a unit, so no specific pragmatic information is provided by it. In *Encounters* such information is therefore provided through boxed "For Your Interest" (FYI). The provision of pragmatic information through notes on Chinese culture is unsurprising, since the pragmatics of a language is interwoven with the culture within which the language is used. As Wierzbicka (2003: 69) points out, different cultural values and priorities can help explain the systematic differences between people's way of speaking or using a language. The pragmatic information on Chinese greetings illustrates this point, where the compilers of *Chinese Link* and *Encounters* are more thorough than those of *Encounters* and *Practical*.

In *Chinese Link*'s "Cultural Notes" (Part 1: 12-14), the compilers provide rich pragmatic information relevant to Chinese greetings. Three forms of greetings are distinguished: (1) exchanged greetings, (2) question-and-answer ones, and (3) stating the obvious as a greeting. For the first type of greeting, both the speaker and the hearer say the same thing, like "*nǐ hǎo* 你好 You good", "*zǎo* 早 early". For the second type, the speaker asks a question, and the hearer will provide an answer, like "*nǐ hǎo ma*? 你好吗？ You good+*particle*"—"*hěn hǎo* 很好 very good". For the third type, two examples are provided to illustrate the point that Chinese tend to say something obvious as a way of greeting, with the final word having a falling boundary tone (Lin 2015: 40), similar to the one in a statement. The first example goes like this: "A: 买菜啊？[mǎi cài a?] (So you are) grocery shopping, eh? B: 嗯，买菜。[En, mǎi cài] Yes, (I'm) grocery shopping". A color photo showing Chinese doing grocery shopping is provided to offer the background to Chinese learners. Through the provision of this piece of pragmatic information, learners of Chinese should have a better understanding of Chinese greeting styles, particularly like asking some obvious question which needs no answer (Bi

1997a: 15).

In *Encounters* (1: 19), the pragmatic information relevant to greeting is offered in two boxed FYI. The compilers point out in one FYI that there are two types of word-based greetings, such as "*nǐ hǎo* 你好 you good" and those that follow the question-and-answer pattern. It is also added that context determines what greeting one uses, which is similar to the third type of greeting—stating the obvious, mentioned in *Chinese Link*. The compilers also mention that one can use a person's last name, followed by his/her respectful title before the normal greeting, which is not mentioned in *Chinese Link*. In the other boxed FYI, CFL learners are informed of some other forms of common greetings, like "*zǎo* 早 early", "*zǎoshàng hǎo* 早上好 morning good", the latter considered more formal. It is even added that for a person you already know, you do not need to say anything. Smiling, nodding, saying the person's name or name and title will do, which accords with current Chinese practice.

However, in *Integrated Chinese*, aside from the language note on "*nǐ hǎo* 你好", no other pragmatic information on Chinese greetings has been offered. The compiler of *Practical Chinese* has done almost the same. But it also points out in language notes (1: 5) that "*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 you good+*particle*" is used to greet someone you have not seen for some time). No other supplementary pragmatic information has been offered on greetings elsewhere, either in the same lesson or in other ones in either of these textbooks.

Summary. The compilers have all used notes on culture to offer pragmatic information, though in differently titled sections. As the greeting example above shows, the detailedness of such information varies between textbooks. It also happens that one piece of such information is supplied in some textbooks, but not in others. However, without a proper understanding of Chinese culture, it is hard for CFL learners to use Chinese appropriately with different people on different occasions (Hu 1987: 30). CFL learners should be warned that even if Chinese expressions and their English translations appear to be identical, but they may "actually have very different pragmatic…meanings, and this in turn affects the way in which language is used... Awareness of differences like these is critical for [Chinese] language learners, particularly in their interaction with [native speakers] of the target language" (Liddicoat & Crozet 2001: 144). Cultural notes can thus play an important role in helping CFL learners in their Chinese pragmatic learning.

4.3.4 Grammatical explanations

Grammatical explanations have also been adopted to present pragmatic information in the four textbooks. Some pragmatic information, such as that on politeness, attitude, and feeling, is often conveyed through a conventional Chinese construction. Therefore, clarifying the use of the structure is usually done through grammatical explanations, concentrated in a section called "Grammar" in *Integrated Chinese*, *Practical Chinese* and *Chinese Link*, "Grammar Bits" in *Encounters*.

The pragmatic information associated with "*guì xìng* 贵姓 honourable surname" can be cited as an example. In *Chinese Link*, it is pointed out that "*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 you honourable surname" is a polite way of asking a person's surname and one can answer this question with surname or full name (Part 1: 21). In *Practical Chinese* (1: 43), a similar point to this has been made in "Notes", but not in "Grammar". It is also pointed out in *Practical Chinese* that when meeting others for the first time, it is considered more polite to ask another person his/her surname rather than their full name. In *Integrated Chinese* (Part 1: 23), the compilers stick to the fact that "*guì xìng* 贵姓 honourable surname" is a polite way to inquire about the other party's surname, which is correct. However, it seems to indicate that "*nǐ guì xìng* 你贵姓 you honourable name" is a proper way to find out someone's surname, regardless of context. As is pointed out in *Encounters* (1: 26), "*nǐ guì xìng* 你贵姓 you honourable name" is grammatically correct but only used in casual conversations, because it is considered too informal when meeting another person for the first time. Therefore, "*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓" is used to address a person older or of a higher social status. This piece of pragmatic information is provided in a FYI rather than in "Grammar" in *Encounters*. Judging by the pragmatic information associated with "*guì xìng* 贵姓 honourable name", *Encounters* should be considered the most comprehensive among the four textbooks.

4.3.5 Summary

In terms of the provision of the pragmatic information in the four textbooks, four different ways have been adopted by their compilers: translation equivalents (with supplementary explanations), notes on language and culture, and grammatical explanations. However, as the analysis of the information above has shown, the four textbooks differ in the amount as well as detailedness of the information provided for the topics we have discussed. We should now review just how many of the pragmatic points and topics identified in the HSK core

vocabulary (Chapter 3) are actually included in each of the textbooks – as a way of comparing their coverage of essential Chinese pragmatics.

4.4 Chinese Pragmatics in Four Textbooks

4.4.1 The presentation of pragmatic points

As a preliminary to comparing the amount of pragmatic information provided in each of the four textbooks against the benchmark of 120 points of Chinese pragmatics discussed in Chapter 3 (3.3-3.7), let us first compare the overall vocabularies of the four textbooks. They differ greatly in the sizes of their vocabulary, as can be seen in Table 4.3, which represents the total vocabulary of each textbook, including the supplementary vocabulary.

Table 4.3 Total vocabulary in each textbook

Textbook title	Total vocabulary	Textbook title	Total vocabulary
Encounters	1524	*Integrated Chinese*	863
Practical Chinese	1181	*Chinese Link*	695

As the Table. 4.3 shows, the volume of words varies a lot: the total vocabulary in *Practical Chinese* almost doubles that of *Chinese Link*, while that in *Encounters* is almost two times of that in *Integrated Chinese*. Yet according to a survey on American Chinese learners and teachers by Hong (2012, cited in Shi 2015: 52), a lot of the learners' time in learning *Integrated Chinese* each week is occupied by learning vocabulary, and the vocabulary in it is considered to be too large for beginners. In textbooks like *Practical Chinese* and *Encounters*, the vocabulary counts show the textbooks are clearly not constrained by the HSK syllabus for levels 1 and 2.

If we included all the pragmatic information relevant to the very large vocabularies of the four textbooks in our comparison, it would go way beyond that associated with the 300 words of the core HSK syllabus; and textbooks with a larger vocabulary could naturally outperform those with smaller vocabularies. It is thus unfair as well as unscientific to calculate and compare the number of items offering such information directly in different textbooks. It makes better sense to set a benchmark by which their pragmatic information can be compared more objectively. The pragmatic information associated with 120 Chinese words or linguistic constructions lends itself to this purpose.

In the following analysis, the 120 pragmatically loaded Chinese words or associated linguistic structures discussed in chapter 3 are the starting point for comparing pragmatic

coverage of the textbooks. The total is slightly reduced for various reasons. The pragmatic information on five Chinese particles is excluded from the preliminary analysis, and discussed separately in 4.4.2, because it is rather dispersed and hard to quantify. Other exclusions arise from the fact that some of the Chinese words from the core HSK vocabulary that convey pragmatic meaning are not included in the basic vocabulary of one or more textbooks, as summarised in the table below.

Table 4.4: Pragmatically loaded Chinese words not included in one or more textbooks

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	English translation	*Encounters*	*Integrated Chinese*	*Chinese Link*	*Practical Chinese*
1	*bié…*	别…	Do not			N	
2	*érzi*	儿子	Son			N	
3	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter; waitress				N
4	*piàoliang*	漂亮	Beautiful			N	
5	*qīzi*	妻子	Wife		N	N	
6	shēntǐ	身体	Body	N			
7	*wèi*	喂	Hello	N			
8	*xīwàng*	希望	Hope			N	N
9	*yìsi*	意思	Meaning		N	N	
10	*zhàngfu*	丈夫	Husband		N	N	

If a Chinese word from HSK core vocabulary is not included in a textbook, it follows that any pragmatically loaded constructions containing it will be missing in the textbooks as well. A total of 13 missing pragmatic points are identified, as shown in the table below. They will therefore be excluded from the intercomparisons between the four textbooks.

Table 4.5: The 13 pragmatic points excluded from comparison

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation
1	*bié…*	别…	Not
2	*bié shì*	别是	Not be
3	*érzi*	儿子	Son
4	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter; waitress
5	*nǐ hái bié shuō*	你还别说	You still not say
6	nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng	你身体怎么样	Your body how about
7	*nǐ zhēn/hěn piàoliang*	你真/很漂亮	You real/very beautiful
8	*qīzi*	妻子	Wife
9	*wèi*	喂	Hello
10	*wǒ de yìsi shì*	我的意思是	My+*particle*+ meaning is
11	*wǒ xīwàng…*	我希望…	I hope
12	*xiǎo yìsi*	小意思	Little value
13	*zhàngfu*	丈夫	Husband

With the Table 4.5 exclusions, 107 pragmatic points in total are left as the reference list for comparing the pragmatic information in each textbook. Out of those 107 points, the number that is fully or partly presented in each textbook is summarised in the table below.

Table 4.6: The number of pragmatic points presented in each textbook

Textbook title	*Integrated Chinese*	*Practical Chinese*	*Encounters*	*Chinese Link*
Total pragmatic points	30	28	27	26

As is clear from Table 4.6, the textbooks cover only a fraction of the pragmatic points identified with the core HSK vocabulary. Judging by the number of pragmatic points fully or partly discussed in each textbook, *Integrated Chinese* does slightly better than *Practical Chinese*, *Encounters* and *Chinese Link* in decreasing order. However, this is not to say that in terms of the amount of pragmatic information offered, it has really outdone the others. The detailedness of each piece of pragmatic information varies, particularly in the case of those which are partly covered.

Table 4.7 summarises all the fully or partly presented pragmatic information in each textbook. The pragmatic information provided in *Integrated Chinese*, *Practical Chinese*, *Encounters* and *Chinese Link* against 107 pragmatic points is shown in Appendix 4, 5, 6, and 7 respectively. In Table 4.7, three symbols—"×", "✓" and "乂" are adopted to represent the status of the provision of the pragmatic information. The symbol "×" indicates the pragmatic information relating to a Chinese word or its associated linguistic structure is not provided in a textbook, while "✓" implies such information has been adequately presented, and "乂" means such information concerned is inadequate and needs to be further supplemented.

Table 4.7: Comparison of the 107 pragmatic points in 4 textbooks

No	Pinyin	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic information	Pragmatic information included			
						Integrated Chinese	*Practical Chinese*	*Encounters*	*Chinese Link*
1	*bà* （*ba*）	爸（爸）	Father	Dad	Addressing one's dad	×	×	乂	×
2	*bú kèqì/yòng xiè*	不客气/用谢	No polite/need thank	You are welcome	Reply to thanks/formula	×	×	×	乂
3	*bú sòng le*	不送了	No see off+ *particle*	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	×	×	×	×
4	*bú yào*	不要…	Not want…	Do not	Advising/forbidding	×	×	×	×
5	*bù*	不	Not	Not	Attitude of reluctance	×	×	×	×
6	*bù le*	不了	No+*particle*	No	Politeness/refusal	×	×	×	×
7	*bù zěnmeyàng*	不怎么样	No how about	Not so good	Attitude of contempt	×	×	×	×
8	*bù zhīdào*	不知道…	Not know	I wonder	Request/formula	×	×	×	×

9	*...cóng nǎr lái de*	...从哪儿来的	…from where come+*particle*	Where have…got …	Attitude of suspicion	×	×	×	×
10	*dà … de*	大…的	Big…*particle*	So…	Attitude of disagreement	×	×	×	×
11	*děi*	得	Have to	Have to	Order	×	×	×	×
12	*dìdi*	弟弟	Younger brother	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger brother, but for talking about him	×	×	wrong	×
13	*duì, …*	对, …	Right. …	Right….	Agreement/confirmation	×	×	×	×
14	*duì bu duì*	对不对	Correct not correct	Correct	Asking or providing confirmation	×	×	×	×
15	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Sorry	Apology/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
16	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Excuse me	Request/formula	×	×	×	×
17	*duì le, …*	对了	Correct+*particle*	By the way	Switching topic	✓	✓	×	✓
18	*duō*	多…	Much…	How…	Feeling	×	✓	×	×
19	…+ *gē*	…哥	…brother	Buddy	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
20	*gē*（*ge*）	哥（哥）	Elder brother	Elder brother	Addressing one's elder brother	×	×	✓	×
21	*guì xìng*	贵姓	honorific surname	May I have your name	Politeness in asking name/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
22	*háizi*	孩子	Child	Dear	Address/feeling	×	×	✓	×
23	*háizimen*	孩子们	Children	Dear	Address/feeling	×	×	×	×
24	*hǎo*	好（的）	Good (*particle*)	Right	Agreement/formula	×	×	×	✓
25	*… hǎo ma*?	…好吗	…good+*particle*	How be…?	Greeting/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
26	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	…Ok./good +*particle*/ Ok./can…*particle*	Can…?/Be …Ok.	Politeness/request	✓	✓	×	✓
27	*hěn kěnéng*	很可能	Very possible	Highly possible	Vagueness	×	×	×	×
28	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Can speak	Pay lip-service	Satirical attitude	×	×	×	×
29	*jiào*	叫	Call	Order/require	Command	×	×	×	×
30	…jiě	…姐	….elder sister	Given name	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
31	*jiě*（*jie*）	姐（姐）	Elder sister	Elder sister	Addressing one's elder sister	×	×	✓	×
32	*jiù*	就	Exactly	Exactly	Emphasis	×	✓	×	×
33	*jiù*	就	Already (+verbal structure)	So (fast, early,...)	Surprise	✓	✓	×	✓
34	*kànkan*	看看	Look look	Visit	Politeness in tenor	✓	×	✓	✓
35	*kàn nǐ shuō de*	看你说的	Look you say+*particle*	What are you saying	Disagreement /formula	×	×	×	×
36	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	Possible	Vagueness	×	×	×	×
37	*… kěyǐ/hǎo ma?*	…可以/好吗？	…good/Ok. +*particle*	How about…/Be …OK.	Politeness/suggestion	×	×	×	×
38	*… lǎoshī*	…老师	…teacher	Given	Politeness/ad	×	✓	✓	×

				name	dress				
39	*lǎoshī*	老师	Teacher	Given name	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
40	*mā*（*ma*）	妈（妈）	Mother	Mother	Address	×	×	⅄	×
41	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Slow slow eat	Take your time in enjoying the food	Politeness in food manners/formula	×	×	×	×
42	*màn zǒu*（*a*）	慢走（啊）	Slow walk (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	✓	×	×	×
43	*méiguānxi/shénme/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	You are welcome/do not mention it	Reply to thanks/formula	×	×	×	×
44	*méi guānxi/shénme/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	It is nothing/ no worries	Reply to Apology/formula	⅄	⅄	⅄	×
45	*mèimei*	妹妹	Younger sister	Given name	Politeness/address	×	×	Wrong	×
46	*méi*（*yǒu*）*wèntí*	没（有）问题	Not (have) problem	No problem	Replying to a request/formula	✓	✓	×	×
47	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	Tomorrow see.	See you tomorrow	Saying goodbye/formula	✓	×	✓	×
48	*nǎ'r lái de…*	哪儿来的…	Where come+*particle…*	How come…?	Refusal/attitude	×	×	×	×
49	*nǎ'r ya*	哪儿呀	Where+*particle*	No	Showing disagreement	×	×	×	×
50	*néng/néng bu néng…?*	能/能不能…	Can/can not can…	Can you…	Politeness/request	×	×	×	×
51	*nǐ bù zhīdào*（*ma/ba*）	你不知道（吗/吧）	You not know (*particle*)	Don't you know…	Targeting speaker's words, explaining or providing new information	×	×	×	×
52	（*nǐ*）*chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	(You) eat+aspect marker+*particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula	×	×	⅄	⅄
53	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	You how big+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age	⅄	⅄	×	⅄
54	*nǐ duóshǎo suì le*	你多少岁了	You how many years+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age	×	×	×	×
55	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	You/(polite) you good	Hello	Greeting/formula	⅄	⅄	⅄	✓
56	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	You several years+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age	⅄	⅄	×	⅄
57	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	You call what name	What is your name	Politeness in asking names	⅄	✓	×	×
58	（*nǐ*）*kàn nǐ*	（你）看你, …	(You) look you	Look	Showing criticism	×	×	×	×
59	*nǐ máng*（*ba*）	你忙（吧）	You busy (+ *particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	×	×	×	×
60	*nǐ máng ma/máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	You busy+*particle*/ busy not busy	How are you	Greeting/formula	×	×	×	×
61	*nǐmen hǎo*	你们好	You (plural maker)	Hello	Greeting/formula	×	×	×	×

			good						
62	*nǐ mǎi bù mǎi*	你买不买	You buy not buy	Don't you want to buy	Attitude of impatience	×	×	×	×
63	*nǐ qù nǎli/'r a*	你去哪里/儿啊	You go where	Hello	Greeting/formula	×	×	×	×
64	*nǐxiān máng*	你先忙	You first busy	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	×	×	×	×
65	*nǐ zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	(You) how+*particle*	What is up/wrong	Surprise	✓	×	×	×
66	*nǐ…zěnmeyàng*	你…怎么样	You…how about	How are you	Greeting/formula	×	✓	×	✓
67	（*nǐ*）*zhè*…	（你）这…	(You) this	Excuse me	Criticising	×	×	×	×
68	*nǐ zhīdào*（*ma*/*ba*）	你知道（吗/吧）	You know (*particle*/*particle*)	Don't you know	Drawing attention, seeking agreement	×	×	×	×
69	nín	您	(Polite) you	You	Politeness in addressing	✓	✓	✓	✓
70	*qǐng*	请	Please	Please	Politeness in request	✓	✓	✓	✓
71	*qǐng*	请	Please	After you/help yourself	Politeness/formula	×	×	✓	×
72	*qǐngwèn*	请问	Please ask	Excuse me	Request/formula	✓	×	✓	✓
73	*…shénme… a*	…什么…啊	…what…*particle*	What is the point of	Attitude of disagreement	×	×	×	×
74	*shénme shíhou … le*	什么时候…了	What time…aspect marker	How can I do…	Politeness in refusal	×	×	×	×
75	*shì*	是	Be	Yes	Agreement/confirmation	×	×	×	×
76	*shì*	是	Be	Exactly	Emphasis	✓	✓	✓	✓
77	*shì*	是	Be	Even if…be…	Attitude of concession	✓	×	×	×
78	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Be not be	Right	Affirming, drawing attention, and being polite	×	✓	×	✓
79	*shì…háishì…*	…是…还是…	Be…or…	…or…	Politeness in offering	×	×	×	×
80	*shì ma*	是吗	Be+*particle*	Really	Surprise	✓	✓	×	×
81	*...shì...wèntí*	…是…问题	…be…problem	…be something …	Criticising	×	×	×	×
82	*…tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate …	Hi	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
83	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	Hi	Politeness/address	×	✓	×	×
84	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmates	Everyone	Politeness/address	×	✓	×	×
85	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Evening good	Good evening	Greeting/formula	×	×	×	×
86	*wèntí shì…*	问题是…	Problem is	The problem is	Criticising	×	×	×	×
87	*wǒ juédé/kàn/xiǎng*	我觉得/看/想…	I feel/look/think	I think	Vagueness	×	×	×	×
88	*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe*	我说什么来着	I say what come+progressive marker	I said so	Showing criticism	×	×	×	×
89	*wǒ shuō zěnme/ne*	我说怎么/呢	I say why/*particle*	I see	Polite reply to others' answer/explanation	×	×	×	×
90	*xiàwǔ hǎo*	下午好	Afternoon good	Good afternoon	Greeting/formula	×	×	×	×

91	*….xiānsheng*	…先生	… gentleman	Mr….	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
92	*xiānsheng*	先生	Sir.	Sir.	Politeness/address	✓	✓	✓	✓
93	*xiǎo…*	小…	Little…	Little…	Feeling	✓	×	×	✓
94	*…xiáojiě*	… 小姐	…Miss	Miss…	Politeness/address	×	×	×	×
95	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	Miss	Politeness/address	✓	✓	✓	✓
96	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	Little friend	Dear	Feeling/address	×	×	×	✓
97	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	Thank	Thanks	Giving thanks/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
98	*yī shēng*	医生	Doctor	Dr.	Politeness/address				
99	*yígè huài dōngxi*	一个坏东西	A bad thing	A bad person	Dislike	×	×	×	×
100	*zàijiàn*	再见	Again see	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
101	*zài …ne*	（在）…着…呢	(At)…progressive marker… *particle*	Be+verb+ing	Politeness in replying to others	×	×	×	×
102	*zài…kàn lái*	在…看来	At…look come	In … view	Vagueness	×	×	×	×
103	*zǎo, zǎoshang hǎo*	早, 早上好	Early/morning good	Good morning	Greeting/formula	✓	✓	✓	✓
104	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	…how about	How about…	Politeness/suggestion	✓	×	✓	×
105	*zhème shuō*	这么说	So speak	So	Assuming/concluding	×	×	×	×
106	zhēn	真	Real	Very/really	Emphasis	✓	×	×	×
107	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Real+*particle+particle*	Really	Surprise	×	×	×	×
Total pragmatic points included in each textbook						30	28	27	26

While all textbooks include similar number of pragmatic points, most of those listed in Table 4.7 are still missing. Most of those offered in the textbooks deal with address forms, or formulaic expressions to perform speech acts like "greeting", "saying goodbye". Even these pragmatic points still need fuller discussion in many cases. The numerous pragmatic points associated with expressing feeling, attitude, vagueness and emphasis, or those that serve as pragmatic markers to manage interactive conversations go unnoticed by the textbook compilers.

4.4.2 Pragmatic information on particles

The pragmatic information on five Chinese particles that is presented in four textbooks will be discussed below. In discussing each point, only the volume number of textbook, like 1 and 2, and page number are provided in brackets as the source of the pragmatic information, which refers to the textbook under discussion unless otherwise specified.

Integrated Chinese. The information it provides on "*le* 了", "*ma* 吗" and "*ne* 呢" focuses on grammar, while a little pragmatic information has been provided for "*ba* 吧" and verbal

particle "*yī xià*一下". The particle "*le* 了" is often attached to the end of a sentence to indicate a change of situation, or the realization of actions or events (Part 1: 137, 208) or an action has been going on for some time (Part 2: 203). The particle "*ma* 吗" is added to make a declarative statement a question (Part 1: 29). The particle "*ne* 呢" is put after a noun or pronoun to form a question when the content of the questions is made clear by context (Part 1: 23), or indicates an action is in progress (Part 2: 106). The particle "*ba* 吧" can be added to soften the tone of a suggestion (Part 1: 129). The particle "*yī xià*一下 one+*measure word*" can soften the tone of a question or imperative, thus making it politer (Part 1: 126). While the pragmatic information on "*ba* 吧" and "*yī xià*一下 one+*measure word*" can be further supplemented, such information associated with particles like "*le* 了", "*ma* 吗" and "*ne* 呢" needs to be offered.

Practical Chinese. The information provided for five particles, except "*ba* 吧", focuses on grammar. The particle "*le* 了" is used to show the completion or realization of an action in the past, at present or in the future (1: 227), or completion or realization of an event or situation (2: 18-19). The particle "*ma* 吗" is used for a question expecting yes-no answer (1: 5). The particle "ne 呢" is used for elliptical question (1: 5) or an action is going on (2: 240). "*yíxià*一下 one+*measure word*" is added after a verb to indicate a short duration or an attempt and can soften the tone of expression (1: 92). None of the four particles above have any pragmatic information associated with them mentioned. For the particle "*ba* 吧", it is pointed out that it can be used in requests, commands, persuasion and consultation to soften the tone (1: 197), and in interrogative sentences to denote a note of estimation (2: 152). This pragmatic information needs supplementing, as on how it shows the agreement of the speaker.

Encounters. Little pragmatic information associated with four Chinese particles – "*ma* 吗", "*ne* 呢", "*le* 了" and "*ba* 吧" – has been provided. The information on the first three particles focuses on grammar. When the particle "*ma* 吗" is added, it turns a statement into a question (1: 38). For "*ne* 呢", when it is used after X, it indicates "And what about X?" (1: 38). It can also act as a sentence-end particle to show an action is going on (2: 222). The particle "*le* 了 is used to show the change of a state or situation, the occurrence of an extreme situation, an action completed, an imminent action, and so on (1: 184, 2: 5). As for "*ba* 吧", it is pointed out that it can be added to the end of a sentence, performing the functions like suggestion, assumption, supposition and reluctant agreement, with four examples provided (1: 77, 184).

However, no information associated with a speaker's attitude or uncertainty is mentioned. No pragmatic information is offered for the verbal particle "*yī xià*一下 one+measure word".

Chinese Link. The information on particles focuses on grammar, except for "*ba* 吧". The particle "*le* 了" is used to show the completion of an action or a situation or state has changed. The particle "*ma* 吗" is added to a declarative sentence to turn it into a question (1: 2). The particle "*ne* 呢" is used to turn a sentence into a question that can be translated into "How about X?", while the topic or the information about X is already shared in the preceding statement (1: 7, 2: 158). As for the verbal particle "*yī xià*一下 one+*measure word*", it is attached after verbs to indicate a brief action (1: 72). No pragmatic information associated with "*le* 了", "*ma* 吗", "*ne* 呢", and "*yī xià*一下 one+*measure word*", has been provided. As for "*ba* 吧", it is pointed out that the particle is used to indicate assumption or suggestion, with several examples supplied as well (1: 146, 149, 170). However, other pragmatic information that can be associated with it, like seeking agreement, showing a speaker's uncertainty, should be mentioned, with examples.

Summary. As regards the textbook's information on five Chinese particles, "*le* 了", "*ma* 吗" and "*ne* 呢", all four center on grammar rather than pragmatic dimensions, which need to be added or extended. For the particle "*yī xià*一下 one+*measure word*", while the compilers of *Integrated Chinese* offer some pragmatic information, it stills needs to be more specific about the pragmatic functions (see Chapter 3: 3.6). All the compilers offer some pragmatic information on the particle "*ba* 吧", with the information in *Encounters* and *Practical Chinese* more detailed than that in *Chinese Link* and *Integrated Chinese*. However, it needs to be supplemented with its pragmatic function in seeking agreement.

4.4.3 Pragmatic meaning associated with conversational topics

Except *Chinese Link*, all three textbooks have included information on the topics one can raise while talking with a Chinese to help improve their communicative competence. This is important because the topics that Chinese usually raise during daily communication are not exactly like those of their English counterparts. Choice of a wrong topic may lead to a conversational breakdown, thus causing a pragmatic failure. For Chinese, topics like age, income, marriage, health (e.g. Lu 1993: 97; Wu & Zhang 2007: 74) can be talked about. Aside from them, others like one's children, hometown, a person's job, weight or religious

beliefs are also not off limits for Chinese communicators. However, among those from English-speaking countries, talking about things like age, income, marriage, and religious beliefs, are usually avoided. Therefore, when such topics are brought up by a Chinese in talking with a foreign learner, this does not imply that the person intends to pry into the privacy of the hearers (e.g. Wang 1999: 93). On the contrary, by talking about those topics, Chinese are showing concern towards others, which is very common among acquaintances (Wu & Zhang 2007: 74).

Integrated Chinese. Three topics are listed as examples to show what Chinese often talk about in a "Culture Highlights". Privacy is a less sacrosanct concept in Chinese culture. Topics like age, marital status and salary are not off limits in polite Chinese conversation and sharing such information is a sign of trust (Part 1: 142). The items on the list of topics that Chinese tend to pick up can be added. The textbook can also explain why Chinese people act in this way.

Practical Chinese. The pragmatic information on topics that Chinese tend to raise in daily communications gets brief attention in a language note in (2: 228), that a senior family member or relative can ask a younger one about his/her age, marital status, income, occupation, which should be not be considered intrusive. Talking about these topics is not confined to the senior family members or relatives. The list of the topics could be expanded, with some mention of implied purpose of talking about them, and further examples to help illustrate how Chinese talk about these topics.

Encounters. In a boxed "For Your Interest", it is mentioned in passing that Chinese may ask questions like "How old are you?", "Are you married?" or "How much money do you make?" while talking, and the purpose of asking them is to establish rapport, reach out to a new friend, find connections and so on (2: 7). It is correct for compilers to point out the purpose for asking such questions. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that aside from the three topics mentioned, there are others to consider. Ideally, examples of how Chinese talk about these topics should be added.

Chinese Link. The compilers of *Chinese Link* have not provided any information on topics that Chinese tend to discuss with each other. No advice has been given to help CFL learners avoid choosing a wrong topic, and a communicative failure may ensue.

Summary. In terms of the pragmatic information on topics for conversing with Chinese, the compilers of three of the textbooks have offered similar amount of information. Those of

Integrated Chinese, *Practical Chinese* and *Encounters* all mention the purposes for raising particular topics, and list them in Chinese. However, the list of topics mentioned in the three textbooks is limited, and examples of how Chinese actually conduct conversations about the topics are needed to be conducive to L2 Chinese pragmatic learning.

4.5 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

It can be argued that the compilers of four textbooks—*Encounters*, *Integrated Chinese*, *Chinese Link* and *Practical Chinese*, are all aware of CFL learners' pragmatic needs, although not under that heading. This is reflected in various pragmatic points and other pragmatic information offered in the textbooks. They use a mix of translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations), language and culture notes, and grammatical explanations to present pragmatic information, though its coverage is dispersed and uneven.

Despite these efforts on the part of the textbook compilers, the pragmatic information in all four textbooks needs to be enlarged and diversified. Matched against 107 pragmatic points identified in association with HSK vocabulary (levels 1 and 2), almost three quarters of those points were missing from the four textbooks. Those points that were presented in the textbooks often need to be supplemented. Some pragmatic points, like "*dìdi* 弟弟 younger brother", "*mèimei* 妹妹 younger sister" as presented in *Encounters*, need to be corrected. In terms of the provision of pragmatic information in the four textbooks, there is much to be desired.

When CFL learners come across pragmatic problems, they can receive help in the classroom from teachers. However, as the review of teaching and learning Chinese pragmatics has indicated (see Chapter 2: 2.2), instruction on Chinese pragmatics can be marginalised in classroom settings. To address the problem, L2 Chinese learners can also resort to textbooks, yet as the investigation of the presentation of pragmatic information in the four textbooks has shown, they provide only limited information. L2 Chinese learners may therefore need to turn to other pedagogical materials for help, such as a learners' dictionary. We should now investigate how much pragmatic information is incorporated into the E-C dictionaries which target L2 learners of Chinese, including beginners, which will be the topic in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Pragmatic Information in Six Bilingual Learners' Dictionaries Targeting Chinese Beginners

5.0 Introduction

5.1 Criteria for Selecting the Six Reference Dictionaries

5.2 An overview of the Six Dictionaries

5.3 Pragmatic Information in Six dictionaries

5.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

5.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the pragmatic meanings relating to 120 Chinese words and linguistic constructions from core vocabulary were used to benchmark the coverage of four Chinese textbooks for beginning Chinese learners. Apart from textbooks, foreign language learners may also turn to learning aids like learner's dictionaries, for pragmatic information. This takes us to the second part of the third research question (RQ3): how much of the pragmatics associated with the core Chinese words and constructions is included in current learner's dictionaries for Chinese beginners.

About 70 E-C dictionaries or bidirectional Chinese ones found on Amazon.com claim to target L2 Chinese learners. The six dictionaries selected are comparable in terms of their medium, publishing date, targeting beginners and offering *pinyin,* and therefore suitable for comparison on their provision of Chinese pragmatic information. In what follows we will examine what pragmatic information is included, and in which of the dictionary's main structural components: their mega-, macro-, micro-, and medio-structures (Hartmann & James 2000). The quantity and quality of pragmatic information provided in each dictionary will also be assessed by reference to the set of pragmatic points associated with the core HSK vocabulary.

5.1 Criteria for Selecting the Six Reference Dictionaries

With English-Chinese or Chinese dictionary as keyword, a search on Amazon.com in May, 2014, showed there were about 70 E-C dictionaries or bidirectional Chinese ones compiled for the learners of Chinese. They usually claim to meet the learners' needs in their

introduction, preface, or other places such as the front cover. To select dictionaries for reviewing the pragmatic information contained within them, four criteria were established, as summarised in Table 5.1, and discussed in the following paragraphs.

Table 5.1: Four criteria for selecting six E-C or bidirectional Chinese learners' dictionaries

No.	Criteria
1.	Print dictionary, not electronic or multimedia
2.	Published in late 20th or early 21st century
3.	Targeting learners of Chinese, particularly beginners
4.	Having *pinyin* for learners unfamiliar with Chinese script

To start with, the E-C or bidirectional dictionaries are all print ones with headwords alphabetically ordered. Their publishers are renowned for dictionary publishing, such as The Far East Book Co., Ltd., Oxford University Press and Harper Collins Publishers Ltd, or L2 Chinese learning materials, such as Sinolingua Press, Periplus Editions (HK) ,and Hippocrene Books. My search on Amazon.com showed that there were also other print references available to L2 learners of Chinese, often with "dictionary" in their titles. Some of them organised the contents according to topics, themes, and the like. There were also E-C travelling brochures, phrasebooks, etc. in the guise of dictionaries. Those so-called "dictionaries" were not included as my study objects. E-C or bidirectional dictionaries in other media, such as online or electronic ones, were also excluded. Compared with print dictionaries, their online counterparts enjoy unlimited space, thus having the potential to offer more pragmatic information, which would make intercomparisons difficult.

The dictionaries selected (like the textbooks) had to be published well after pragmatics was established as a separate field of study. It is usually accepted that "[w]ith the publication of the *Journal of Pragmatics*, beginning in 1977, and Levinson ['s *Pragmatics*] (1983), pragmatics was widely acknowledged as an established discipline" (Ariel 2010:8). Dictionaries compiled long after pragmatic studies was firmly established might be expected to take the pragmatic needs of Chinese learners into account, and integrate elements of Chinese pragmatics into their dictionaries.

Last but not the least, the reference dictionaries should clearly target L2 Chinese learners. It is not uncommon for a bidirectional Chinese dictionary to claim to meet the needs of learners of English as well as Chinese. Theoretically speaking, this may not work, because the two types of learners need different kinds of lexicographical information. For example,

compilers targeting learners of Chinese ought to "check whether a linguistic and semantically relevant phenomenon [in Chinese] which [a Chinese] takes for granted, sometimes to the degree of not noticing it at all" (Zgusta 1971: 299), will not be a source of difficulty for foreign learners of Chinese. Dealing with such a phenomenon is indispensable for English learners of Chinese, yet, providing it in a dictionary for Chinese learners of English simply wastes limited space. An E-C dictionary for learners of Chinese should serve their encoding needs, although its usually limited macrostructure will be insufficient for the decoding needs of learners of English. Thus it is difficult to accommodate the needs of learners of Chinese and English in one dictionary.

Finally, the reference dictionaries need to have *pinyin* or a similar system for transcribing the pronunciation of the Chinese translation equivalents, the translated examples, etc. To native Chinese speakers, this criterion appears to be so simple as to be superfluous. It is, in fact, very important to L2 Chinese learners, particularly beginners, even though the fact *pinyin* differs from Chinese writing system poses some problems for foreign learners of Chinese (see Chapter 2: 2.1). Unlike English, "the written form of [Chinese] words-Hanzi—bears no direct relation to their pronunciation" (Xu 2002: 3). *Pinyin* as a phonetic system, "is the nearest we in the West get to a recognizable form of transcribing it" (Scurfield & Song, 2013: *The Mandarin Language* xx). The presence of a pronunciation system like *pinyin* in an E-C or bidirectional Chinese dictionary targeting foreign learners of Chinese highlights its learners' nature, since it "serves as a useful tool for foreign learners of Chinese by indicating the pronunciation of unfamiliar characters" ("Romanization of Chinese" 2015). Without the *pinyin* pronunciation system, beginning CFL learners may have great difficulty utilizing the lexicographical information provided, including pragmatic information. The simple reason for this is that they may not recognise Chinese translation equivalents, the translated examples, and so on. Without *pinyin*, it is very challenging for them to put the dictionaries to good use.

5.2 An Overview of the Six Dictionaries

According to the four criteria above, three English-Chinese dictionaries and three bidirectional Chinese ones have been selected. Three E-C ones are: *A Concise Practical English-Chinese Dictionary*, *Far East English-Chinese Pinyin Dictionary*, and *Tuttle English-Chinese Dictionary*. The three bidirectional Chinese ones are: *Oxford Beginner's Chinese Dictionary*, *Chinese-English/English-Chinese Practical Dictionary*, and *Collins Mandarin Chinese Dictionary*. The details of the six dictionaries, including their full title, abbreviated

title, directionality, edition, publication date, page number and approximate number of entries, are summarised in the table below.

Table 5.2: Details of six dictionaries in order of increasing number of entries

NO.	Abbreviation	Directionality	Edition	Publication date	Page number	Approximate entries
1.	*Oxford*	C-E/E-C	First	2006	332 (E-C section)	4, 800 (E-C section)
2.	*Practical*	C-E/E-C	First	2009	248 (E-C section)	6, 500 (E-C section)
3.	*Collins*	C-E/E-C	First	2009	368 (E-C section)	7, 500 (E-C section)
4.	*Concise*	E-C	First	1999	683	10, 000
5.	*Far East*	E-C	First	2009	327	12, 000
6.	*Tuttle*	E-C	First	2010	368	23, 000

It should be noted that for the three bidirectional Chinese dictionaries, the page number and approximate number of entries only refer to those of the E-C section or side. The size of an E-C dictionary or E-C section in a bidirectional dictionary is not very large. The number of entries in three E-C dictionaries has been indicated by their compilers, while that of three E-C sections was calculated by this researcher, based on the average of entries on five random pages multiplied by the page number of the section. Five E-C dictionaries or E-C sections include 12, 000 or fewer entries. The entries in *Tuttle* more than double this, and it claims on the front cover to be "[t]he only English-Chinese dictionary designed for English speakers" (*Tuttle* 2010). The compiler mentions including 10, 000 examples to help develop Chinese learners' communicative skills, yet the large inventory of headwords suggests it is more focused on the decoding rather than encoding needs of the learner.

All the six dictionaries listed in the Table 5.1 are printed volumes. Judging by the publication date, *Concise*, the earliest of the six dictionaries, went to press in 1999, long after pragmatics has become an independent field of study. The other five have all been published in the mid- or even the late 2000s. Therefore, in terms of offering pragmatic information, they should be quite comparable. All the dictionaries claim to target learners of Chinese, which has been clearly specified in the preface, foreword, etc. of three E-C dictionaries (*Concise* 2003: Foreword, *Far East* 2009: Preface, *Tuttle* 2010: Explanatory Notes). This has been emphasised by three bidirectional Chinese ones as well in similar places (*Collins* 2009: Introduction, *Practical* 2009: Guide to the Dictionary). The compilers of *Oxford* (2006:

Introduction) is even more specific about its potential users: beginners in Chinese. Meanwhile in all six dictionaries, *pinyin* has been provided for the Chinese translation equivalents, the translation of examples, or wherever else it is applicable.

5.3 Pragmatic Information in Six dictionaries

The pragmatic information in four main substructures of the six dictionaries—their megastructure, macrostructure, mediostructure and microstructure (Hartmann & James 2000), will be investigated below, in order of mega-, macro-, micro- and mediostructure. Reviewing pragmatic information in mediostructure comes last, since it looks at how such information in three other structures has been built into a network of cross-references. Megastructure refers to "[t]he totality of the component parts of a reference work, including the MACROSTRUCTURE and the OUTSIDE MATTER" (originally capitalised) (Hartmann & James 2000: 93). The outside matter indicates：

> all those components of the MACROSTRUCTURE of a reference work which do not form part of the central WORD-LIST. The outside matter is usually subdivided into FRONT MATTER (such as preface and user's guide), MIDDLE MATTER (such as panels [of text] and plates of illustrations) and BACK MATTER (such as lists of names and weights and measures) (Hartmann & James 2000: 104).

As is also pointed out (Hartmann & James 2000: 91), macrostructure refers to "[t]he overall LIST structure which allows the compiler and the user to locate information in a REFERENCE WORK. The most common format in Western dictionaries is the alphabetical WORD-LIST". Mediostructure is the same as cross-reference structure, which is the network of CROSS-REFERENCES allowing compilers and users of a reference work to locate material spread over different component parts (Hartmann & James 2000: 32), while microstructure "provides detailed information about the HEADWORD, with comments on its formal and semantic properties" (Hartmann & James 2000: 94).

5.3.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure

Since the pragmatic information in the *macrostructure* of six reference dictionaries will be compared below on its own (5.3.2), the following discussion of the components of megastructure will refer only to front matter, middle matter and back matter. The pragmatic

information located in them should participate in fulfilling the specific lexicographical function (Gouws 2009: 69) of offering "implicit" pragmatic teaching to beginners in Chinese.

5.3.1.1 Pragmatic information in front matter

The front matter of a dictionary usually consists of things like preface, user guide, the structure of dictionary entries. The six dictionaries contrast sharply in the number of items included in their front matter, with *Oxford* outperforming the other five. The items in the front matter of six dictionaries are summarised in the table below:

Table 5.3: Front matter in six dictionaries

No.	Dictionary	Directionality	Front matter
1.	*Oxford*	C-E/E-C	1. Introduction 2. How to use the dictionary 3. Tones in mandarin Chinese 4. The structure of Chinese-English entries 5. The structure of English-Chinese entries 6. Glossary of grammatical terms 7. Index 8. Basic Chinese measure words 9. Basic rules for writing Chinese characters
2.	*Practical*	C-E/E-C	1. Guide to the dictionary 2. Pronunciation guide 3. A guide to the tones in Chinese 4. Abbreviations
3.	*Collins*	C-E/E-C	1. Introduction 2. Dictionary skills 3. Writing Chinese 4. Chinese pronunciation 5. Radical index
4.	*Concise*	E-C	1. Foreword 2. How to use the dictionary
5.	*Far East*	E-C	1. Preface 2. Introduction 3. Abbreviations
6.	*Tuttle*	E-C	1. Acknowledgements 2. Explanatory Notes 3. Introducing Chinese 4. Meaningful Character Components 5. Measure Words

Neither pragmatics as a discipline nor any of its derivatives is mentioned in the front matter of any of the six dictionaries. Their absence could be an indicator of the compilers' neglect of pragmatic information, failure to incorporate it, or omitting to mention what is actually there in the dictionary. Since L2 learners need to learn the pragmatic properties of the target language and constructions (Tarp 2004: 233), measures should be taken to mention it as part of the front matter, even if it is not often read by learners when consulting a dictionary. There is open space upfront to explain the importance of Chinese pragmatics, and the ways it can be presented in the dictionary.

5.3.1.2 Pragmatic information in middle matter

The middle matter of a dictionary usually consists of inserts, i.e. a page or pages set apart from the A-Z list by its concentration on a given lexical topic. In looking into the pragmatic information in the middle matter of the six sampled dictionaries, middle matter was found only in the E-C section of one of the bidirectional dictionaries—none of the other bidirectional ones, nor the unidirectional ones.

Table 5.4: Middle matter in six dictionaries

No.	Dictionary	Direction ality	Middle Matter
1.	*Oxford*	C-E/E-C	Age, Be, The human body, The clock, Dates, days and months, Useful everyday expressions in Spoken Chinese, Forms of address (Miss, Mr., Mrs.), Get, Go, Have, Illnesses, aches and pains, It, Language and nationalities, Length and weight measurements, Musical instruments, Not, Shops, trades and professionals, Quantities, Games and sports, Talking about time, To
2.	*Practical*	C-E/E-C	0
3.	*Collins*	C-E/E-C	0
4.	*Concise*	E-C	0
5.	*Far East*	E-C	0
6.	*Tuttle*	E-C	0

Oxford is the only dictionary among the six that supplies thematic pages with panels of text inserted at intervals in the main alphabetic list of words but independent of it. The topics are many and varied, but some of them touch on pragmatics. Chinese translation of some English expressions and their *pinyin* transcription are provided in a few of them, e.g. inserts on "Age", "Forms of address (Miss, Mr., Mrs.) ", "Useful everyday expressions in Spoken Chinese" and "Not". However, there is little information to help dictionary users deduce the pragmatic aspects of these expressions in Chinese. For instance, in "Titles frequently used in addressing people in China" in "Forms of address (Miss, Mr., Mrs.)", one item is put as "*Teacher Wang* = wáng lǎoshī 王老师". However, it can be argued that only showing "wáng lǎoshī王老师 as a form of address is of little use to L2 Chinese learners. Without more detail, dictionary users may still be unclear how to use the address form appropriately (see the entry of "teacher" in Appendix 17). For example, the following questions are not addressed: can "wáng lǎoshī王老师" be used to address a teacher politely? Is it still a polite address if a

person' surname is not added? Under what conditions does the addressee's surname need to be present? When and where can a person use it to address others, including those who are not teachers? Thus, what pragmatic information there on this particular form of address in the middle matter of *Oxford* is limited. Yet *Oxford* is the only one of the six dictionaries to make use of the inserts in the middle matter.

5.3.1.3 Pragmatic information in back matter

The back matter of a dictionary can include many kinds of material, as shown for six dictionaries in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Back matter in six dictionaries

No.	Dictionary	Directionality	Back Matter
1.	*Oxford*	C-E/E-C	1. Dictionary know-how 2. The Chinese words and phrases you must know 3. Numbers 4. Phrasefinder 5. Dates for your diary 6. Quick reference guide to life and culture 7. Social survival guide
2.	*Practical*	C-E/E-C	Chinese character index
3.	*Collins*	C-E/E-C	0
4.	*Concise*	E-C	1. Provinces, Autonomous Regions, Special Administrative Region, Municipalities Directly Under the Central Government 2. Chinese surnames 3. Chinese family relationships 4. Commonly-used measure words
5.	*Far East*	E-C	1. Chinese Festivals 2. Countries, Cities, Regions 3. Practical Daily Usage 4. Hanyu Pinyin Table
6.	*Tuttle*	E-C	1. Irregular English Verbs 2. Common English Names with Chinese Transcriptions 3. U.S. Place Names with Chinese Transcriptions 4. World Place Names with Chinese Transcriptions

While the compilers of *Collins* did not include back matter, back matter covering various sociolinguistic and pragmatic topics useful to learners was incorporated into the other five dictionaries. The back matter in *Oxford* mainly focuses on meeting learners' communicative needs in relation to daily activities they are involved in. That in *Concise* can help learners of Chinese understand complicated Chinese family relationship. In *Far East*, Chinese festivals and *pinyin* table can help familiarise them with various festivals in China and the Chinese pronunciation. The back matter on place names in *Concise*, *Far East* and *Tuttle* can assist them in pronouncing a Chinese or world place name. However, "Irregular English Verbs" and "Common English Names with Chinese Transcriptions" in *Tuttle* seem to target Chinese English learners rather than learners of Chinese, in keeping with its dual aims (see 5.1).

In terms of the pragmatic information included in its back matter, *Oxford* has again outdone the other five dictionaries. *Concise*, *Practical* and *Tuttle* have provided back matter but none of it is pragmatic information. A little pragmatic information is provided in the back matter of *Far East* and *Oxford*. Both "Phrasefinder" in *Oxford* and "Practical Daily usage" in *Far East* offer some practical daily expressions in different settings, like greetings. The expressions take the form of English, *pinyin* transcription and Chinese translation. However, without additional pragmatic information involved in some expressions, like politeness in greeting others, it is difficult for Chinese learners to use them properly. In *Oxford* (2006: 497), another subsection also relevant to pragmatic information in its back matter is entitled "Social survival guide", providing guidance on Chinese cultural norms. For example, the Chinese way of showing friendly interest by asking some direct personal questions and the significance of face to Chinese are briefly mentioned. Information like this may help raise foreign Chinese learners' pragmatic awareness, thus preparing them to interact with Chinese appropriately. To help Chinese learners acquire Chinese pragmatics, the back matter in most of the six dictionaries could be better exploited, with more discursive treatment of pragmatic topics, such as politeness in Chinese culture.

5.3.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure

With 120 Chinese words and their associated linguistic structures as the benchmark for Chinese lexical pragmatics (see Chapter 3), a word list of the corresponding 97 English translation equivalents was drawn up. The Chinese equivalents of those 97 English words would cover the 120 Chinese pragmatic points identified—pragmatically loaded Chinese words or associated linguistic constructions. We then checked whether the 97 English words were included as headwords in the macrostructure of the six dictionaries, and found most of them are included in the macrostructure of the six dictionaries. Those missing from the macrostructure are absent or invisible for different reasons. For *Collins*, *Concise*, *Far East* and *Oxford*, the English word is simply not included as part of the headword list. However, in *Practical* and *Tuttle*, the situation is a bit different. Some words not included as part of the macrostructure are represented by inflectional or derivational forms of the headword. For example, "en" as the plural suffix of the headword "child" does not change its word class, thus "children" is an inflectional derivative of "child" in both *Practical* and *Tuttle*. Seven other words in *Practical* are all derivational in nature. By contrast, both "waiter" and "waitress" appear as the derivational derivatives of the headword "wait". Different from the

word class of "wait" (verb), that of "waiter" and "waitress" is noun. The English translation equivalents not included in the macrostructure of the six dictionaries are presented in the table below.

Table 5.6 English words not included in the macrostructure of six dictionaries

Dictiona-ry	Words in macrostructure	Words not in macrostructure	Inflected form	Derived form	Total not in macrostructure
Oxford	90	Children, creature, indeed, mister, prostitute, Sir., token			7
Practical	87	Mister, mom	Children	Beautiful, certainly, exactly, teacher, slowly, waiter, waitress	10
Collins	95	Mister, mom			2
Concise	94	Children, mom, problem			3
Far East	96	Children			1
Tuttle	95	Teacher	children		2

In terms of the total English words not included in the macrostructure of a dictionary, *Practical* has the largest number of omissions, followed by *Oxford* in the decreasing order. *Collins* and *Tuttle* both have two words not included in their macrostructure, while *Far East* has only one. Even if those omitted words do not form part of the macrostructure, they may appear in a dictionary as an inflected or derived form of a headword or in examples. But in such cases, no pragmatic information may have been provided with its Chinese translation equivalents. The missing words and word forms listed in Table 5.6 need to be added to the macrostructure in the six dictionaries so that the pragmatic information concerned can be attached to them, to benefit L2 learners of Chinese.

5.3.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure of E-C dictionaries

Starting with 120 Chinese pragmatic points as the benchmark, and the Chinese words associated with them, we checked and compared the pragmatic information presented in the microstructure of the 97 English translation equivalents that were used as headwords in the

six dictionaries, as summarised in Appendix 8. In it, the same four symbols—✓, ×, ⅄ and /, have been adopted to assess the quality of the pragmatic information supplied. The symbol "✓" indicates that an English equivalent is included in the macrostructure of a dictionary and the pragmatic information relating to the Chinese translation linguistic construction is adequate. The symbol "×" means the English equivalent has been included in the list of headwords of a dictionary, however, no pragmatic information relevant to its Chinese translation or the linguistic structures including it has been provided. The symbol "⅄" implies the English equivalent is present in the macrostructure of a dictionary but the pragmatic information concerning its Chinese translation is inadequate. The symbol "/" indicates that the English equivalent is not included in the macrostructure of the six dictionaries. Thus it follows that the pragmatic information relating to its Chinese translation or any linguistic structure including the translation is not provided in them either.

Table 5.7 below shows the number of pragmatic points incorporated into the microstructure of each dictionary – only small numbers in any of them.

Table 5.7: A summary of 120 pragmatic points covered in the microstructure of the six dictionaries

Dictionary title	*Collins*	*Oxford*	*Tuttle*	*Concise*	*Far East*	*Practical*
Pragmatic points of Chinese	19	18	12	3	2	0

Of the 120 points linked to the 97 English translation equivalents, the most (19) are presented in *Collins*, and the least (none) in *Practical*. Clearly these E-C dictionaries do not make regular use of the microstructure to present pragmatic information.

For a comprehensive list of the 120 Chinese pragmatic points which could be related to the 97 English headwords, refer to Appendix 8. Detailed analysis of the provision of such information in the microstructure of *Collins*, *Oxford*, *Tuttle*, *Concise* and *Far East* is provided in Appendixes 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 respectively.

The pragmatic information in the five dictionaries has been presented through a combination of the translation equivalents and the translation of examples, the equivalents with supplementary bracketed explanations, or (pragmatic) notes. Other lexicographical means, such as pragmatic labels, have not been used. Without supplementary pragmatic information provided via other means, it remains implicit in the translation equivalents. So reviewing the vehicles used to present the pragmatic information in the microstructure of the six dictionaries, the translation equivalent alone does not count. Translation equivalents

provided with the translation of examples, translation equivalents combined with supplementary bracketed explanations and (pragmatic) notes, are effective ways adopted by compilers to supply pragmatic information in the dictionaries.

5.3.3.1 Translation equivalents and the translation of examples

Translation equivalents and the translation of examples are the main ways adopted by dictionary compilers to present pragmatic information in *Collins*, *Concise*, *Oxford* and *Tuttle*. The compilers of *Far East* and *Practical* focus mainly on offering the translation equivalents of a headword, with very few examples provided in the microstructure. A comparison of the information in the microstructure of "gentleman" in *Collins*, *Oxford*, *Tuttle* and *Concise* is shown in Table 5.8. No pragmatic information was offered in this entry in *Far East* and *Practical*.

Table 5.8: A comparison of the pragmatic information provided in the microstructure of "gentleman" in four dictionaries

Dictionary	Lexicogra-phical means	Status of providing pragmatic information	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
Collins	Translation equivalent and that of example	✓	Gentlemen is translated into "*xiānsheng men* 先生们" in the example, indicating it is used an address.	"*xiānsheng men* 先生们" is a general polite address on formal public occasions. Its singular form can be used in a similar way.
Oxford	Translation equivalent and that of example	✓	The translation of "a gentleman" into "*yí wèi xiānshēng* 一位先生" implies "xiānshēng 先生" can be a polite term for man, since "wèi 位" is a polite measure word in Chinese.	"*xiānsheng*先生" as a polite address form needs to be added. When it is followed by the Chinese plural marker "men 们", it can be used to address a group of men politely on formal public occasions.
Tuttle	Translation equivalent and that of example	✓	The translation of the example shows that "*xiānsheng*先生" plus the plural marker "men 们" can be used as an address for a group of men.	"*xiānsheng*先生" is used as a general polite address for man. "*xiānshengmen* 先生们" is a polite address on formal occasions.
Concise	Translation equivalent and that of example	✓	Gentlemen is translated into "*xiānsheng men* 先生们" in the example, indicating it is used an address.	"*xiānsheng*先生" is used as a general polite address for man. "*xiānsheng men* 先生们" is a polite address on formal public occasions.

The translation of an example may help to convey the pragmatic information needed by L2 Chinese learners to encode the Chinese translation equivalent of "gentleman"—

“ xiānsheng先生” in this case, as has been done by the compilers of the four dictionaries. However, it needs to be noted that “gentleman” here does not refer to human character, such as “chivalrous, courteous, or honourable”(*Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary* (8th ed.)), but is a polite way of addressing a man. The compilers of *Oxford* translate the example—“a gentleman”, into “*yí wèi xiānshēng* 一位先生”, which implies “*xiānshēng* 先生” is a polite term for man, since “*wèi* 位” is a polite measure word for Chinese. The compilers of *Collins*, of *Concise* and *Tuttle* also utilise the translation of examples to show that the plural form of “gentleman”—“gentlemen”, can be rendered as “*xiānshengmen* 先生+Chinese plural marker *men* 们” in Chinese to address a group of men, but its politeness and the occasions for using it go unmentioned. Dictionary users could hardly deduce from the examples and their translation that “*xiānshēng* 先生” and “*xiānshengmen* 先生们” are polite Chinese address forms for men, which are usually used on formal public occasions. For L2 Chinese learners, this needs to be clearly specified.

5.3.3.2 Translation equivalents combined with supplementary bracketed explanations

Translation equivalents combined with supplementary bracketed explanations constitute another important way to present pragmatic information in the six dictionaries. Bracketed supplementary information following an equivalent in *Collins*, *Far East*, *Oxford* and *Tuttle* can help illustrate this. It has been used to furnish pragmatic information in the microstructure of 4 entries in *Collins*, 2 in *Far East*, 1 in *Oxford* and *Tuttle*. For example, in *Collins*, “*nǐ hǎo* 你好” is provided as the equivalent of one of the senses of “hello”, with “(as a greeting)” following it to explicate its pragmatic function in Chinese. It is important to note that the pragmatic information offered in this way is still somewhat inadequate. As regards “*nǐ hǎo* 你好”, it can be used to greet others. However, the fact that when faced with greeting someone on a formal occasion or someone senior in age or status, another form—“*nín hǎo* 您好 (polite) you+good” should be adopted, has gone unmentioned (Cf. Chapter 3: 3.3.1).

5.3.3.3 Pragmatic notes

Three sets of pragmatic notes have also been employed to offer the pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Collins* and *Oxford*, which all need to be supplemented. Such notes are named “LANGUAGE TIP” in the former. They appear in the form of an untitled note

preceded with an exclamation mark "!" in big font in *Oxford*. It ought to be emphasised that not all language tips or notes offer pragmatic information.

The pragmatic information presented in these various kinds of notes needs supplementing. *Collins* uses notes to detail the pragmatics of the Chinese equivalents for "eat" and "Miss", without doing so reliably though. The compilers do not point out that "(*nǐ*) *chī le ma*? (你) 吃了吗? (You) eat+*aspect marker+particle*" is used as a common greeting, not an invitation in China, and that this casual greeting is used around meal times apart from breakfast. The pragmatic information offered for "Miss" in *Collins* needs to be supplemented as well. It is correct to point out that "*xiáojiě* 小姐", the equivalent of "Miss", is an appropriate address for a young lady. Meanwhile, the dictionary needs also to add that an addressee's surname plus "*xiáojiě* 小姐" can be used to address a lady, regardless of her marital status. A caution is also needed since this term of address carries some negative associations with prostitution (see Chapter 3: 3.3.7.3). The *Oxford's* note in the microstructure of "do" about its Chinese translation equivalents is also rather limited. While it is often translated into "*duì bu duì*对不对" or "*shì bu shì*是不是" in tag questions, it also has pragmatic functions in constructions for providing or seeking confirmation, but these are not mentioned.

5.3.3.4 Summary

In a word, very few of the 120 points of Chinese pragmatics have been discussed in the microstructure of the 97 English translation equivalents in the six dictionaries, and none at all in *Practical.* Hardly any of the pragmatic points included have been presented adequately, The translation of examples is the major method used to help present the pragmatic aspects of the translation equivalents in *Collins*, *Concise*, *Oxford* and *Tuttle,* but much remains implicit in them. Bracketed explanations are occasionally formed in combination with translation equivalents in *Collins*, *Far East*, *Oxford* and *Tuttle* to present such information, and two (pragmatic) notes in *Collins* and one in *Oxford*. Other lexicographical means, like pragmatic labels, have not been employed at all to present pragmatic information in the microstructure of the six dictionaries.

5.3.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure

As a general benchmark for the use of cross-referencing in the six dictionaries, the number of cross-references in the first 50 pages of the three E-C dictionaries or E-C sections of three

bidirectional ones was investigated. This is a comparative measure of their normal use of cross-referencing for any kind of dictionary item, as a baseline to show how often pragmatic points might be cross-referred. It is to be expected that the larger the dictionaries in terms of pages/entries, the more cross-referencing. For the benefit of L2 learners, cross-references ought to be constructed between interrelated entries as well as between entries and special sections in the front, middle, and back matter (Tarp 2004: 234). Big differences in the use of mediostructure in the dictionaries were found, as summarised in the following table, with only minimal use to relate pragmatic information.

Table 5.9: Total cross-references in the mediostructure

Dictionary title	Directionality	Page number	Cross-references	Pragmatic
Oxford	C-E/E-C	167-216	74	2
Practical	C-E/E-C	215-264	8	0
Collins	C-E/E-C	217-266	173	0
Concise	E-C	1-50	0	0
Far East	E-C	1-50	0	0
Tuttle	E-C	1-50	36	0

The cross-references in *Oxford* concentrate on cross-referring an entry to an insert, of which there are many (see 5.3.1.2). For example, after "bookshop, bookstore", the cross-reference "▸ +344" refers the dictionary users to an insert entitled "Shops, trades and professions". There offers information about how to describe a person's profession. *Collins* appears to feature the largest number of cross-references, but their use is usually grammatical, connecting the past tense or past participle of an irregular English verb, or a different part of speech, which the compilers have listed as different headwords. For example, the word "back" has four parts of speech: adjective, adverb, verb and noun. Four cross-references in the form of "*see also*…" (236) are needed, thus boosting up its total cross-references. However, in other dictionaries, the four parts of speech are all listed under one headword "back", thus no cross-references are needed. The 8 cross-references in *Practical* also focus on grammar, connecting the past tense or past participle of an irregular English verb in the list of headwords with the verb, like "See be" (235) in the entry of "been". Most of the cross-references in *Tuttle* also link the past tense or past participle of an irregular English verb. There are cross-references that connect a phrase among the headwords and its abbreviation, like "closed circuit television See CCTV" (46); or

two forms of the same word, like "Coke See Coca-cola". But there is a scarcity of cross-references for joining words to other relevant pragmatic information in the 50 pages sampled.

To focus specifically on pragmatic cross-referencing in the six dictionaries, all the 97 English translation equivalents were examined as possible sites for cross-references. In *Oxford* the 11 pragmatic cross-references all take the form of "▸+page number", connecting the pragmatic information within an individual entry and with a panel of information (referred to as a "usage note") on another page. This kind of inserts can be used to discuss pragmatic and other topics. The only cross-reference in *Tuttle* (183) is provided for "mister": "See Mr.", which links the pragmatic information of the two entries. No cross-references have been used in *Collins*, *Concise*, *Far East* and *Practical* to connect pragmatic information in different entries or substructures of the dictionary.

It can be argued that mediostructure has been severely underused to present and connect the relevant pragmatic information in the six dictionaries. Many more cross-references could be constructed, to guide dictionary users to relevant information in different entries (Tarp 2004: 238), including pragmatic information.

5.4 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

Even though the compilers of the six reference dictionaries seem to be aware of L2 Chinese learners' communicative needs, the provision of Chinese pragmatic information in the megastructure, macrostructure, microstructure and mediostructure still leaves much to be desired. To cater to the pragmatic needs of L2 Chinese beginners, Chinese pragmatic information needs to be detailed at many structural levels of an E-C dictionary via all the conventional lexicographical means or combinations of them. The front, middle and back matter can be utilised to support L2 Chinese learners' pragmatic knowledge. The missing English translation equivalents for Chinese words that embed pragmatic points need to be added into the macrostructure. The microstructure for the Chinese translation equivalents could contain not only more examples but pragmatic explanations or notes and pragmatic labels to guide the user. Better use could be made of the mediostructure to connect all the pragmatic information into a multifaceted system.

To show how this goal may be achieved, an expandable E-C learners' dictionary incorporating the benchmark 120 pragmatic points will be compiled for experimental

purposes, to be used in two stages. Its design will be discussed in chapter 6, and the methodology for experimental testing of it in chapter 7.

Chapter 6: Principles for Presenting Pragmatic Information in an Expandable Experimental E-C Learners' Dictionary

6.0 Introduction

6.1 The First-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

6.2 The Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

6.3 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

6.0 Introduction

The previous chapter's review of the pragmatic information in standard dictionaries showed that it was limited in both quantity and quality. It suggested that a concentrated reference on Chinese pragmatics—"a customised dictionary which integrates pragmatic information into every dictionary component" (RQ4) was needed, to provide support for CFL beginners. It would be designed to support encoding from English into Chinese, i.e. the practical purposes of communication in a foreign-language learning setting. It could also serve as an instrument in empirical research on CFL learners' acquisition of pragmatic concepts. The design of this experimental dictionary is the focus of this chapter, while the methodology for evaluating its efficacy in supporting and developing students' pragmatic understanding is the subject of Chapter 7. The pragmatic information presented is broadly in line with the prescriptive tradition, so that it represents "the essential dimension of [pragmatic] guidance" (Morris 1969: vi, cited in Gray 2014: 177) for Chinese beginners. The "distinction between a descriptive and a prescriptive approach [in lexicography] is not always absolutely clear" (Bergenholtz & Gouws 2010: 20), however; and some of the information is necessarily descriptive, despite my efforts "to be [more] prescriptive" (Bergenholtz 2003: 74).

Groundwork for the design of the experimental E-C dictionary was laid by the preliminary investigation into the vocabulary needed for the first two levels of the 21st century HSK syllabus, and the identification of 120 Chinese words and constructions that embed essential Chinese pragmatics (see Chapter 3). This analysis provides a systematic approach to the pragmatic concepts associated with basic Chinese. The Chinese vocabulary needed is accessed through the nearest English translation equivalents, which make up the macrostructure (headword list) of the experimental E-C dictionary. The range of Chinese

pragmatics covered then includes basic speech acts and speech functions, as well as topics that need discursive treatment in the back matter, such as Chinese politeness, Chinese particles, and preferred or dispreferred topics of conversation. Chinese pragmatics will in fact be presented in all the structural components of the dictionary (micro-, macro-, medio- and megastructure), and through various lexicographical means in combination. The experimental pragmatics dictionary was designed for delivery in two-stages, corresponding to the first and second levels of the HSK syllabus, with the second-stage version including all of the first, plus additional material relating to the larger second-level Chinese vocabulary.

In addition to the 120 Chinese pragmatic points (see Appendix 1) associated with the 300 core Chinese words of by HSK lexical syllabus for levels 1 and 2, another 21 semantically related expressions containing Chinese words beyond the basic 300 were added to the experimental dictionary, to enhance the CFL learner's resources for communicating politeness, speech acts, vagueness and various attitudes (see Appendix 14). Of these supplementary expressions, 21 relate to 18 Chinese words and associated linguistic constructions: 15 of them (=14 words) are incorporated into the first-stage dictionary, while the remaining 6 (=4 words) are added into the second-stage dictionary. The allocation of the pragmatic points in the first-stage and second-stage dictionary is shown in the summary table below.

Table 6.1: Pragmatic points as incorporated into the first- and second-stage dictionary

Number of pragmatic points included	First-stage dictionary	Second-stage dictionary additions	Total
Pragmatic points relating to first 300 words of HSK syllabus	81	39	120
Pragmatic points relating to level 1 HSK vocabulary	64	11	75
Pragmatic points relating to level 2 HSK vocabulary	17	28	45
Supplementary points relating to words beyond first 300 words in HSK syllabus	14	4	18
Total pragmatic points	95	43	138
No. of English translation equivalents	75	31	106

As shown in the table above, he first-stage dictionary included a total of 95 pragmatic points, 81 of which are related to the first 300 words of HSK syllabus, while another 14 are associated the words beyond the HSK set. Where an extraneous Chinese word coincided with one within the first 300, it was not considered an additional pragmatic point, as with the the pragmatic information relating to "*àiren* 爱人 loved person". It is beyond the first 300 words, but simply enlarges on the use of "*xiānshen* 先生 husband", thus is not considered an

additional pragmatic point, and the total of pragmatic points covered in the first-stage dictionary adds up to 95 rather than 96.

A total of 43 pragmatic points were added in the second-stage version of the experimental dictionary, of which 39 points are involved with words from the first 300 of the HSK syllabus. Another 6 pragmatic expressions which are associated with words beyond the first 300 words were added. Again, it should be noted that the pragmatic information associated with "*àiren* 爱人 loved person" and "*tàitai* 太太 wife" only enlarges on that of "*qīzi* 妻子 wife", and pragmatic information relating to "*dàifu* 大夫 doctor" supplements that of "*yīshēng* 医生 doctor". The pragmatic information relating to them is not regarded as additional pragmatic points. This explains why 4 rather than 6 additional pragmatic points relating to Chinese words beyond the first 300 required by new HSK, were added into the second-stage dictionary. The total of pragmatic points in the second-stage dictionary is 138, associated with a headword list of 106 English translation equivalents..

The pragmatics of all the words and constructions included in the two dictionaries are analysed in Appendixes 15 and 16 respectively.

6.1 The First-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

The first-stage experimental E-C dictionary includes within its different structural components Chinese pragmatic information on basic speech acts and speech functions, including those that call for discursive treatment, like Chinese particles, and conversational topics. A total of 81 out of 120 Chinese pragmatic points associated with the 300 words of Levels 1 and 2 HSK lexical syllabuses are incorporated into the first-stage dictionary. Of those, 64 out of 81 pragmatic points are associated with Chinese words from the first 150 words of Level 1 HSK. An additional 17 pragmatic points, as listed in Table 6.1, involve words from the 151-300 listed in HSK list for Level 2, which are also included in the first-stage dictionary. These additional 17 pragmatic points of Chinese are included to the first-stage dictionary to enrich the pragmatic information on performing speech acts, such as addressing, saying goodbye, and that on politeness and pragmatic markers.

Table 6.2: 17 Chinese pragmatic points employing words from the 151-300 section of HSK list

No	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
1	*bù zhīdào…*	不知道…	Not know	I wonder	Request/formula	Wonder
2	*dìdi*	弟弟	Younger brother	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's	Brother

					younger brother, but for talking about him	
3	…+ *gē*	…哥	…brother	Buddy	Politeness/address	Brother
4	*guì xìng*	贵姓	honorific surname	May I have your name	Politeness in asking name/formula	Surname
5	*gē* （*ge*）	哥（哥）	Elder brother	Elder brother	Addressing one's edler brother	Brother
6	…jiě	…姐	…elder sister	Given name	Politeness/address	Sister
7	*jiě*（*jie*）	姐（姐）	Elder sister	Elder sister	Addressing one's elder sister	Sister
8	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Slow slow eat	Take your time in enjoying the food	Politeness in food manners/formula	Eat
9	*mèimei*	妹妹	Younger sister	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger sister, but for talking about her	Sister
10	*nǐ bù zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你不知道（吗/吧）	You not know (*particle*)	Don't you know…	Targeting speaker's words, explaining or providing new information	Know
11	*nǐ máng* （*ba*）	你忙（吧）	You busy (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Busy
12	*nǐ máng ma*/*máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	You busy+*particle*/ busy not busy	How are you	Greeting/formula	Busy
13	*nǐ xiān máng*	你先忙	You first busy	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Busy
14	*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你知道（吗/吧）	You know (*particle*/*particle*)	Don't you know	Drawing attention, seeking agreement	Know
15	nín	您	(Polite) You	you	Politeness in addressing	You
16	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Evening good	Good evening	Greeting/formula	Good evening
17	*zǎo*/*zǎoshang hǎo*	早/早上好	Morning, morning good	Good morning	Greeting/formula	Good morning

These 17 points are mostly formulaic in nature, and enlarge the sets of pragmatic formulae for beginning CFL learners. For instance, "*xiàwǔ hǎo* 下午好 afternoon good" which employ words from the first 150 required by HSK, is included in the first-stage dictionary, along with similar expressions like "*zǎo/zǎoshang hǎo* 早/早上好 morning good", "*wǎnshang hǎo* 晚上好 evening good", even if the nouns in "*zǎoshang*早上 morning" and "*wǎnshang*晚上 evening" belong to the 151-300 section of HSK list.

In addition to the 81 points associated with the core HSK vocabulary, a further 14 supplementary pragmatic points on Chinese introduced into the first-stage E-C experimental dictionary are based on words beyond the first 300 HSK words. Listed in Table 6.2, these 14 points are introduced to enhance the pragmatic information on performing speech acts like addressing one's family members, saying goodbye, or that on vagueness and politeness.

Table 6.3: 15 Chinese pragmatic expressions employing Chinese words beyond the 300 required by HSK

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
0	*àiren*	爱人	*Husband*	*Husband*	Referring to one's husband in introducing	Husband
1	*bàibai*	拜拜	*Bye-bye*	*Bye-bye*	Saying goodbye/formula	Bye-bye
2	*dà gē*	大哥	*Elder brother*	*Elder brother*	Politeness/address	Brother

3	*dà jiě*	大姐	*Elder sister*	*Elder sister*	Politeness/address	Sister
4	*kǒngpà*	恐怕	*Afraid*	*I'm afraid*	Vagueness	Afraid
5	*…nǎinai*	…奶奶	*...grandma*	*Given name*	Politeness/address	Grandmother
6	*nǎinai*	奶奶	*Grandma*	*Given name*	Addressing one's grandmother	Grandmother
7	*nín duō dà niánjì le*	您多大年纪了	*You how big age*	*How old are you*	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
8	*nín duō dà suìshù le*	您多大岁数了	*You how big age*	*How old are you*	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
9	*nín gāo shòu*	您高寿	*You high life-span*	*How old are you*	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
10	*sījī…*	司机…	*Driver*	*Sir.*	Politeness/address	Driver
11	*tīngshuō*	听说	*Hear say*	*It is said that*	Vagueness	Say
12	*wèi*	位	*Measure word*	*Measure word*	Politeness	You
13	*… yéye*	…爷爷	*...Grandfather*	*Given name*	Politeness/address	Grandfather
14	*yéye*	爷爷	*Grandfather*	*Given name*	Addressing one's grandfather	Grandfather

In all, 95 Chinese pragmatic points (see Appendix 6.2) are included in the first-stage E-C learners' dictionary. Those points are incorporated in 75 entries through their English translation equivalents, as summarised in Table 6.3.

Table 6.4: 75 entries of the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary

No	Headword	No	Headword	No	Headword	No	Headword
1	★Afraid	20	Excuse	39	Let	58	Say
2	Age	21	Friend	40	Look	59	See
3	Ask	22	Gentleman	41	Matter	60	Sir
4	Be	23	Good	42	May	61	Sister
5	Beautiful	24	Goodbye	43	Mind	62	Sorry
6	Body	25	Good afternoon	44	Miss	63	Surname
7	Brother	26	Good evening	45	Mister	64	Teacher
8	Busy	27	Good morning	46	Mom	65	Thank
9	Buy	28	★Grandfather	47	Mr.	66	Thing
10	★Bye	29	★Grandmother	48	Name	67	Think
11	Can	30	Have	49	No	68	This
12	Child	31	Health	50	Not	69	Time
13	Children	32	Hello	51	Okay	70	Tomorrow
14	Correct	33	Hey	52	Or	71	Visit
15	Creature	34	How	53	Order	72	What
16	Dad	35	Husband	54	Person	73	Where
17	Do	36	Invite	55	Prostitute	74	Wonder
18	★Driver	37	Kid	56	Really	75	You
19	Eat	38	Know	57	Right	76	

The five English headwords marked with "★" indicate those where the Chinese equivalents involve the supplementary Chinese pragmatic expressions which include words beyond the 300, required by core HSK lexical syllabus.

Apart from the information on Chinese pragmatics included in the microstructure (individual entries), it is also presented in the megastructure, macrostructure, and mediostructure of the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, as discussed below.

6.1.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure: front and back matter

Very little information on Chinese pragmatics was discussed in the megastructure of any of the six reference dictionaries, i.e. the front matter, middle matter and back matter (see Chapter 5: 5.3.1). However, learners' dictionaries are able to present lexicographical information in these components in innovative ways to enhance information retrieval from the dictionaries (Gouws 2009: 88), and thus support L2 learners with their language learning, including pragmatics. To put this into practice, measures have been taken to present pragmatic information in the megastructure of the experimental E-C dictionary.

6.1.1.1 Pragmatic information in front matter

A section entitled "Structure of Entries" is provided in the front matter of the first-stage experimental dictionary, introducing the various lexicographical means to provide different types of lexicographical information, including pragmatic information. It instructs users on the factual consultation of a dictionary (Herberg 1998: 339 cited in Gouws 2009: 74), so as to prompt their optimal use of the dictionary's pragmatic information (Gouws 2009: 79). Because the "Structure of Entries" diagram is more related to presenting pragmatic information in the microstructure, thus will be discussed in section 6.1.3 below.

A short essay entitled "**The Inventory of Pragmatic Information**" in the front matter outlines the pragmatic information in the first-stage dictionary, including its functions, the date of its first introduction into English learners' dictionaries, and the specific types of such information integrated. Various means to provide it, like equivalents, pragmatic labels, are listed as well. This essay affirms the importance of pragmatic information for L2 Chinese learners, echoing Leech and Thomas' emphasis on it in "*Pragmatics and the Dictionary*" (1987) in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2nd Edition). However, it is acknowledged that dictionary users often do not pay sufficient attention to the introduction, which would explain why the essay was missing from the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (4th Edition).

6.1.1.2 Pragmatic information in the back matter

Pragmatic information has been offered in the back matter of the first-stage E-C dictionary in appendixed essays entitled "Pragmatics in Interaction" (Appendix I), "Particles" (Appendix II) and "Topics You Can Take Up with Chinese" (Appendix III). They have a supporting function for dictionary users in learning the language presented in a dictionary (Herberg 1998: 339 cited in Gouws 2009: 74). Similar kinds of material might be included as "inserts" in the first-stage dictionary. But because they consist of a few pages, they would have challenged the formatting arrangements of the main lexicographical content. Therefore, these more discursive texts on pragmatics are therefore lodged together as appendixes, along with "Topics You can Take up with Chinese".

In Appendix I of the first-stage dictionary—"Pragmatics in Interaction" [see Appendix II of the second-stage dictionary], alternative linguistic expressions to realise 9 common speech acts -- including apologising, criticising, giving and receiving thanks, greeting, refusing, requesting, responding to compliments, saying goodbye and suggesting -- have been provided. They represent the stronger user-perspective in selecting contents in the front, middle and back matter (Gouws 2009: 75), to cater for their pragmatic needs. Differences between those expressions in terms of politeness, directness and so on, can be detailed there. The structure of the content on each specific speech act is almost the same, including general description of the speech act, the various factors, like politeness and directness, which may affect the linguistic expressions for carrying it out; and a table listing different pragmatic expressions according to those factors. The pragmatic information presented within the microstructure of individual entries is cross-referenced to the relevant expressions in the appendix.

Appendix II [see Appendix III in the second-stage dictionary] in the back matter of the experimental dictionary focuses on Chinese "Particles". Chinese modal particles usually do not have a distinct meaning nor a ready English translation equivalent, thus posing great challenges to L2 learners of Chinese (e.g. Chu 1986: 37; Chang 1988: 230; Xu 1998a: 27). Therefore, presenting the pragmatic information associated with them in the microstructure of individual entries will be challenging, and make it rather dispersed. Concentrating such information in the back matter of an E-C dictionary can be a neat way to solve this problem. It should be added that pragmatic aspects of the modal particles are presented together with the grammatical information associated with them. In the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, pragmatic information on 3 particles is presented in this section: two modal particle—"*ma* 吗"

and "*ne* 呢" and one verbal particle "*yíxià* （*r*）一下（儿）". Information relating to each Chinese particle is presented through an itemised statement of its pragmatic functions plus supporting examples for illustrating the statement.

Appendix III [see Appendix IV in the second-stage dictionary] of the dictionary features "Topics You Can Take Up with Chinese". Understanding what conversational subjects can be raised may vary from culture to culture (see also Chapter 4: 4.4.3). Chinese culture seems to differ greatly from English culture in this regard. Chinese may talk about things that are sensitive to English people, like age, income, marital status, with no intention of nosing into each other's privacy, and a list of what topics that can be raised is given (e.g. Liu 1991: 50; Zhou 2000: 52). Talking about those topics is a distinctive Chinese way to show concern for the interests of others (Liu 1991: 50; Chang 1992: 50; Bi 2005: 68). For each specific topic, a model conversation in English is offered first, followed by the *pinyin* transcription of its Chinese translation, then the translation itself. The translation shows how Chinese people usually talk about it. If it is linked with relevant pragmatic information in other parts of the dictionary, cross references will be provided as well.

6.1.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure

Discussing how the pragmatic information has been presented in the macrostructure of the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary intersects with how the headwords are determined and arranged. The English translation equivalent of a Chinese pragmatic point determines the inventory of headwords in the first-stage E-C dictionary as discussed above in 6.1. No matter if the pragmatic point is a Chinese word or a linguistic construction including it, the corresponding English translation equivalent of this word or the keyword in that of the construction constitutes the access point in the list of headwords. All the headwords are arranged alphabetically, whether it is a single English word or multi-word expression like "good afternoon".

Each English word whose Chinese translation equivalent is pragmatically loaded is included as part of macrostructure, so as to present pragmatic information in the first-stage dictionary systematically and accurately. In the six reference dictionaries analysed in Chapter 5, some of such words were not included as headwords, or else reduced to be a secondary reference of a headword, either its plural or derivative form (see Chapter 5: 5.3.2). Pragmatic usage of "children" can help illustrate this: it was not included as a headword in the six

dictionaries reviewed, although it appeared as the plural of "child" in *Oxford* and *Practical*. Yet its Chinese translation equivalent can be used to address a group of children affectionately (see Chapter 3: 3.3.7.2). So it is included as an independent English headword in the first-stage experimental dictionary.

Multiword expressions like "good afternoon"—the translation equivalents of Chinese greetings—are also included as part of the macrostructure of the first-stage dictionary. In all six reference dictionaries except *Oxford* (see Chapter 5: 5.3.2), it was either included in the microstructure of the headword "good", as in *Collins*, *Far*, *Practical* and *Tuttle*, or under the accompanying noun e.g. "afternoon", as in *Concise*. Dictionary users may expect it to be listed under the first salient word, usually a noun. Even if the pragmatic information associated with its Chinese translation was provided, such information may not be understood systematically in relation to the translation equivalents of other headwords, and not so accessible. Therefore, in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, "good afternoon" is listed independently in the macrostructure in its alphabetical place. In this way, the pragmatic information associated with its Chinese equivalent, and others used as formulaic expressions to greet somebody, or say goodbye to them, can be treated more systematically for the dictionary user. Including them in the macrostructure will help dictionary users find the pragmatic information associated with their Chinese equivalents with less effort, and better access generic information.

6.1.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure

The "Structure of Entries" diagram in the front matter provides a useful overview of the lexicographical vehicles to offer pragmatic information in the microstructure of individual entries.

Structure of Entries

busy *adjective* (**having many things to do**)

máng 忙: Chinese equivalent

Our teacher is very busy now. wǒmen lǎoshī xiànzài hěn máng。

Example sentence

我们老师现在很忙。***Are you busy***? nǐ máng ma？你忙吗？nǐ máng bù máng？你忙不忙？ Translation of example

Pragmatic explanation

(**!** in Chinese culture, you can be busy with your work first. nǐ/nín xiān máng！ 你/您先忙！) **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

Cross-reference

phrases be busy with máng zhe **忙着…:**

have

◆ *verb*

1 (**to possess or enjoy a special relation to**) yǒu 有:

2 (to eat or drink): chī 吃; hē 喝:

◆ *auxiliary verb*

Pragmatic note

Pragmatic Note: When duìbùqǐ对不起…对不起，先生，请问您知道医院怎怎么走吗？ **See sorry**

In the "Structure of Entries" diagram, the lexicographical vehicles that may potentially be utilised to house pragmatic information in the microstructure are shown, such as translation equivalents, examples and their translations, pragmatic explanations, notes and labels. English definitions of a headword are provided to help dictionary users locate and match a headword with its Chinese equivalent, an authentic expression in Chinese (Marello 1998: 295). Also included in it is a cross-reference of "**See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**" (=Appendix I in teh first-stage dictionary), which is part of mediostructure. It immediately follows the bracketed pragmatic explanation on "nǐ/nín xiān máng！ 你/您先忙!", and cross-refers the explanation to relevant pragmatic information, the "insert" on saying goodbye. Explaining how pragmatic information is presented in the microstructure helps dictionary users to locate such information (Wu & Zhou 2010: 12) and use it in their pragmatic learning.

6.1.3.1 Pragmatic labels

Pragmatic labels are adopted in the microstructure to present pragmatic information. They were not employed by the compilers of any of the six reference dictionaries as a way to present such information (see Chapter 5: 5.3.3), though they have long formed part of lexicographers' repertoire to detail pragmatic aspects of words (Rundell 1998: 336; see also Table 1.1). They are usually added before the translation equivalents or the translation of a headword in examples. As Janssen, Jansen and Verkuyl (2003: 298) pointed out, the "incorporation of [pragmatic] labels in [a dictionary] is mainly justified for the purpose of language production". This is exactly the purpose of introducing such labels into the first-stage experimental dictionary, where they consist of two types: bracketed and boxed ones. The angle-bracketed labels are usually applied to speech acts, and the rectangular boxes to other speech functions (see diagram 3.1). In using them, great care has been given "to avoid confusion in those cases where a label should pertain only either to [head]-word or to the equivalent" (Zgusta 1971: 335), so that users could be aware that the labels are used for the translation equivalents alone.

Pragmatic labels within angle brackets. An italicised pragmatic label in a pair of angle brackets is adopted to indicate the Chinese expressions for performing particular speech acts (see Diagram 3.1 in Chapter 3). Speech acts like apologising, criticising, giving and receiving thanks, greetings and forms of address are included in the first-stage experimental dictionary.

For example, a Chinese term used for addressing people is labeled thus: <*Address*>. The label is usually placed before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation equivalent of a headword. For instance, "<*Address*>" is added before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation equivalent of "Mr."—"…xiānsheng …先生", indicating the equivalent is used to address a person.

However, for some entries, such a label appears before the *pinyin* of the translation of a headword in an example. The reason is that its use as an address form is just one function of the Chinese translation equivalent of a headword, since the equivalent can also be used as a common noun. Pragmatic labels for the translation of headwords like "child", "children" and "teacher" all fall into this type. The translation of the headword in this case is underlined, implying this label only clarifies the pragmatic function of this equivalent. The label added for the translation equivalent of the headword—"teacher" in its example sentence can

illustrate this: "***Teacher, (i.e. Sir) good morning***! *<Address>* …lǎoshī，zǎoshɑng hǎo！老师，早上好！" In this case, "*<Address>*" applies only to underlined "老师" in Chinese.

<Request> is another case in point, standing for the speech act that a Chinese expression can perform. For instance, in the entry of "can", "Can you help these children?" is offered as an example. Before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation of this example, *<Request>* is added: "*<Request>* …nǐ néng bāng (yíxià) zhèxiē háizi mɑ？你能帮（一下）这些孩子吗？/ nǐ néng bu néng bāng (yíxià) zhèxiē háizi？你能不能帮（一下）这些孩子？". This indicates the underlined Chinese linguistic structures "*néng… ma* 能…吗 can… *particle*" and "*néng bu néng*…? 能不能…? can no can…?" are used to make a request in Chinese, which are interchangeable in almost all contexts.

Pragmatic labels in rectangular boxes. The other type of pragmatic label is set in a rectangular box to indicate the pragmatic functions of the expressions that follow, such as **Attitude**, **Feeling**, **Emphasis**, **Polite**, **Vagueness** (see diagram 3.1 in Chapter 3). The formulaic nature of certain Chinese pragmatic expressions is marked with **Formula**, to draw dictionary users' attention to it. **Pragmatic marker** indicates that some Chinese linguistic constructions have the pragmatic functions of conveying an attitude or feeling, although they do not contribute to the propositional content of an expression.

If a certain attitude is conveyed by the equivalent of a headword or the Chinese translation of a linguistic construction including this headword, then **Attitude** is supplied to remind dictionary users to attend to it. The specific attitude is often detailed through an explanation in a pair of parentheses. **Attitude** "associates a [Chinese] word or phrase with a particular attitude … on a scale of emotiveness from 'appreciative' through neutral (the unmarked zone) to 'derogatory' and 'offensive'" (Hartmann & James 2000: 38) in the first-stage dictionary. For example, the headword "good" has an illustrative example like this: "***not so good*** ... **Attitude** bù zěnmeyàng 不怎么样". The attitude conveyed is then specified: (***!*** *This expression shows the speaker doesn't think too much of something and may convey contempt*). This is further supported with another example in the form of dialogue: "A: '***What do you think of the new clothes?*** nǐ juéde xīn yīfu zěnmeyàng？你觉得新衣服怎么样?'—B: '***Not so good.*** bù zěnmeyàng。不怎么样。' " It is hoped that by presenting the specific attitude conveyed by "*bù zěnmeyàng*不怎么样 not so good" in this way, dictionary

users can pay attention to the negative tone associated with it when listening or using it themselves. Even if "Not so good" is often used as a hedge in English, the more straightforward negative tone conveyed by its Chinese translation equivalent—"*bù zěnmeyàng*不怎么样 not so good", and shown in the example and its translation, should highlight its negative meaning. If the Chinese equivalent of a headword or the translation of a linguistic structure containing the headword conveys a speaker's feelings, such as like or dislike, affection or indifference, **Feeling** will be attached in front of it. For instance, the headword "child" is provided with an example, the *pinyin* transcription of its translation and the translation itself: "***Child (i.e. dear), you need to study hard !*** ... **Feeling** háizi，nǐ yào hǎohǎo xuéxí！ 孩子，你要好好学习". The feeling conveyed by the translation equivalent or the translation of the linguistic structure is also detailed in parentheses following the equivalent or translation: "(! ...can be used by an older person to address his own children or those who he holds dear affectionately.)

Suppose "special force or attention is given to something" (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* 1987: 333) by using the equivalent of headword or the translation of a linguistic structure including it, the label **Emphasis** will be provided to remind the dictionary users to heed this. For instance, in the microstructure of "really", before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation equivalent of its first sense, **Emphasis** is added to highlight that its Chinese translation equivalent is also often used for emphasis in Chinese contexts, and is further supported with an example.

Formula is another pragmatic label used to highlight the form rather than the content of a Chinese pragmatic expression. As defined by the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (4th Edition) (1989: 485), a formula is a "fixed arrangement of words, esp. as used on social, legal or ceremonial occasions". The plural form of formula—"formulae", are "those sequences that are used frequently by speakers in certain prescribed social [or other] situations" (Bardovi-Harlig 2009: 757). Formulae are fixed in their sequence and used on specific occasions, which can be pragmatically significant to the learners of a foreign language. Learners who acquire them "may not actually know the meaning of the individual component words of a routine formula, but [can apply] their function and their meaning in context" (Rover 2012: 11). Thus formulae are marked out in the first-stage experimental dictionary for learners to pay special attention to as well. For example, for the third sense of

"excuse"—"when asking others for information", **Formula** comes before its two translation equivalents: "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" and "*qǐngwèn* 请问" to highlight their fixed nature.

If the Chinese translation equivalent of a headword or the translation of linguistic structure including it is polite in Chinese settings, it will be made clear to dictionary users with the label of **Polite**. The following is an example: "... **Polite** xiānsheng 先生". With **Polite** added before the *pinyin* transcription of the Chinese equivalent of "sir.", it indicates that "先生" is polite in nature. To corroborate this, a pragmatic explanation is offered in parentheses to point out that it is a polite term used to address a man only in formal situations or a stranger in China.

Chinese linguistic structures that show only "propositional attitude or illocutionary force" (Andersen 1998: 147) rather than adding truth value to the propositional content are marked with **Pragmatic marker**. This is added to express the pragmatic function of a Chinese expression. For instance, before the first bracketed pragmatic explanation in the microstructure of "know", **Pragmatic marker** is provided to explain the pragmatic functions of expressions like "*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*) 你知道（吗/吧）you know (*particle*/*particle*)" as ways to remind others to pay attention, to draw others' attention or seek agreement from them. **Vagueness** is added to indicate a speaker's weakened commitment to the truthfulness of his/her utterance, used in entries like "afraid" and "say".

As many examples above show, a pragmatic label is often not used on its own in the experimental dictionary, but in combination with other lexicographical means, including other pragmatic labels, to present pragmatic information. For example, the feeling or attitude conveyed by a Chinese word or linguistic construction or the role of a pragmatic marker is usually clarified by an explanation in parentheses.

6.1.3.2 Translation of a headword or a linguistic structure comprising it

The translation equivalent of an English headword or linguistic structure containing it, or their non-literal translation in context is designed to provide pragmatic information in the microstructure of the first-stage experimental dictionary. Even where the equivalent or translation in context was provided in the six dictionaries sometimes, the pragmatic information embedded in them would be difficult to extract without other supporting lexicographical means (see Chapter 5: 5.3.3).

A translation equivalent, as Hartman and James (2002: 51) pointed out, refers to a "word or phrase in one language which corresponds in MEANING [originally capitalised] to a word or phrase in another language". According to Zgusta (1971: 312), finding the equivalent for an item in the target language is the most important duty for a bilingual lexicographer. Hence to help dictionary users have a holistic understanding of the equivalent of a lexical item (Liu 1997: 49), every aspect of the item should be taken into consideration in providing an equivalent. However, the semantic divergence between an item in a source language and its equivalent in the target language can occur in any two languages (Zgusta 1971: 294), which could include their potential disagreement in pragmatic aspects as well. Therefore, it is natural that the translation equivalents that the compilers can provide "are typically partial, approximative" (Hartmann & James 2000: 51) rather than absolute.

Despite this limitation, translation equivalents are still used as an important means to present the pragmatic information in the microstructure. Meanwhile, if there is pragmatic disparity between a headword and its translated equivalents, other lexicographical means, like pragmatic labels, explanations in brackets, are introduced to help patch up the difference. For example, the equivalent of "Miss" has two pragmatic labels—"*<Address>*" and "**Polite**", before its translation equivalent "xiáojiě 小姐", which indicates it is generally used as a polite address in Chinese.

The translation of a headword in a specific context is also adopted as an important means to present pragmatic information. The headword "look" is provided with the following example for its second sense: "***Look what have you done!***", in which "look" is translated into "(nǐ) kàn nǐ（你）看你". However, the translation cannot be listed as the equivalent of "look". This translation in context has the pragmatic label of **Pragmatic marker** prior to it. Further explanation in parentheses provides the associated pragmatic information: (**!** (nǐ) kàn nǐ (你) 看你 is an indicator that the speaker is going to utter something negative about the hearer or to criticize.) ".

6.1.3.3 The illustrative example and its translation

Pragmatically oriented illustrative examples and their translations are adopted as an important way to present pragmatic information, which is something ignored in the six dictionaries (see Chapter 5: 5.3.3.1). To meet the pragmatic needs of L2 Chinese learners, an illustrative example, a "word or phrase used in a REFERENCE WORK to illustrate a particular form or

meaning in a wider context, such as a sentence" (Hartmann & James 2000: 53), is specially suited to this purpose, The examples in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary are "based on the introspective judgement" (Hartmann & James 2000: 47) of the author rather than evidence from a corpus. Since the first-stage dictionary is mostly confined to the pragmatic meanings embedded in the top 150 Chinese words and associated constructions, drafting the examples intuitively may allow the dictionary-maker to limit the Chinese words used in the translation of examples to the words in the controlled vocabulary. The examples cited from a corpus may well include Chinese words outside the first 150 Chinese words of HSK level 1. This same issue applies to the second-stage dictionary, in which the Chinese words in the translation of examples avoid going beyond the top 300 Chinese words required by HSK levels 1 and 2. The examples are provided to illustrate the pragmatic meanings (Xu 2008: 399) of pragmatically loaded Chinese translation equivalents in context. However, the compilers' efforts may not be fully appreciated by dictionary users. For example, to retrieve the meaning needed in a polysemous entry, they do not usually proceed beyond the initial senses (e.g. Bogaards 1998, Nesi 1987, Nesi & Haill 2002, Lew 2004), and may not fully exploit the pragmatic information presented.

The microstructure for the headword "teacher" provides a key example alongside its translation equivalent—"*lǎoshī*老师", to highlight its pragmatic function as a generic polite address form in China, which is not found for "teacher" in English settings: "***Teacher,*** ... ***good morning***. In translating the example, "*lǎoshī*老师" is also put at the beginning to foreground its usage as a form of address. This example, and many others as well, have been provided to be pragmatically "pedagogical" (Rundell 1998: 335). Examples and their translations, work with other lexicographical means to provide pragmatic information. For "*lǎoshī*老师", two pragmatic labels have been provided (see 6.1.3.1), and a pragmatic explanation for it as well.

To help L2 Chinese learners comprehend the pragmatic meaning conveyed by a Chinese linguistic construction, the corresponding literal English translation in examples is usually followed by an italicised bracketed English paraphrase. The paraphrase appears immediately after the expression, marked by "*i.e.*". The headword "friend" has the following example: "***Good morning, little friend (i.e. dear)!*** . The example has been rendered into Chinese like this: **Feeling** zǎoshɑng hǎo，xiǎo péngyou！早上好，小朋友！ … " It is hoped that foreign learners of Chinese can make out from the example and its translation that "*xiǎo péngyou* 小朋友" can be interpreted as "dear" in this context, which can be used similarly in English. Adding a more familiar term in English in parentheses in the example is to help users

understand the subtle overtone conveyed (Zuckermann 1999: 328) by the Chinese translation equivalent of "little friend". A supplementary explanation is also provided in parentheses to supply further pragmatic details.

6.1.3.4 Bracketed explanation

The bracketed explanation, an explanation enclosed within a pair of parentheses—"( )", has been widely used to provide pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary. Bracketed explanations can be used as an easy choice in cases where more focused such information is needed (Rundell 1998: 337), though they were scarcely used in six dictionaries (see Chapter 5: 5.3.3.2). They often work with other lexicographical indicators, like pragmatic labels, and serve to supplement and clarify the pragmatic information concerned. They vary in length, ranging from one sentence to a paragraph. In terms of location, they are placed immediately after the translation equivalent of a headword or a phrase, as in the case of "prostitute", and so on. In the entry of "prostitute", pragmatic information in brackets follows the Chinese equivalent immediately: "(*! In Chinese, prostitutes usually have another name. However, nowadays, people tend to refer to those involved in sexual business euphemistically as* xiáojiě小姐 *in Chinese, which sounds exactly the same as the equivalent of miss. Because of the negative connotations of* xiáojiě 小姐*, some ladies may take offence at this address in public.*)". This can be regarded as a way to make the translated meaning, including translation equivalents, in a bilingual dictionary more salient (Liu 2002: 120). It can also appear before an example, or after its Chinese translation.

For example, the headword "thank" is offered the following example: "***Thank you for your book!***", translated as "xièxie nǐ ! 谢谢你! ". Aside from specifying this Chinese translation is a routine to show gratitude in Chinese, a bracketed pragmatic explanation is provided to point out that Chinese people tend to omit the favour that the other party has done in conveying their gratitude, which is considered polite. Secondly, reduplication of "*xièxie* 谢谢 thank" is considered to be politer in expressions of thanks. It ought to be noted that direct translation in bilingual dictionaries may be sometimes disastrous to learners and lead to the production of errors (Thompson 1987, cited in Ng 2016: 169). Therefore, the pragmatic

explanations help to "present a more realistic picture of how [Chinese] words [or linguistic structure] mean and how they are used in real situations" (Yong & Peng 2007: 203).

6.1.3.5 Pragmatic notes attached to microstructure

Pragmatic notes, a type of usage note, is one of the major means to present pragmatic information in the microstructure of the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary as well, a way to offer more focused pragmatic information (Rundell 1998: 337). Very few pragmatic notes were used by the compilers of *Oxford* and *Collins*, and none at all by those of the other four dictionaries (see Chapter 5: 5.3.3.3). It is a "discursive paragraph providing additional [pragmatic] information on a word or phrase" (Hartmann & James 2002: 150), which the closest dictionaries can come to in treating pragmatic information (Sharpe 1989: 316). Therefore, the pragmatic information presented by pragmatic notes is usually a large chunk. Since placing it in the middle of the microstructure of a headword may break up the lexicographical information for this headword, it is often placed at the end of entry in the first-stage dictionary. A pragmatic note in the dictionary usually focuses on the pragmatic information of not just one particular Chinese linguistic expression, but that of other associated ones as well. This makes it different from a bracketed pragmatic explanation, which often serves to clarify the pragmatic information relevant to a particular Chinese word or linguistic construction. The pragmatic note in the microstructure of "age" illustrates the point clearly, with its notes on "age" discussing whether asking age is a forbidden topic in China, how people's attitude towards asking others' age has changed, and the different linguistic expressions for asking it, which are imbued with innate politeness, and so on. It allows for more discursive treatment of the topic, though less extended than in an appendix.

6.1.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure

Mediostructure or cross-referencing has been used between different dictionary substructures to link pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary into an interrelated system. This was greatly underused in the six dictionaries for this purpose (see Chapter 5: 5.3.4). It can help build up connections between interrelated lexicographical information, including pragmatic information, and keep it consistent (Wan 2008: 147; Wu 2013: 42). This will help guide a dictionary user to the relevant lexicographical information s/he needs (Tarp 2004: 238) at other points in the macrostructure.

In terms of the specific lexicographical means to present such information, and as in the six reference dictionaries, an explicit cross-reference (Svensén 1993: 194)—"See", has been adopted all through, rather than the more specific "Compare" and "Contrast" used from time to time in the reference dictionaries reviewed in Chapter 5. "See" provides a simple instruction for dictionary users to look up another Chinese word or associated linguistic structure, and augment their knowledge with other relevant pragmatic information. Mediostructure has been used in the experimental dictionary to link the pragmatic information between megastructure and microstructure, between macrostructure and microstructure, and between individual microstructural entries.

6.1.4.1 Megastructure to microstructure links

Mediostructure has been used to join the pragmatic information in the megastructure and microstructure. For instance, in the microstructure of the headword "be", a bracketed pragmatic explanation is followed with two cross-references which are located in the appendix of the first-stage dictionary: "***INSERT on giving and receiving thanks***" [=Appendix I] ***See INSERT on ma 吗*** [=Appendix II]. The two cross-references refer dictionary users to information included in "Particles" and "Pragmatics in Interaction" respectively. In this way, the pragmatic information offered in the microstructure of "be" is interconnected with related information in the megastructure.

6.1.4.2 Macrostructure to microstructure links

Mediostructure has also been adopted to connect the pragmatic information within the microstructure of different entries, and allow them to supplement each other. It appears at first glance quite similar to the cross-references connecting the pragmatic information in the macrostructure and microstructure, except that it links up detailed information within the microstructures of different Chinese words, and more illustration of their individual and shared collocations. In the microstructure of "how", after one of the translations of the example "How are you?"—"*nǐ zěnmeyàng*？你怎么样？", a pragmatic explanation points out that it is a Chinese greeting to enquire after others. However, "How are you" is just a conversation starter and is usually not used to inquire into the other person's health. Dictionary users are nevertheless cross-referred to two other headwords "body" and "health", so as to be able to respond if the question is intended to be understood more literally. If they

consult “body”, they will notice that the cross-reference is intended to link the pragmatic information relating to this Chinese greeting with what is offered after the translation of the first example of “body”. The same applies to the pragmatic information in the microstructure of “health”. Since alphabetically ordered entries cut across the interrelationships between different types of lexicographical information, mediostructure serves the vital purpose of connecting discontinuous information into a clear network, and access to scattered dictionary information can be made more efficient (Zhang 2008: 367), including pragmatic information.

6.1.4.3 Microstructure to microstructure links

Mediostructure has also been adopted to join the pragmatic information within different entries, so that such information provided within the microstructure of individual entries is connected together. It appears at first glance quite similar to the cross-references connecting the pragmatic information in the macrostructure and micro-structure, except that it joins information within the microstructures of individual entries. One example can be adequate to illustrate this. In the microstructure of “how”, after one of the translations of the example “How are you?”—“*nǐ zěnmeyàng*？你怎么样？”, a pragmatic explanation points out that it is a Chinese form of greeting to enquire after others. However, “How are you” is just conversation starter and is usually not used to inquire into the other person’s health. Dictionary users are cross-referred to two other headwords “body” and “health”. If they consult “body”, they will notice that the cross-reference above is intended to join the pragmatic information relating to this Chinese greeting with that offered after the translation of the first example of “body”. The same comment applies to the pragmatic information in the microstructure of “health”. The alphabetically ordered entries break up the interrelationship between different types of lexicographical information, including the pragmatic information. By making use of mediostructure, discontinuous information can be connected into a clear network and dictionary use can be made more efficient (Zhang 2008: 367).

6.2 The Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

The second-stage experimental E-C dictionary provides expanded pragmatic information on basic speech acts and speech functions in its different structural components. In addition, topics that call for discursive treatment, like essays on Chinese politeness, additional Chinese particles, and other conversational topics Chinese often raise, have been incorporated as well.

In addition to the 95 pragmatic points covered in the first-stage dictionary (see Appendix 14), the remaining 39 out of the set of 120 relating to the HSK core vocabulary are added to the second-stage dictionary. Of these 39 pragmatic points, 28 are based on the HSK level 2 vocabulary, while 11 include words from the first 150 of the Level-1 vocabulary. These are incorporated into the second-stage dictionary to balance the coverage of several topics, as summarised below in Table 6.3.

Table 6.5: 11 Chinese pragmatic points containing the first 150 HSK words in the second-stage dictionary

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
1	*dà … de*	大…的	Big…*particle*	So…	Attitude of disagreement	Night/so
2	*yīshēng*	医生	Doctor	Dr.	Politeness/address	Doctor
3	*duì le, ….*	对了	Correct+*particle*	By the way	Switching topic	Right
4	*érzi*	儿子	Son	Given name	Not used for addressing one's son	Son
5	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Can speak	Pay lip-service	Satirical attitude	Speak
6	（*nǐ*） *zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	(You) how+*particle*	What is up/wrong	Surprise	Matter
7	*…tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate…	Hi	Politeness/address	Classmate
8	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	Hi	Politeness/address	Classmate
9	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmates	Everyone	Politeness/address	Classmate
10	*wǒ shuō zěnme/ne*	我说怎么/呢	I say why/*particle*	I see	Polite reply to others' answer/explanation	See
11	*xiǎo…*	小…	Little…	Little…	Feeling	Little

An additional 6 pragmatic expressions are incorporated into the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary which are based on words beyond the core HSK vocabulary. They extend the pragmatic information on addressing others, politeness and subtle expressions of attitude.

Table 6.6: 6 pragmatic points employing Chinese words beyond the core HSK vocabulary

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
1	*àiren/tàitai*	爱人/太太	Loved person/wife	Wife	Referring to one's wife in introducing	Wife
2	(*bú*) *shì dìfang*	（不）是地方	(not) be place	(not) be the right place	Attitude of agreement/disagreement	Be
3	*dàifu*	大夫	Doctor	Dr.	Politeness/address	Doctor
4	*huānyíng*, （*huānyíng*）	欢迎,（欢迎）	Welcome, welcome	Welcome	Politeness/formula	Welcome
5	*nín jǐwèi*	您几位	(Polite) you several+measure word	How many of you	Politeness/formula	You
6	*tóngzhì*	同志	Comrade	Sir.	Politeness/address	Comrade

However, it should be noted that the pragmatic information associated with "*àiren* 爱人 loved person" and "*tàitai* 太太 wife" only enlarges on such information of "*qīzi* 妻子 wife", while pragmatic information relating to "*dàifu* 大夫 doctor" supplements that of "*yīshēng* 医生

doctor". So these expressions amount to just 4 supplementary pragmatic points for the second-stage dictionary (as noted above, 6.1). Altogether 43 points, including the supplementary ones, are added into the second-stage experimental dictionary (See Appendix 16). They increase the headword list of English translation equivalents from 75 to 106, which are listed in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: English headwords of entries added to the second-stage experimental dictionary

No	Head-word	No	Head-word	No	Head-word	No	Head-word
1	After	9	Hope	17	Problem	25	View
2	Arrive	10	Indeed	18	Slowly	26	Waiter
3	Certainly	11	Little	19	So	27	Waitress
4	Classmate	12	Mean	20	Something	28	Way
5	Comrade	13	Must	21	Son	29	Welcome
6	Doctor	14	Night	22	Speak	30	Well
7	Exactly	15	Please	23	Tell	31	Wife
8	Help	16	Possible	24	Token		

In the second-stage experimental dictionary, the pragmatic information provided in 14 out of 75 entries (see Table 6.1) in the first-stage is enlarged, since they involve information associated with the Chinese words belonging to the 151-300 section of HSK wordlist, listed in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Expanded entries (14) in the second-stage experimental dictionary

No	Headword	No	Headword	No	Headword	No	Headword		No	Headword
1	Be	2	Busy	3	Do	4	Eat		5	How
6	Matter	7	No	8	Not	9	Right		10	Say
11	See	12	Think	13	Thing	14	You			

In the sections below, the principles for integrating pragmatic information into the second-stage experimental dictionary will be discussed in order of mega-, macro-, micro- and mediostructure. In discussing such information in the second-stage dictionary, the focus will be on the supplemented pragmatic information rather than the lexicographical means to present such information, since the means to present it are the same in the first-stage and second-stage dictionary.

6.2.1 Pragmatic information in megastructure: front and back matter

As in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, the front matter of the second-stage dictionary also features "Structure of Entries". Also included in the front matter is "The

Inventory of Pragmatic Information" as well, which serves the same purpose as that in the first-stage dictionary (see 6.1.1.1).

Extra pragmatic information has been offered in the back matter of the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary in enlarged appendixes on "Pragmatics in Interaction" and "Particles". In the "Pragmatics in Interaction" [see Appendix II in the second-stage dictionary], the different linguistic expressions to realise 9 common speech acts, such as greeting, requesting and suggesting, have been expanded to cover 300 Chinese words and their associated linguistic structures. As in the first-stage dictionary, the differences between those expressions in terms of politeness, directness and so on, are specified as well. Cross-references have been established between the pragmatic information presented within the microstructure of individual entries and the relevant expressions in the appendix.

The appendix on Chinese "Particles" [see Appendix III in the second-stage dictionary] is enlarged in the second-stage dictionary as well. Pragmatic information on 2 extra particles, "*ba* 吧" and "*le* 了" is added, making a total five altogether. The way to present the pragmatic information associated with them is still the same (see 6.1.1.2). Also included in the back matter as appendix IV is "Topics You Can Take Up with Chinese", whose contents remain the same as in the first-stage dictionary.

The major addition to the back matter in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary is an essay on modern Chinese politeness [see Appendix I in the second-stage dictionary], based on Gu (1990, 1992) (also see Chapter 1: 1.5.1). He discusses the principles of politeness, sincerity and balance that make up Chinese "*lǐmào* 礼貌", which is very influential and quite interpretive of Chinese behaviours. Even if there are differences between different English-speaking countries in terms of their politeness conventions, it can still be argued that general English politeness differs from that of Chinese in its concepts of privacy, directness and modesty (Oatey 1987, cited in Bi 1996: 52). Owing to the significance of Chinese politeness and its widespread influence on almost every aspect of Chinese life, L2 learners of Chinese need to know about it. It should help them acquire the type of pragmatic awareness necessary for social interactions with Chinese, which in turn may help them speak and act appropriately.

6.2.2 Pragmatic information in macrostructure

The English translation equivalents of Chinese words and constructions involving pragmatic points determine the 31 newly added headwords in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary. For example, the English translation equivalent of a Chinese word—" *fúwùyuán* 服务员 server" —"waiter" and "waitress", are listed among the headwords. The Chinese formula "*huì shuōhuà* 会说话 can speak" illustrates the determination of English headwords from the keyword in the English translation of a pragmatically loaded Chinese linguistic construction. The keyword "speak" in its literal English translation—"be good at speaking (i.e. paying lip service)"—is put into the macrostructure of the second-stage E-C dictionary.

6.2.3 Pragmatic information in microstructure

In the microstructure of the second-stage experimental dictionary, the same set of lexicographical means (see 6.1.3) have been adopted to present pragmatic information.

6.2.3.1 Pragmatic labels

Pragmatic labels in the microstructure include bracketed and boxed ones for speech acts and speech functions respectively in the second-stage dictionary, which are placed respectively in a pair of angle brackets or set in a rectangular box. A pragmatic label is often not used on its own, but in combination with other lexicographical means, including other pragmatic labels, to present pragmatic information.

Pragmatic labels set in angle brackets. The Chinese linguistic expressions used for performing speech acts (see Chapter 3: Diagram 3.1) are labeled with angle brackets. For example, <*Address*> is again adopted to indicate a Chinese expression could be used to address other people, and appears before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation equivalent of a headword or *pinyin* transcription of the translation of a headword in an example. So the label <*Address*> is attached before the translation of "classmate", "comrade", "waiter" and "waitress" in examples (see also 6.1.3.1). Pragmatic labels like <*Greeting* >, <*Request*> stand for other speech acts which could be exercised by the translation equivalent of a headword or the Chinese translation of a linguistic construction including it. For example, <*Criticising*> is inserted before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation of the second example of "hope" as verb. This implies the underlined Chinese structure "*wǒ xīwàng* 我希望 I hope" can be used to criticise people, which is further supplemented with a bracketed explanation.

Pragmatic labels in rectangular boxes. A pragmatic label set in a rectangular box such as **Attitude**, **Feeling**, **Formula**, **Emphasis**, **Polite**, **Pragmatic marker** and **Vagueness** are used to indicate the pragmatic functions of individual Chinese words or constructions, as in the first-stage dictionary (see diagram 3.1).

Attitude stands for a certain attitude capable of being conveyed by the translation equivalent of a headword or the Chinese translation of a linguistic structure comprising it. For example, **Attitude** is placed before "*dà … de* 大…的 big …*particle*"—the *pinyin* transcription of the translation of the phrase "at night" in its second example, which is in the entry of "night". This indicates that this Chinese expression can convey feelings like displeasure, irritation and so on, specified by a pragmatic explanation following the translation. A speaker's individual feelings are marked with **Feeling**. For instance, **Feeling** is added before *pinyin* transcription of the "arrive" in its example, with bracketed explanations detailing a speaker's surprise or unexpectedness. Likewise, **Emphasis** is added to show that a translation equivalent or a linguistic structure comprising it is often used to emphasise, and applied before the bracketed explanation before the fifth example of "be". **Polite** is widely used in the newly added or expanded entries in the second-stage dictionary to indicate that the equivalent or construction is polite in Chinese settings, as shown in the entries like "after", "comrade", "doctor", "help", "please" and "token".

As in the first-stage dictionary, constructions are marked with **Formula** in the second-stage one to draw L2 Chinese learners' attention to the fixed nature of a Chinese expression. For example, the headword "see" is provided with one phrase in its microstructure: "see sb. out". The phrase is further supported with an example: "A: '***Let me see you out.*** ' wǒ sòng nǐ dào ménkǒu ba. 我送你到门口吧。' —B: '***No need to see me out***. '… **Formula** bú sòng le。不送了。" **Formula** is added before the *pinyin* transcription of the translation of B's reply, which indicates the sequence is fixed in its form. The details of the pragmatic information conveyed by this label is enhanced with an explanation in parentheses: "*bú sòng le* 不送了 no see off+*particle*" "(is an informal way of saying goodbye in Chinese, used by the person who is leaving to the host or hostess.)". With the pragmatic label of **Formula**, dictionary users can capture the formulaic "*bú sòng le* 不送了" and learn it as a whole.

Pragmatic marker is added before Chinese linguistic constructions showing only propositional attitude or illocutionary force (Andersen 1998: 147) rather than adding truth

value to the propositional content. For example, the phrase "I see" in the microstructure of "see" is provided with two translation equivalents, with "**Pragmatic marker**" preceding their *pinyin* transcriptions: "wǒ shuō zěnme…我说怎么…, wǒ shuō ne 我说呢". They are both polite responses to other people's answering one's questions or clarifying one's doubts, thus adding nothing to the propositional content of what a speaker expresses later, which is explained and enclosed in a pair of parentheses. It is also employed in newly added entries such as "mean", or expanded ones like "right" and "say". **Vagueness** is used in entries like "must" in the second-stage dictionary for the same purpose as in the first-stage, indicating a speaker's weakened commitment to the truthfulness of the utterance.

6.2.3.2 Translation of a headword or a linguistic structure including it

The translation equivalent of a headword or a linguistic construction involving it or its translation in context are adopted as an important means to present the pragmatic information in the microstructure the second-stage dictionary. In entries like "after" and "be", translation equivalents of the headwords are adopted to help present pragmatic information. In the entries like "classmate" and "something", translation of the headword in examples is used to fulfill the same purpose. A translation of a Chinese construction containing the headword is also provided to present pragmatic information. The translation of "at night" in the microstructure of "night" can help illustrate this point. "at night" has "*wǎnshang* 晚上" as its translation equivalent. "at this late night" in "***What on earth are you doing at this late night (i.e. at this late time)?*** " has been translated as "dà wǎnshang de…大晚上的…". An explanation in parentheses is provided behind the translation of the example to point out that this Chinese structure is used to convey the speaker's displeasure, irritation and so on.

6.2.3.3 Illustrative example and its translation

To meet the pragmatic needs of CFL learners, in the second-stage experimental dictionary, an illustrative example and its translation have also been adopted as an important way to present pragmatic information in entries like "arrive", "be" and "token". For example, in the entry of "token", the illustrative sentence of "***This Little gift is just a token of affection/gratitude/ appreciation***." is translated into "zhè shì wǒmen de yīdiǎn xiǎo yìsī。这是我们的一点小意思。". The translation of the example shows the way in which "*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value" is used, which displays the typical context of this target expression (Xu 2012: 34). It is further

clarified by an explanation pointing out that Chinese tend to downgrade the value of a gift to be polite.

6.2.3.4 Bracketed explanation

As in the first-stage dictionary, pragmatic explanations in "()" are widely used to offer pragmatic information in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary. They often work jointly with other lexicographical means, like pragmatic labels, supplementing or clarifying the pragmatic information concerned. For example, for the phrase "after you" in the entry of "after", following its Chinese translation "qǐng 请" is an explanation: "(*! qǐng 请 is used when you tell others politely to carry out the implied action, which is usually clarified by the context. For example, it can be used to tell someone to go in front of you or go into a certain place*)".

6.2.3.5 Pragmatic notes attached to microstructure

Pragmatic notes are often placed at the end of entry in the second-stage dictionary to clarify the pragmatic information relating to not just one particular Chinese linguistic expression. Such a note in the microstructure of the headword "comrade" can help illustrate the point. Dictionary users can learn through the note the following pieces of pragmatic information: "*tóngzhì*同志 comrade" was originally used as an address form among Chinese Communist Party members. Its usage extended and has been used as a general polite address form in China for a long time, since the founding of P.R.C in 1949, but it is no longer as popular as an address form as before. Since the mid- to late- 1990s, it has gained the connotations of referring to being gay, something to pay heed to in using it, and noting in others' use of it. As Xu (2007: 229) pointed out, notes like this are informative, and more conducive to learners to understand and apply an L2 expression.

6.2.4 Pragmatic information in mediostructure

Mediostructure or cross-referencing has been used in different dictionary substructures to link the pragmatic information presented in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary into an interrelated system. Just as in the first-stage dictionary, cross-referencing links the pragmatic

information in megastructure and microstructure, like that connecting the microstructure of "hope" and "**INSERT on Criticism**" [see Appendix II in the second-stage dictionary], that of "see" and "**INSERT on Saying Goodbye**" [see Appendix II in the second-stage dictionary]. It is also used to link information between macrostructure and microstructure. No pragmatic information is provided in the microstructure of "gentleman", but it is cross-referred to the entry for "mister". Links between entries also build networks in mediostructure. For example, information provided in the microstructure of "After", "Help" and "Please" is linked by "See", to demonstrate the intersection of Chinese polite expressions of request.

6.3 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

This chapter details the design principles for incorporating 138 Chinese pragmatic points into the two-stage experimental E-C dictionary. To develop L2 Chinese learners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatic knowledge, pragmatic information has been distributed through the four structural components of the expandable E-C experimental dictionary, to jointly "address the problem of 'findability'" (Rundell 1998: 328).With the experimental E-C dictionary created, the question then is how effectively the pragmatic information in it supports beginners in Chinese in their need to acquire Chinese pragmatics in the shorter- and longer run. Experimental tests need therefore to be devised and conducted to test the effectiveness of the pragmatic information in the experimental dictionary, ideally at two stages in their Chinese language learning. The methodology associated with conducting these tests with a cohort of Australian CFL beginners will be detailed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7: Methodology

7.0 Introduction
7.1 Method for L2 Pragmatics Testing
7.2 Method for Conducting the Present Study

7.0 Introduction

Despite the importance of Chinese pragmatics to L2 Chinese learners, little pedagogical research has been conducted on CSL or CFL pragmatics, consistent with its being marginalised in classroom instruction. The few pedagogical studies on CFL pragmatics to date (reported in Chapter 2: 2.2.2) focus on just two speech acts, those of making requests and expressing gratitude. While knowledge of them constitutes an essential element of Chinese pragmatics, they represent very little of its full range, even when benchmarked against the 120 points of Chinese pragmatics identified with core vocabulary (see Chapter 3: 3.3). Given that the scope for making Chinese pragmatics available to learners through common language materials is often underutilised, and that the information provided in those materials "may not be representative of real, authentic language use" (Judd 1999: 157), the details of Chinese pragmatics can and should be made available to learners by means of a customised dictionary.

We have now discussed in detail how an experimental E-C dictionary for beginner CFL students can be created, as a concentrated reference on Chinese pragmatics (Chapter 6). But its effectiveness in developing Chinese learners' pragmatic knowledge in the short and longer term needs to be tested with bona fide students. With this we proceed to take up the empirical questions raised in RQ 4: Can a customised dictionary which integrates Chinese pragmatics into every dictionary component provide support for Chinese beginners and contribute to their acquisition of pragmatics? This chapter explains the methodology for conducting the two tests designed to provide an empirical evaluation of the pedagogical value of the experimental dictionary, and as input to future learning materials.

7.1 Methods for L2 Pragmatics Testing

Research on methodologies of L2 pragmatics testing, a subarea of L2 assessment, has been in progress for over 20 years since Hudson, Detmer and Brown's (1992) seminal study. The test battery consists of DCTs, role plays and self-assessments (Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1992,

1995; Roever 2011, Bardowi-Harlig & Shin 2014), and can be used to assess an L2 learners' pragmatic knowledge as well as its application in social interactions. DCTs contain a prompt with a situation description and test-takers are instructed to speak out (oral DCTs), write out (written DCTs) or choose out of the listed choices (multiple-choice DCTs) what they would say in the situation. Role plays ask them to produce appropriate utterances through interacting with other interlocutors in a given situation, thus "more appropriate in obtaining interactive language performances" (Youn 2015: 202). Self-assessments involve test-takers' assessing their own performance on DCTs and video-taped role plays. Most L2 pragmatics assessment studies to date have been conducted on speech acts and politeness (Roever 2011: 469) through test-batteries such as these.

Beyond the proficiency-oriented L2 pragmatics tests above, DCTs, including multiple-choice tests, and occasionally role plays, can also be adopted to ascertain the effects of classroom instruction, trace L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic knowledge, etc. (Roever 2011). DCTs were used as or included as part of the testing battery by the pedagogical studies on CFL pragmatics (Chapter 2: 2.1.3). Pragmatics tests assessing instructional effects typically check whether "learners [can] produce content which is similar to that produced immediately after [explicit or implicit] instruction" (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001: 142), since generally speaking, L2 learners' "pragmatic performance benefits from explicit instruction" (Cohen 2008: 213). However, "it is often not feasible to measure instructional effects other than through the use of …[written DCTs] … designed for that purpose" (Rose & Ng 2001: 154). DCTs are the methodology developed in this research to explore learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatics through a means other than classroom teaching, i.e. by self-teaching through individual access to pragmatically enriched learning materials concentrated in an experimental E-C dictionary.

7.2 Method for Conducting the Present Study

The present study aims to test the effectiveness of providing the pragmatic information in the E-C experimental dictionary customised to support CFL beginners. It attempts to address the call that "making contextualized, pragmatically appropriate input available to learners from early stages of acquisition onward is the very least that pedagogy should aim to do" (Bardovi-Harlig 2001: 31) and to test the effectiveness of the customised dictionary in improving their pragmatic knowledge and awareness. Integrating such information into learners' dictionaries implies modifying their design. However, as Nesi (2015: 1) argued, "there is no point in

changing dictionary design, if the changes do not make dictionary consultation more useful…, and these effects can only be monitored by examining user[s' dictionary use]". Nesi's twin suggestions have been taken up in this research project.

An experimental pragmatically enriched E-C dictionary was compiled (as described in Chapter 6), and made available to Chinese beginners at the start of their first semester. At the end of the semester they were then tested to see whether they understood what expressions are called for in given situations, rather than by their actual performance in them as in role-play (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin 2014: 44), and/or ability to produce them. Written or multiple-choice DCTs, unlike oral ones, help "elicit [pragmatic] knowledge displays without making demands on learners' fluency or interactional skills" (Blum-Kulla 1993: 6 cited in Tateyama 2001: 205). The contribution of the experimental dictionary to beginners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatics may thus be measurable, and serve the needs of evaluating the value of the pragmatic information contained in the experimental E-C dictionary for beginning Chinese learners. Writing out a pragmatic expression in Chinese for a given situation demands participants' knowledge of Chinese characters and words, as discussed in Chapter 2: 2.1. Their lack of such knowledge would affect their performance on a written DCT, so multiple-choice DCTs have been adopted for testing purposes instead.

The use of multiple-choice DCTs to test the effectiveness of both the first- and the second-stage dictionary material was motivated by the desire to compare the students' responses at two stages of their Chinese study, as well as to provide critical examination of the dictionary at the end of the second semester learning process. Action research focusing on the dictionary material during first semester might have provided earlier feedback from the students, and input to fine-tuning the second-stage version of the dictionary. But this was not possible since the researcher was not the students' regular teacher, and he could only engage with them at the start and end of semester, to introduce the dictionary and conduct the final tests. There was no opportunity to discuss the dictionary material with them, or to provide any training in using the dictionary. Instead, this experimental design shows what use students without dictionary training can make of its purpose-designed contents, over a shorter and longer period. The dictionary can then be redesigned on the basis of the students' suggestions, to cater for their ongoing needs.

7.2.1 Aims

The present research aims to find out the sequential effects of the Chinese pragmatics incorporated into a customised E-C learners' dictionary on the first-year beginners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatics, using two pragmatics tests at well spaced intervals.

The questions addressed in the first pragmatics test include:

(A1) Does the motivation of students relate to their performance on the pragmatics test?

(A2) Do the students perform better on some kinds of pragmatic questions than others?

(A3) Do the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information affect their performance?

(A4) How does the accessibility of pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental dictionary align with their performance?

The questions addressed in the second test are:

(B1) Is there any improvement in their performance on the five repeated questions?

(B2) Are there any cumulative effects visible in the students' use of the second-stage experimental dictionary on their acquisition of Chinese pragmatics in the longer run?

(B3) Do the students perform better on some kinds of pragmatic questions than others?

(B4) Do the lexicographical means to present pragmatic information affect their performance?

(B5) How does the accessibility of pragmatic information in the second-stage dictionary align with their performance?

(B6) Does the students' frequency of using the experimental dictionary bear any relation to their performance?

7.2.2 Participants

Participants in both pragmatics tests (38 students in the first test, 13 in the second), are undergraduates from Chinese Studies at Macquarie University in Sydney, who are doing first-year units in Chinese as a foreign language. They are all non-heritage Chinese learners, with English as their first language. All are young adults in their late teens or early twenties,

enrolled through an advertisement posted in e-learning noticeboard of Chinese Studies. The pragmatics tests have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee. Participants sign an *Information and Consent Form*, noting they can withdraw from both tests at any time if they choose to. They also agree that the data collected through the tests will be used for the research.

Beginning Chinese learners at university level are chosen as participants mainly for three reasons. To begin with, most university students should at least be young adults who have met the admission requirements of Macquarie University. Thus in terms of the threshold educational background, they should not be very different from each other in their cognitive capacity to understand and utilise the pragmatic information integrated into the two experimental dictionaries. Secondly, with participants who are strictly beginners in Chinese, their homogeneity in terms of Chinese language proficiency is assured. Arguably there could still have been differences among the participants in terms of their Chinese pragmatic knowledge before taking the pragmatic tests. But the tests were designed around DCTs using Chinese characters which all beginners had to learn to indicate their pragmatic understanding, and so no pre-test was arranged to benchmark their Chinese pragmatic knowledge. Thirdly, all the participants use the same textbook—*New Practical Chinese Reader* (see Chapter 4). Particular care has been taken to ensure the pragmatic information tested is not presented in their textbook. In this way, the possibility that their performance on the two pragmatics tests comes from the pragmatic information integrated into the dictionaries can be maximised.

No control group was used in the experimental method for the pragmatics tests for two reasons. One was that the size of Chinese beginner class at Macquarie University is rather limited, thus making it difficult to arrange for a control group for even the first pragmatics test. The other was the ethical issue of the inherent disadvantage for the putative control group, who would not have access to the pragmatically enriched E-C learner's dictionary, and would give an edge to those in the experimental group who did have access.

7.2.3 Input materials for the two tests

A pragmatically enriched experimental E-C learners' dictionary (stage 1 and stage 2), as created and discussed in Chapter 6, was distributed to the participants at the start of semester for reference for the two pragmatics tests. The more inclusive second-stage dictionary is

attached as Appendix 17. The supplementary lexicographical information in the second-stage dictionary, including pragmatic information, is highlighted there in red.

7.2.3.1 Material for the first pragmatics test

The material for the first pragmatics test is the 52-page first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, including the front cover. The dictionary presents the pragmatic information associated with 95 Chinese pragmatic points (see Appendix 15). It comprises four sections, each with a distinct function. At the very beginning is the "Structure of Entries", informing dictionary users of different means adopted to present lexicographical information, including pragmatic information, like translation equivalents and examples. This is followed by an inventory of the pragmatic information included, specifying its importance to learners of Chinese. The main body of the dictionary consists of alphabetically arranged 75 entries. (see Chapter 6: 6.1) The appendixes include 3 sections: "Pragmatics in Interaction", "Particles" and "Topics You Can Take Up with Chinese". Section one centres on nine speech acts, such as making an apology, offering criticism, giving and receiving thanks. The section on Chinese particles introduces the lexicographical, including pragmatic information relating to three Chinese particles, "*ma* 吗", "*ne* 呢" and verbal particle "*yíxià* (*r*) 一下（儿）", followed by eight topics Chinese often raise in daily communication.

7.2.3.2 Material for the second pragmatics test

The material for the second pragmatics test is the 78-page second-stage experimental E-C dictionary. The second-stage E-C dictionary expands rather than redesigns the material of the first-stage dictionary, so as to test the cumulative effects of the pragmatic information in the experimental dictionary on their acquisition of Chinese pragmatics. If the second-stage dictionary was redesigned after the first pragmatics test, it would be difficult to distinguish the effects of the revised design from the overall impacts of the experimental dictionary from the students' cumulative learning of Chinese pragmatics.

The second-stage E-C dictionary consists of four sections (see Chapter 6: 6.2), with the "Structure of Entries" and "The Inventory of Pragmatic Information" the same as those in the first-stage dictionary. The second-stage dictionary differs from the first-stage one mainly in the following aspects. The pragmatic information in the second-stage dictionary is expanded to cover 138 Chinese pragmatic points (see Chapter 6: 6.2), including the 95 of the first-stage

dictionary. The lexicographical information, including the pragmatic information in 14 entries from the first-stage dictionary is expanded as well. An additional essay on Chinese politeness is included in the appendixes to help raise CFL beginners' pragmatic awareness. Thirdly, the pragmatic information on speech acts is extended to cover linguistic expressions comprising the 300 Chinese words. The essay on Chinese particles is expanded as well, with additional lexicographical, pragmatic information on two other particles—"*ba* 吧" and "*le* 了".

7.2.4 Procedures

With the collaboration of the teachers of two Chinese beginners' classes, the researcher arranged to meet the participants in the beginning of the first semester, before distributing the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary to them. The procedures for the two 30-minute pragmatics tests were then explained to them. The participants were also told that they would be remunerated with 15 Australian dollars for completing each pragmatics test. I provided an introduction to the pragmatic information in the first-stage dictionary as well as how to exploit it in and after class, including explanations of the dictionary structure and the terminology, to the participants of the first pragmatics test via a 20-minute PPT presentation. This was done to provide a common basis for the participants' understanding of the dictionary metalanguage and familiarity with the dictionary, which is known to affect their dictionary use (Hulstijn & Atkins 1998: 12). Factors like those "should be taken into account in studies investigating the *effects* of dictionary use [originally italicised]" (Welker 2010: 22), including the use of pragmatic information within a dictionary. Participants were also informed that the second-stage expanded dictionary would be provided at the start of the second semester. Since there was no change of procedures with access to the second-stage dictionary and the second test, no such briefing was offered in second semester.

As the participants are threshold beginners in Chinese, their knowledge of Chinese pragmatics is assumed to be really little. Therefore, no pre-test was given to measure their baseline Chinese pragmatic knowledge. The expandable experimental E-C dictionary was introduced as the experimental factor through the first and the second semester. The post-test given at the end of each semester showed whether access to pragmatic information incorporated into the experimental dictionary bore some relation to participants' knowledge and awareness of pragmatics.

Other than the introduction to the first-stage dictionary at the start of the year, the procedures for the two pragmatics tests were the same. The participants had access to a pragmatically enriched experimental E-C dictionary for almost one semester. The auxiliary nature of the dictionary needs to be recognised: students use it outside the regular classes for the purpose of self-study. They then took a 30-minute pragmatics test on items relating to the first-stage dictionary at the end of the first semester, and a comparable test on items relating to the second-stage dictionary at the end of the second semester. The second test was intended to register any cumulative effects of the pragmatic information incorporated into the experimental dictionary on participants' pragmatic knowledge over the longer term. The first-stage experimental E-C dictionary was handed out to the participants at the beginning of semester 1 in early March, 2015. The first pragmatics test was conducted on 13th June. The second-stage dictionary was distributed in early August, 2015, and the second pragmatics test conducted in 13th week of second semester in November, 2015.

7.2.5 Contents and scoring of the tests

7.2.5.1 A pilot test on Chinese pragmatics

The contents of the DCT tests of university students were substantially redesigned following a small trial/pilot test carried out with three students from the researcher's local community Chinese class. Their performance on the pilot test indicated the difficulty of such a test was severely underestimated, since the descriptions of the context provided for each pragmatic expression were given in Chinese and pinyin for the Chinese words within the first 300 required by *HSK*. For those words beyond the first 300, pinyin transcriptions and literal English translations were both supplied. The participants were then expected to write in Chinese characters or *pinyin* their responses to the particular context. They found it extremely difficult, and indicated that they had trouble in understanding the context and responding in either Chinese characters or *pinyin*. Therefore, the contexts for pragmatic expressions in the two university pragmatics tests were given in English, to ensure beginner participants can fully understand them. Instead of asking the participants to fill in the responses in Chinese characters or *pinyin*, the two pragmatics tests take the form of multiple-choice, to help them address each question. But the pilot test also helped to indicate that half an hour would be adequate for taking a pragmatics test, which explains why 30 minutes is allowed for each of the two pragmatics tests conducted with university students.

7.2.5.2 The two tests on Chinese pragmatics conducted at university

The two written pragmatics tests were conducted to reflect the participants' access to the first- and second-stage E-C learner's dictionary, and evaluate the pragmatics they had learned in the first and second semesters, and to provide a measure of their cumulative learning. The tests both take the form of multiple-choice DCTs (see Appendixes 7.1, 7.2), which have five things in common. To begin with, in terms of the number of test items, both tests have 10 multiple-choice test questions on pragmatic information, which the participants are expected to complete within half an hour. Only ten items were included in both tests so as to allow participants adequate time for dictionary consultation. They may need to synthesize information within different entries, or relevant pragmatic information located in different places in the dictionary. Half an hour would not be sufficient for them to finish if there were more test items. Secondly, the structure of individual questions of the two tests is the same. Each question starts with a description of a mini-context in which the ten test Chinese pragmatic items are put to use, followed by four possible multiple choices for participants to choose from, one correct choice and three distractors. The context, which serves to place the participants in a concrete communicative setting, is described in English to enable them to understand the background well enough. And then, to ensure the participants understand each test question as well the four choices, *pinyin*, the phonetic transcriptions of each Chinese word are provided. Their failure to answer the question correctly can then be attributable to their not being able to access the relevant pragmatic information in the experimental E-C dictionaries rather than other factors, such as their inability to understand the question or choices. Fourthly, to make the tests conform to real dictionary use settings, both use open-book format, so that the participants can refer to the first-stage experimental dictionary during the first test, and the second-stage dictionary during the second test. Lastly, selecting the pragmatic topics for the ten test items in both tests is based on judgement sampling. This kind of sampling is often used in qualitative research rather than random sampling, so as to ensure that different types of questions are tested. This sampling method can help select "the most productive sample to answer the research question" (Marshall 1996: 523).

The first pragmatics test. The test consists of ten questions to assess how far the pragmatic information in the first-stage dictionary has helped them with their Chinese pragmatics learning. The test items are selected in terms of the coverage of different types of pragmatic information, the number of lexicographical means to present such information tested and its accessibility in the first-stage dictionary, which are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: The pragmatic information tested in the ten questions of the first pragmatics test

No.	Pragmatic information tested
1.	Topics to discuss or not to discuss
2.	Address form displaying respect
3.	Expression of attitude showing displeasure
4.	Expression of attitude showing suspicion about motive
5.	Speech act of criticism
6.	Speech act of saying goodbye
7.	Politeness in refusal
8.	Speech act of giving and receiving thanks
9.	Politeness in invitation
10.	Speech act of disagreement

The ten test items cover the pragmatic information relating to conversational topics Chinese tend to raise in their daily life, address forms, expressing attitude, politeness and speech acts. As is evident in the range, the test items go well beyond the limited focus of previous pedagogical research on speech acts (see Chapter 2: 2.2). However, owing to their limited exposure to Chinese pragmatics in CFL settings, the test items may pose substantial challenges to the participants, especially the non-heritage CFL beginners.

In addition to the main test questions, an additional question was posed on the students' motivation for learning Chinese, and their purposes in studying the language.

The second pragmatics test. Apart from measuring the effectiveness of the pragmatic information in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary in helping participants acquire pragmatic knowledge, the second test also aims to assess the cumulative effects on their pragmatic knowledge of providing such information. To achieve this purpose, five questions from the first pragmatics test are repeated on the second one, two out of the low-scoring ones, two out of the medium-scoring ones and one out of the high-scoring ones. The pragmatic information tested in the ten questions of the second pragmatics test is summarised in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: The pragmatic information tested in the ten questions of the second pragmatics test

No.	Pragmatic information tested
1	Expression of attitude of unexpectedness or surprise
2	*Topics to discuss or not to discuss
3	Modal particle to show uncertainty
4	*Address form displaying respect
5	Pragmatic marker showing criticism/displeasure
6	*Politeness in invitation
7	Expression of attitude of irony
8	*Speech act of criticism
9	Politeness to show modesty
10	*Speech act of saying goodbye

Note: * indicates that the questions was repeated from the first pragmatics test

The selection of the test items on the second test aims to measure the CFL beginners' acquisition of pragmatics via the second-stage E-C experimental dictionary in the longer run. The pragmatic information assessed in five new test questions is selected through judgement sampling as before, with purposeful selection from the newly added 31 entries, 13 pragmatically expanded entries from the first-stage dictionary, and the expansion of pragmatic information in the appendixes (see Chapter 6: 6.2). As in the first pragmatics test, the different types of pragmatic information, the number of lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information tested, and its accessibility are also taken into consideration in selecting the items for the second test. Questions 3 and 5 assess the more subtle pragmatic information associated with a modal particle and a pragmatic marker. This takes into consideration the natural progression of the participants' pragmatic learning in their first year of Chinese learning.

On the second pragmatics test there were also two survey questions. One inquires into the participants' frequency of using the second-stage experimental dictionary, with four multiple-choice options offered. The second one is an open question, to elicit the participants' suggestions for improving pragmatic information in the dictionary, its structure and contents.

7.2.5.3 Scoring

The criterion for scoring the ten multiple-choice test questions on pragmatic information of Chinese on the two tests is the same. For each question answered correctly, ten points are

given. Therefore, a participant's total score on the each test is the number of correct answers multiplied by 10.

Participants' replies to the question on their motivation for learning Chinese on the first pragmatics test are not scored but grouped into integrative, instrumental and combined motivation (see Chapter 2: 2.3). The participants' answers to the question on their frequency of using the second-stage experimental dictionary on the second pragmatics test are classified according to their different usage frequency and compared with their performance scores.

7.2.6 Data Analysis

For the first pragmatics test, the overall performance scores of the participants will be calculated, and then the average performance of the participants sharing the same motivation will be analysed, to explore what role motivation type plays in their learning Chinese. The students' performance on each of the ten questions also allows them to be grouped for low-scoring, medium-scoring and high-scoring questions. Then the demands of the questions in each of those scoring groups will be analysed, to find out if the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information, its specific type, and whether the accessibility of the information bears on their performance.

The participants' answers to the ten test items on the second pragmatics test and to the two survey questions will be discussed in Chapter 9, including their performance on the five questions repeated from the first pragmatics test to see if there are cumulative effects on their Chinese pragmatic learning from accessing the second-stage dictionary. Their overall performance on the ten test questions analysed will again be classified into low-scoring, medium-scoring and high-scoring groups for both new and repeated questions. Their performance on each test question is analysed in terms of the means to present the pragmatic information, the specific type and the accessibility of such information. The students are also asked to comment on how often they consulted the dictionary, which can then be compared with their performance on the second pragmatics test. The students' suggestions for improving the pragmatic information in the second-stage dictionary will be grouped into those relating to dictionary structure and dictionary contents, as users' feedback on the provision of pragmatic information in the experimental E-C learners' dictionary. Individual learning profiles were constructed for the participants who have done both tests, for further insights into the combinations of factors that affect their performance in the longer run.

Let us now proceed to review the data elicited from the first pragmatics test in Chapter 8, and data from the second pragmatics test in Chapter 9.

Chapter 8: Results and Discussions of the First Pragmatics Test

8.0 Introduction

8.1 Participants' Overall Performance on the First Pragmatics Test

8.2 Participants' Motivation for Learning Chinese

8.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Test Question on the First Pragmatics Test

8.4 Lexicographical Vehicles and Participants' Performance

8.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information

8.6 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

8.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the results of the first pragmatics test, which was conducted in June, 2015, at the end of the 38 participants' first semester. The test is designed to directly address RQ4: Can a customised dictionary which integrates pragmatic information into every dictionary component provide support for CFL beginners, and contribute to their their acquisition of pragmatics? More specifically, the test questions are intended to elicit indications of their knowledge and awareness of pragmatic information contained in the 52-page first-stage experimental dictionary to which they had access for self-teaching throughout the first semester of their introductory course on Chinese. Analysis of the test questions themselves may also provide indications as to which are more and less effective in eliciting appropriate answers from the students, depending on how well they interface with the material provided in the dictionary.

An additional test question asks the participants about their reasons/motivations for learning Chinese to see how far that correlates with their performance on the test. Through the test, the following four experimental questions were addressed:

(A1) Does the motivation of students relate to their performance on the pragmatics test?

(A2) Do the students perform better on some kinds of pragmatic questions than others?

(A3) Do the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information affect their performance?

(A4) How does the accessibility of pragmatic information align with their performance?

8.1 Participants' Overall Performance on the First Pragmatics Test

Figure 8.1 below presents the overall results of the first pragmatics test, consisting of ten multiple-choice questions. With each question answered correctly, a participant gets 10 points and their overall performance on the test is the number of questions they have answered correctly multiplied by 10. The overall distribution of participants' performance on the test is shown in the Figure below.

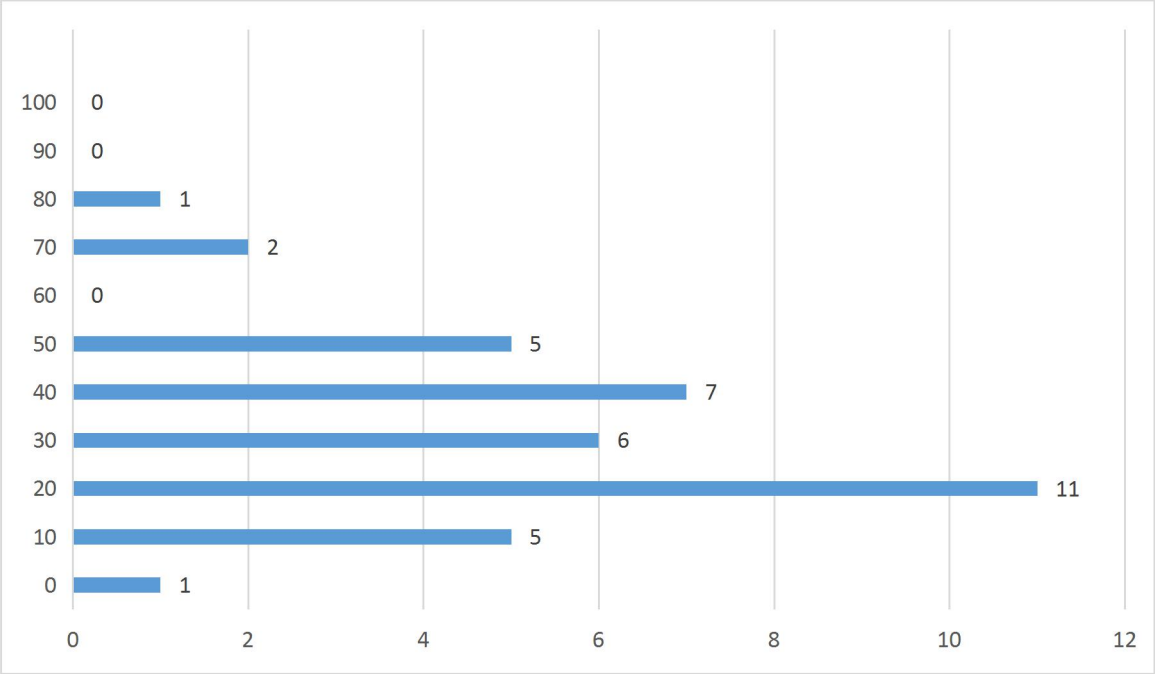

Figure 8.1: Overall distribution of participants' performance on the first pragmatics test

On the 100 point scale of Figure. 8.1, the overall performance of 38 participants on the first pragmatics test looks rather low, with a wide range from 80 down to 0, and a median of only 20. The statistical mode of their performance is also set low at 30. The participants' average performance score on the first pragmatics test (the mean) is 31.6. This is consistent with Li's (2009) testing of the use of pragmatic information in four bilingual English-Chinese dictionaries by advanced English learners in China. The average of Li's participants' performance, if converted from the scale of 40 to that of 100, was slightly over 40. Considering the fact that his participants were advanced language learners, while the Australian learners in the first pragmatics test are only beginners in Chinese, the respective

performance levels are remarkably comparable. These results from the first pragmatics test also provide a useful benchmark for those from the second test (see Chapter 9: 9.2).

8.2 Participants' Motivation for Learning Chinese

The first pragmatics test has an additional question enquiring about the 38 participants' reasons for learning Chinese, i.e. their motivations, in the light of the discussion in Chapter 2: 2.3. The question was designed to elicit some individual data from the Australian participants for comparison with their test performances, and further insights into their language learning.

The question itself goes as follows:

Your reasons for learning Chinese (Please tick in the box before an answer. You can choose more than one.)

☐ To be equipped for the future

☐ To communicate with Chinese family members, friends or relatives

☐ Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture

☐ To travel in China

☐ Others (please specify)

The fifth multiple-choice—"others", covers any possible motivations left unspecified, with space left for participants to detail them if they choose to.

8.2.1 The analysis and grouping of 38 participants' motivations

The 38 participants' motivations for learning Chinese can be classified into 3 types: integrative, instrumental, and combined (both integrative and instrumental). Integrative motivation refers to participants' tendency to identify themselves emotionally with Chinese language community, positive attitudes to it as well as interest in and desire to interact socially with people from this community, while the instrumental motivation implies that they plan to learn Chinese for practical purposes (see Chapter 2: 2.3). Combined motivation means that a participant is both integratively and instrumentally motivated.

Let us first examine what participants have detailed under “others” as their motivation. Out of 13 alternative motivations detailed there by 13 participants, 11 qualify as “others”, as summarised in the Table 8.1 below. The other two in their detail overlap with the first or the second multiple-choice, thus not to be considered as “others”. One participant’s answer—“for business purposes, which can also be classified as being prepared for the future”, detailed the first multiple choice. The second participant, whose “other” motivation belonged to one of the four main motivations, said that she learned Chinese to communicate with her Taiwanese husband. This echoes the second choice—“to communicate with Chinese family members, friends or relatives”, and in fact she ticked this choice as well. The 11 remaining motivations counted as “others” are listed in the table below.

Table 8.1: Motivations described as “others”

NO. of participants	Motivations detailed as “others”
1.	“for career prospects”
2.	“expand job base”
3.	“business opportunities”
4.	“wanted to learn another foreign language”
5.	“for possible job prospects”
6.	“wanted to learn another language”
7.	“I wanted to learn another language”
8.	“I hoped learning Chinese would broaden my employment prospects”
9.	“for my university degree”
10.	“applying for internships in China for a new life experience”
11.	“business in future”

The 11 motivations specified under the cover term “others”, are combined with those provided in response to the multiple choice question, and regrouped into integrative or instrumental motivation. The 38 participants’ motivation for learning Chinese are summarised in the table below.

Table 8.2: 38 participants' motivations for learning Chinese

Motivation type		Motivation identified on the pragmatic test	Total
Integrative	Multiple Choice	fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	20
		to communicate with Chinese family members friends or relatives	13
	Others supplied	to learn another language	3
Instrumental	Multiple Choice	to be equipped for the future	32
		to travel in China	19
	Others supplied	for job/career purpose	5
		for business purpose	2
		for university degree	1

Based on the definition of integrative and instrumental motivation above, "fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture", "to communicate with Chinese family members friends or relatives", and "to learn another language" in "others" are classified as integrative ones. "to be equipped for the future", "to travel in China", plus "for job/career purpose, for business purpose, for university degree" in "others" are regarded as instrumental motivation.

The participants' motivations for learning Chinese can be grouped as follows:

Table 8.3: Grouping 38 participants' motivations for learning Chinese

Motivation type	No. of participants
Integrative motivation	3
Instrumental motivation	16
Combined motivation	19

Table 8.1 shows only 3 participants have a purely integrative motivation to learn Chinese, whereas half of them have both integrative and instrumental motivation. This is not difficult to explain, since "[a] student with an integrative motivation of being interested in Chinese culture could have an instrumental motivation of finding a good job" (Sun 2011: 15), that of travelling to/in China or of conducting business. Similarly, a participant who is motivated to learn Chinese out of practical concerns, like better job prospects, may also be attracted by Chinese culture or language at the same time. This result also accords with other researchers' (e.g. Thompson 1980, Zheng 1997) findings that people who learn Chinese are not just motivated integratively or instrumentally, but out of combined motivations. They make up a slightly larger number than those who are instrumentally driven to learn the language.

8.2.2 The correlation between participants' motivation and their average performance on the test

Let us now consider any possible correlation between participants' different types of motivation and their performance on the first pragmatics test. The average performance of the participants motivated in the same way will be compared in order of integrative, instrumental and combined motivation. Table 8.4 sets the three motivational groups alongside the average score for each. That of the combined group is almost the same as the overall average for the cohort (see 8.1 and Figure 8.1).

Table 8.4: The average performances of participants with different motivations

Motivation type, (number of participants)	Ranking	Average performance/100
Integrative (3)	1	36.7
Combined (19)	2	31.5
Instrumental (16)	3	26

The average score for the three integratively motivated participants shows that they outperform the other groups with instrumental or combined motivation. This accords with Wen's (1997: 238) finding that integrative motivation may help the first-year Chinese learners achieve a high score in examinations. It may also predict which learners of a foreign language are likely to be successful at higher proficiency levels, since it helps sustain their interest and motivation in the long run (e.g. Gardner 1985; Dörnyei 1990). It is possible that the integratively motivated CFL learners would therefore be most likely to examine and use the pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary for their Chinese pragmatic learning, which has led to their relatively higher performance.

The average score of 19 participants with combined motivations is 31.5, ranking between that of those with integrative and instrumental motivations. It can be contended that even if those participants with combined motivation are not as strongly motivated to utilise the pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary to learn Chinese pragmatics for its own sake, they would be more motivated to do so than those learning Chinese out of purely practical concerns. Aside from regarding Chinese as a tool to secure some practical benefits for their future, the participants with combined motivations also have more positive attitude towards Chinese culture and language as well as enjoyment in learning it. This could have induced them to use the pragmatic information in the experimental E-C dictionary in a better way than those with only instrumental motivation.

The 16 instrumentally motivated participants get an average score of 26, which bottoms the list. This is not consistent with the view that their motivation "may facilitate language learning in the early stages because students with a clear aim in mind are highly instrumentally motivated" (Yu & Watkins 2011: 17). Rather this accords with the view that strong instrumental motivation is a significant predictor for learners of low and intermediate proficiency levels (Wen 2013: 80). Strong instrumental motivation has been found an important predictor for proficient learning of Chinese as a heritage language (Yang 2003; Lu & Li 2008), but since none of the Australian learners are heritage Chinese, this does not apply. Instead the findings indicate those with only instrumental motivation perform least well in the first pragmatics test, and are probably the least well-motivated to take full advantage of the pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary.

8.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Test Question on the First Pragmatics Test

The 38 participants' collective performance on each test question is summarised in Figure 8.2. The horizontal axis indicates the number of each question, while the vertical axis gives the number of correct answers made by the participants to it.

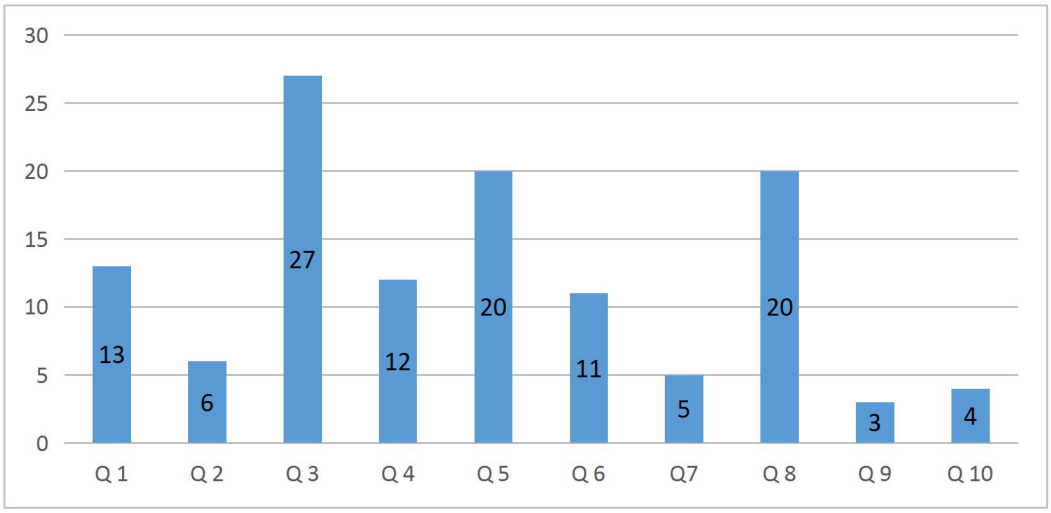

Figure 8.2: Distribution of participants' correct answers to each question of the first pragmatics test

In Figure 8.2, we can see that the number of correct answers to each question varies a lot. For example, only 6 or less participants addressed questions 2, 7, 9 and 10 correctly, while 27 participants answered question 3 correctly, and 20 answered questions 5 and 8 correctly.

According to the 38 participants' collective performance on each test question, the 10 questions have been regrouped into low-scoring, medium-scoring and high-scoring ones in Figure 8.3 for further analysis, which are highlighted in blue, green and red respectively. Low-scoring questions elicited below 20% correct answers, while the medium scoring group had accuracy rates between 21% and 40% . The high-scoring group had the accuracy rates above 40% .

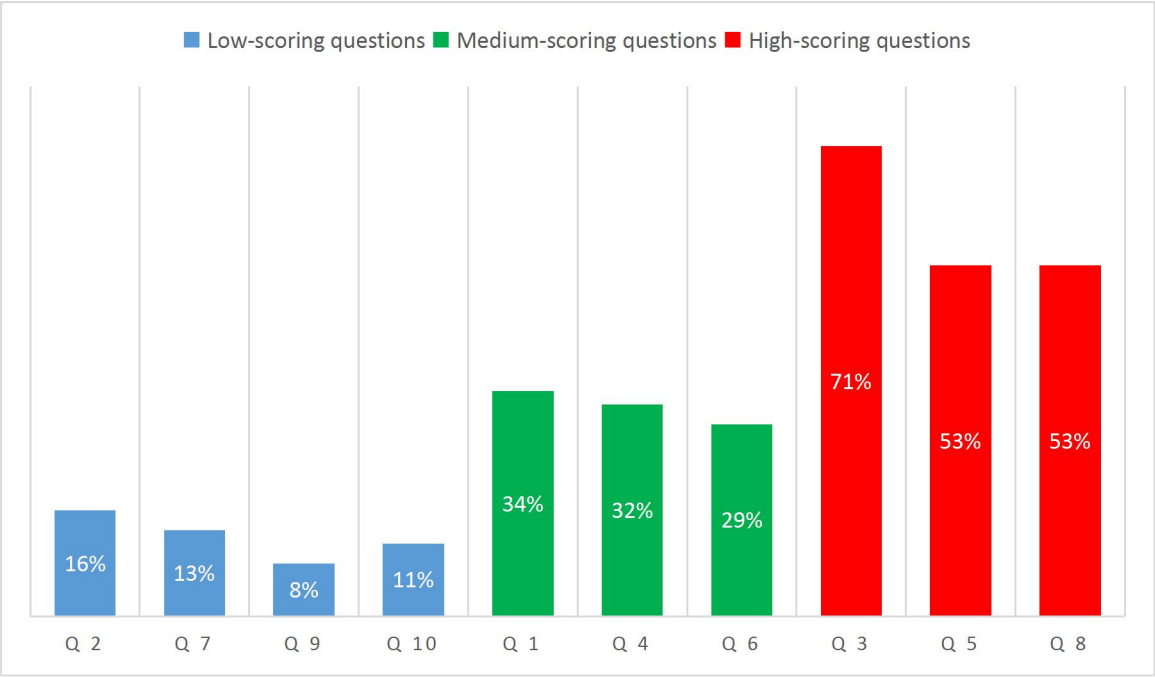

Figure 8.3: Grouping of participants' collective performance on the questions of the first pragmatics test

As Figure 8.3 shows, questions 3, 5 and 8 belong to the high-scoring group, questions 1, 4 and 6 to medium-scoring group, and questions 2, 7, 9 and 10 to low-scoring group.

The participants' performance on each question will be examined below, in order of high-scoring, medium-scoring and low-scoring group. The correct answer to each question is underlined. The multiple choices shown with translations in parentheses indicate the Chinese word used in them is beyond the 150 required by the revised Level-1lexical syllabus of HSK, and the English translation is provided to help the participants to understand the choices. Literal translations shown in square brackets below some multiple choices clarify their meaning for discussion in this dissertation (they did not appear on the students' test papers). The different fonts shown in quoting from the first-stage experimental dictionary are those used there for contrastive purposes.

8.3.1 High-scoring questions: nos 3, 5 and 8

Question 3 This question tests the expression of attitude of impatience conveyed through "*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy" in Chinese. The question provides the following context for the participants: You overhear a seller saying "*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买" to a buyer next to you. Then a question is asked about what attitude is conveyed by uttering this expression, with the following four choices offered:

bú nàifán　　rèqíng

A. 不耐烦 (impatience)　　B. 热 情 (hospitality)

kèqì　　lěngmò

C. 客气 (politeness)　　D. 冷 漠 (indifference)

The relevant pragmatic information is provided under the headword "buy" via a pragmatic label—**attitude**, example and its translation, and bracketed explanation. For the example sentence "Do you want to buy?", two translations have been supplied, with "*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买" as the second one. An explanation in brackets follows it, specifying the potential negative attitude that can be conveyed by the expression: (**!** *For sellers,* nǐ mǎi bú mǎi 你买不买 *is an impolite way to ask if someone wants to buy something or not. This shows the speaker's impatience, irritation, etc.*). The three ways to provide pragmatic information tested in question 3 seem to have worked well for the participants. 73% of them have got the answer correct. Participants' good performance on this question may reflect the accessibility of this piece of pragmatic information over "buy", and the fact that buying things is something socioculturally familiar to the participants.

Question 5 This question assesses the speech act of criticism to be introduced by a pragmatic marker—"*nǐ kàn nǐ* 你看你 you look you". The background of the question is as follows: One day, you heard a driver say to a passenger, "*nǐ kàn nǐ* 你看你 you look you". Then a followup question is asked: What kind of utterance does the passenger expect next? Thus the question is actually asking what type of speech act this expression will initiate, followed by four choices:

bāngzhù　　zànyáng

A. 帮 助　　B. 赞 扬（praise）

[help]

pīpíng huānyíng

C. 批 评（criticism） D. 欢 迎 (welcome)

The pragmatic information relevant to this pragmatic marker is offered via three lexicographical means within the entry of "look": a pragmatic label, illustrative example and pragmatic explanation in a pair of parentheses. When participants see the Chinese expression, they can simply go to the entry of "look" to find the pragmatic information needed. The label **Pragmatic marker** is eye-catching. With the combination of the illustrative example and the explanation, Participants are expected to understand that this formulaic expression is "*an indicator that the speaker is going to utter something negative about the hearer or to criticize*" and many of them do. For formulaic linguistic structures like this, acquiring the pragmatic meaning of the structure as a whole rather than interpreting each word independently is very important (Bai 2008: 90). Easy accessibility of the pragmatic information may have at least partly contributed to students' relative high performance on this particular question, hence to their Chinese pragmatic learning.

Question 8 This question tests the pragmatic information on the speech act of giving thanks. The following context is provided: "You need to consult a dictionary. One of your classmates has one, which he is not using at the moment. He lends it to you. " Then the participants are asked how they express their gratitude. Four choices are offered:

xiè xiè nǐ de cídiǎn

A. 谢 谢你 的词 典

[thank you+*particle* dictionary]

xiè xiè nín de cídiǎn

B. 谢 谢 您 的 词 典

[thank (polite) you+ *particle* dictionary]

xiè xiè

C. 谢 谢

[thank]

zhēn de xièxiè nín

D. 真 的 谢 谢 您

[really+*particle*+thank (polite) you]

The pragmatic information is provided by means of a pragmatic label, example and its translation, bracketed explanation, cross-reference, and "**Giving and Receiving Thanks**" in the appendix of "Pragmatic Interaction". The question asks the participants to choose one expression for displaying one's gratitude after borrowing another person's dictionary. Under the headword "thank", an example—"thank you for the book", translated as "*xièxiè nǐ*谢谢你", is provided. With the Chinese equivalent for the word "dictionary" missing in the translation, participants must infer the connection between the English and Chinese way of expressing one's gratitude. By rendering the example into Chinese in this way, the assumption is that "to

integrate form-function-context relations that are appropriate to L2, [CFL learners] must learn new pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic knowledge" of Chinese (Taguchi 2015a: 2). The most important fact, that Chinese thank the person rather than the specific favor that others have done for themselves (see also Chapter 3: 3.3.1.3), is supplied in a bracketed explanation. This piece of information is cross-referred to "**Giving and Receiving Thanks**" in the appendix on "Pragmatic Interaction" in the dictionary. With an accuracy rate of 48%, the three lexicographical means seem to have worked comparatively well for these participants. This may also point to the easy acquisition of "*xièxiè* 谢谢 thank thank" as a target Chinese pragmatic formula. This may also have something to do with the fact that the speech act of thanking is shared both in English and Chinese cultures, though the way to verbalise it linguistically can be different. The accuracy rate of participants' answers to this particular question is relatively high, it can also be possible that this piece of pragmatic information is comparatively easy to access under the headword "thank".

8.3.2 Medium-scoring questions: nos 1, 4 and 6

Question 1 This question checks the conversational topics that one can raise while communicating with Chinese. The question is "While talking with Chinese, there are some topics that you can speak on. Among the four topics below, which one Chinese acquaintances usually will **not** discuss with you? " The question is indirect in the sense that the participants are required to pick the one topic that Chinese usually do not talk about, which is "*tiānqì* 天气 weather". To draw the participants' attention, the word "not" is emphasised in bold type. The following four choices are offered:

tǐzhòng	tiānqì	niánlíng	shōurù
A. 体 重（weight）	B. 天气 [weather]	C. 年 龄 （age）	D. 收 入（income）

The pragmatic information assessed in question 1 is provided in an appendix entitled "Topics You can Take up with Chinese". Within its general introduction, the Chinese and English attitudes towards privacy are mentioned, followed by 8 specific topics that one can discuss with Chinese. For each topic, a simplified dialogue between two Chinese speakers is provided to show how people discuss it. Topics like "age" and "health" are cross-referred with specific headwords where the relevant pragmatic information is provided, such as "age", "body", "health" and "well". Such information in the appendix, part of mega-structure in lexicographical terms, helped 32% of the participants answer the question correctly. For the

rest, it may well be possible that they did not manage to find the relevant pragmatic information needed. The fact that English-speaking people tend to choose different topics of conversation from those of Chinese (see Chapter 4: 4.4.3) may have negatively affected their performance on this question.

Question 4 This question tests the expression by which Chinese speakers may query a person's motive, using "*bù*不 not". The context goes like this: You friend didn't come to school yesterday. He comes to school today. Then the participants were asked how they would ask him politely about the reason why he didn't attend class. Four choices are provided:

nǐ wèishénme zuótiān bù lái shàng kè

A. 你 为什么 昨 天 不 来 上 课?

[you why yesterday not come attend class]

nǐ wèishénme zuótiān méi lái shàng kè

B. 你 为 什 么 昨 天 没 来 上 课?

[you why yesterday not come attend class]

nǐ zuótiān bù lái shàng kè ba

C. 你 昨 天 不 来上 课 吧?

[you yesterday not come attend class+*particle*]

nǐ zuótiān bù lái shàng kè ma

D. 你 昨 天不 来 上 课 吗?

[you yesterday not come attend class+*particle*]

The pragmatic information needed to address the question is provided under the headword "not" by means of a pragmatic label, example and its translation, and bracketed pragmatic explanation. It is presented first through the translation of an illustrative example, "***Why didn't you go to school?*** nǐ wèishénme bú qù xuéxiào? 你为什么不去学校? ". Following this is a bracketed pragmatic explanation: "! When bù不 is used to negate an action, different from méi 没, the bù 不 structure displays a certain implicature, whereas the méi 没 structure doesn't convey such an implicature". This explanation is further supplemented with two other examples with the pragmatic label **Attitude**. The bracketed explanations after the translations of the two examples make it clear that if "*bù*不 not" is used, it indicates that the speaker thinks somebody does something purposely. With the three lexicographical means employed to present the pragmatic information, 31% of the

participants have answered the question correctly. It could well be the case that some participants have failed to access the necessary pragmatic information. This may also imply the subtlety of Chinese attitude conveyed this way increases the difficulty in their learning this usage of "*bù*不 not".

Question 6 This question assesses the speech of saying goodbye, expressed through "*nǐ máng* you busy 你 忙" in Chinese. The question starts with the description of context: "One day, a friend comes to visit you. You two chat for a while. Then he says to you: "nǐ máng you busy 你 忙". Then students are asked what the speaker means by uttering this, with four possible answers provided:

nǐ zhēn máng　　nǐ tài máng le
A 你 真　忙　　B. 你太　忙　了
[you really busy]　　[you too busy+*particle*]
shuō zàijiàn　　nǐ yīnggāi　　xiūxí yíxià
C. 说　再 见　　D. 你 应 该 (should)　休 息一下（rest a bit）
[say goodbye]　　[you should rest a bit]

Three lexicographical means—pragmatic label **Formula**, the bracketed explanation, plus the cross-reference, supply the pragmatic information needed. The second point in the bracketed explanation goes like this: " (2) máng 忙 *can also be used to say goodbye to people. Typical expressions can be: You can be busy with your work.* nǐ/nín máng ba！ 你/您忙(吧)！ *or You can be busy with your work first.* nǐ/nín xiān máng！ 你/您先忙！)".

This piece of lexicographical information is intended to help raise their metapragmatic awareness. It is cross-referred to various expressions for "**Saying Goodbye**" in a section called "Pragmatic Interaction" in the appendix. The pragmatic information above should be enough for these participants to address this question in the proper way. About 28% of the participants answered it in the correct way. The formulaic nature of "*nǐ máng* 你 忙 you busy" may have contributed to the participant's relatively good performance on this questions, even if attributing the reasons for leaving to the other party is foreign to these participants. This may also have resulted from their ease in locating the relevant pragmatic information.

8.3.3 Low-scoring questions: nos 2, 7, 9, 10

Question 2 This question tests the Chinese address form—"*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher", the pragmatic information of which is presented in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary via pragmatic labels, illustrative examples and their translations, bracketed pragmatic explanations, and cross-references. The test question first introduces participants to a context for it: You are an overseas student learning Chinese in China. One day, you need to go to Department of Teaching Affairs and consult a male clerk there about the selection of an elective course. Then following the question of "How would you address him politely? ", four choices have been provided:

	xiānshēng	lǎoshī	wèi	tā de míngzì
A.	先 生	B. 老 师	C. 喂	D. 他的 名 字
	[Sir.]	[teacher]	[hello]	[he+*particle*+name]

The four lexicographical means used to present the pragmatic information related to "*lǎoshī*老师 teacher" do not work well for the participants. According to the illustrative example, plus the pragmatic labels of <*Address*> and **Polite**, this polite address is especially reserved for those who are engaged in teaching. There is an explanation in brackets as well. However, the one piece of pragmatic information most relevant to addressing the question can only be found in point (3) of bracketed explanations: "(3) *In educational institutions like schools, universities, people would address those who are not engaged in teaching, like those doing administrative work,* lǎoshī老师 *as well, as a sign of respect*". The participants' difficulty in accessing the pragmatic information for answering the question may have led to their low performance on this question. The correct answer was chosen only by 16% of participants.

It could also be that the participants' performance is influenced by their pragmatic knowledge of "Sir." in English. It was hoped that after consulting a pragmatically enhanced entry like "teacher", participants were able to "learn the correct and appropriate uses of lexical units at the levels of … pragmatics" (Bogaards 1996: 279). Nevertheless, 31 out of 38 participants have chosen A, whose English equivalent is "Sir". They may have just transferred the way to address a male stranger politely to Chinese settings negatively. This displayed "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of…[their native language] on their

comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (Kasper 1992: 207), particularly where L1 and L2 pragmatic information displays great difference, like in this case of English and Chinese addressing involving politeness. In Chinese settings, to address a clerk with "*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher" is a way of respecting the hearer's positive face by denigrating oneself (see Chapter 1: 1.5.1), which would be quite foreign to those CFL learners. Thus it can also be said that the pragmatic difference between English and Chinese in terms of politeness may have contributed to their low performance on the question.

Question 7 This question tests a polite refusal in Chinese, for which the relevant pragmatic information is provided through a pragmatic note at "eat" and "Refusing" in "Pragmatic Interaction" in the appendix. The question is preceded by the following background: A friend invites you to lunch one day. You have to attend class in the afternoon. The question asked is about how to refuse him.

bù le bù le yīnwéi	wǒ búqù yīnwéi
A. 不 了，不了，因 为 (because)…	B. 我 不去，因 为 (because)…
[no+*particle*, no+*particle*, because…]	[I not go, because…]
bù yīnwéi	búqù yīnwéi
C. 不，因为 (because)…	D. 不 去，因 为 (because)…
[no, because…]	[not go, because…]

The pragmatic information provided in the three ways above did not work effectively for the participants. In the third point of the pragmatic note within the entry of "eat", participants are told a typical negative reply to an invitation for food can be "*bù le* 不了 No". Meanwhile, such information is reiterated in the "Refusing" in the appendix on "pragmatic interaction" through a conversation between two acquaintances:

A: 'please stay for dinner at our place. zài wǒ jiā chī fàn ba! 在我家吃晚饭吧！'

B: 'No, no. That's too much trouble. bù le, bù le, tài máfán le。不了，不了，太麻烦了。'

In addition, participants are also told that Chinese politeness requires them to explain the reason for declining an invitation. The pragmatic information provided through these two vehicles are cross-referenced to each other. Despite such information on the microstructural,

mediostructural, and megastructural level, only 13% of the participants have answered the question correctly. The participants may have failed to access the piece of pragmatic information necessary to address the question, because the pragmatic information is not provided in the entry of "no", but in "eat". Very few participants may think of consulting the latter headword in the first place. At the same time, the most relevant piece of the pragmatic information is in the middle of speech act of "Refusing" in the appendixes of the dictionary, which presupposes they need to be quite familiar with the dictionary content. Even if refusing as a speech act is cross-culturally shared by English and Chinese, "*bù le* 不了 No" as a formulaic polite way of refusing still seems not to be so easily learned, as a rather subtle point of Chinese politeness.

Question 9 This question assesses Chinese politeness in the speech act of inviting someone to your home, embodied in the duplication of verbs. The question offers the background information first: On the way home, you meet a friend whom you haven't seen for quite some time. You want to invite him home for a visit. What should you say to your friend? Then come four multiple choices:

qù wǒ jiā zuò	qù wǒ jiā zuò zuò
A. 去 我 家 坐	<u>B. 去 我 家 坐 坐</u>
[go my home sit]	[go my home sit sit]
lái wǒ jiā zuò	qù wǒ jiā
C. 来 我 家 坐	D. 去 我 家
[come my home sit]	[go my home]

The pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic structure tested is provided within the microstructure of the headword—"visit", in the Chinese translation of an example illustrating the duplication of verbs. In the meantime, amid the explanation in brackets following the translation, another example "'Come in and have a seat! *jìnlái zuò* 进来坐' and '*jìnlái zuò zuò*进来坐坐'" is offered. A note adds that the two Chinese expressions differ in that "the first one sounds like a direct request while the second one a more polite invitation". Despite this, the pragmatic information did not work effectively. Only 8% of the participants answered the question correctly. It may well be that participants have failed to access the pragmatic information at "visit" which they need to address this question. The subtle politeness displayed through the repetition of verbs can be difficult for the participants to learn, even if the same speech act of inviting is cross-culturally shared in both English and Chinese. It could also be possible that those CFL beginners could "perform different speech

acts than native speakers in the same contexts" (Bardovi-Harlig 1996: 22). At the same time, even if the expressions to perform the same speech act are used, they "may differ in form, semantic formula, or content" (Bardovi-Harlig 1996: 22) from those that native Chinese use.

Question 10 This question tests the speech act of criticism/disagreement. The question begins by situating the participants in a context: You are a university teacher. One day you stand near the door of the library. You hear the librarian say to you: "*zhè wèi lǎoshī* 这位老师 this teacher". Then the participants are asked what the librarian will probably say after this, with four multiple choices:

biǎo yáng shuō zàijiàn

A.表 扬（praise） B. 说 再 见

[say goodbye]

pīpíng dǎ zhāohū

C. 批 评（criticize） D. 打招 呼（greet）

Detailed pragmatic information is provided through a pragmatic note in the entry for "this". It reminds the participants to pay heed to the fact that "When nǐ 你 is used with determiner zhège 这个 before a noun, including address terms, or noun phrase to refer to someone (in front of you), where the use of zhège 这个 may seem to be redundant, it can convey displeasure, disagreement, criticism, etc. It is OK for dictionary users to use it for those purposes. The pronoun nǐ 你 can be omitted." (see Chapter 3: 3.7). A crucial note adds that "The measure word gè 个 can change with the noun zhège 这个 modifies", as supported with the example: "This doctor (i.e. excuse me), you can't stand in front of the gate. zhèwèi yīshēng！ nǐ bùnéng zhànzài mén qiánmiɑn！这位医生, 你不能站在门前面！" However, the pragmatic note did not work very well. Only 10% of the participants succeeded in locating or making proper use of it. Though criticising is found in both English and Chinese, this indirect way of showing criticism seems not to lend itself to easy learning by the participants.

8.3.4 Summary

The participants' performance on the first pragmatics test shows quite variable success in answering the pragmatic questions. There is little evidence that they perform well on questions testing particular categories of pragmatic information, such as speech acts or attitudes. The scores for the speech act questions (nos 5, 6, 8, 10) range from high to low. Likewise, those on expressing attitudes or politeness (nos 3, 4, 7, 9) also score from high to

low. There is little sign that particular types of pragmatic expressions are more easily learned by beginners. Yet their relatively better performance on questions 5, 6 and 8, which test pragmatically loaded formulaic Chinese constructions, suggests that they can be acquired by CFL learners more easily. The low-scoring questions (nos 2, 7, 9, 10) require participants to access complex pragmatic information to convey subtle attitudes or politeness appropriate to the situations. This suggests the difficulty of learning the linguistic expressions for conveying such attitudes or politeness, and/or the unfamiliarity of the underlying cultural concept.

8.4 Lexicographical Vehicles for Presenting Pragmatic Information and Participants' Performance

The section looks into whether the 38 participants' performance on a question of the first pragmatics test is related to lexicographical vehicles to present the pragmatic information. Different lexicographical means in every dictionary structure (see Chapter 6: 6.1) have been utilised to present the pragmatic meaning related to core Chinese vocabulary in the experimental E-C dictionary. The specific means to present the pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic structure tested in each question of the first pragmatics test will be summarised in the table below, with test item eliciting correct answers belonging to low-scoring, medium-scoring and high-scoring groups highlighted in blue, green, and red respectively.

Table 8.5: Lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with the item tested

No	Test item	Pragmatic information tested	Location of such information	Lexicographical means to present it
1	topics	Topics to discuss or not to discuss	Mega-structure	Appendix III Topics to Take up with Chinese
			Medio-structure	Cross-reference
2	*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher	Address form displaying respect	Micro-structure	Pragmatic labels <*address* > and **Polite**
				Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
			Medio-structure	Cross-reference
3	*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi*	Expression of	Micro-	Pragmatic label **attitude**

	你买不买 you buy not buy	attitude showing displeasure	structure	Example and its translation Bracketed explanation
4	*bù* 不 not	Expression of attitude signalling suspicion about motive	Micro-structure	Pragmatic label **Attitude** Example and its translation Bracketed explanation
5	*nǐ kàn nǐ* 你看你 you look you	Speech act of criticism	Micro-structure	Pragmatic label **Pragmatic marker** Example and its translation Bracketed explanation
6	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Speech act of saying goodbye	Micro-structure	Pragmatic label **Formula** Bracketed explanation
			Medio-structure	Cross-reference
			Mega-structure	Appendix I on pragmatics in interaction
7	*bù le* 不了 no particle	Politeness in refusal	Micro-structure	Pragmatic note
			Medio-structure	Cross-reference
			Mega-structure	Appendix I on pragmatics in interaction
8	*xièxiè* (*nǐ*)谢谢(你) thank (you)	Speech act of - giving and receiving thanks and the politeness displayed in this	Micro-structure	Pragmatic label **Formula** Example and its translation Bracketed explanation
			Medio-structure	Cross-reference
			Mega-structure	Appendix I on pragmatics in interaction
9	*zuòzuò* 坐坐 sit	Politeness in invitation	Micro-structure	Bracketed explanation Example and its translation
10	*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this	Speech act of criticism/disagreement	Micro-structure	Pragmatic note

The table shows that the use of lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic structures tested in each questions varies, but is usually to be found in more than one of the dictionary's structural components.

8.4.1 The number of lexicographical means

Comparing the results in Figure. 8.2 with Table 8.5, there is no positive correlation between the number of lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic construction, and the participants' performance on the specific question. Ready examples can be found to support the point. Three lexicographical means have been adopted to provide the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese structure tested in questions 3, 4 and 5. However, among the three questions, the performance on question 4 is among one of three lowest, while that on 3 and 5 rank amid the three high-scoring ones. Two lexicographical means have been adopted to present such information associated with the Chinese expression assessed in questions 1 and 9. The performance on question 1 is among one of the four lowest, while that on question 9 is one of the three medium-scoring ones. Even if only one lexicographical means—pragmatic note, is adopted to present the pragmatic information associated with "*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this" tested in question 10, its performance belongs to one of medium-scoring ones. Hence it is hard to establish the correlation between the number of lexicographical means to present pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic structure tested in a particular question and the participants' performance on the question.

8.4.2 The particular lexicographical means used

The results show no clear correlation between the participants' performance on a specific test question and the set of lexicographical means adopted to present pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic structure tested in that question was found. There is no consistent pattern of success for questions that go to the arguably more accessible appendixes, i.e. questions 1, 6, 7 and 8. The same lexicographical means—pragmatic label, example and its translation, and bracketed explanation, have been adopted to present the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic structure tested in questions 3 and 4. While the success rate for question 3 was 71%, it was only 32% for question 4.

In several cases, the lexicographical means to provide the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic construction tested share two—examples and bracketed explanations. They may have contributed to the successful answers to questions 5 and 8, yet evidently did not work so well for question 4, and not at all for question 9. If the two means are effective in presenting pragmatic information for questions 5 and 8, they might be expected to be effective for all those test items. These comparisons do not support the idea that a specific lexicographical means (or set of them) is more effective than others in presenting pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic structure to beginning CFL learners.

8.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information

At this stage, it is necessary to differentiate the pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic construction in the E-C dictionary that relates to a given test question, and the information actually tested by means of a question in the first pragmatics test. Not all the pragmatic information relating to a particular construction is tested in a question. We should therefore look into the accessibility of the specific pragmatic information tested in a question. Retrieving the necessary pragmatic information "is a subtle problem-solving activity involving many factors" (Hulstijn & Atkins 1998: 11), which may have a lot to do with its accessibility.

Accessibility refers to how much effort participants need to spend in retrieving a piece of pragmatic information tested in a question. Two types of accessibility—macro-accessibility and micro-accessibility, need to be distinguished here. Macro-accessibility means how easy it is to locate an English headword within the macrostructure, or other dictionary components where the pragmatic information relevant to or associated with a Chinese linguistic construction tested is provided. Micro-accessibility is how easy it is to locate the specific piece of pragmatic information tested within individual entries or other structural components of the experimental E-C dictionary. It seems likely that the easier it is for participants to decide where to go for the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic construction being tested, the better their performance on the test question will be. Likewise, the easier it is for participants to locate the specific pragmatic information tested within the various dictionary substructures, the more effectively they can address a question on the first pragmatics test. Both types of accessibility are likely to work together to affect their

performance on a specific test question. Only if the access structure of a dictionary is applied accurately, a user's search problem can be solved easily (Steyn 2004: 296).

Both types of accessibility can be differentiated into three levels: low, medium and high. High accessibility implies it is comparatively easy for the participants to figure out where to turn to for the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic structure tested or to access the specific pragmatic information tested, while low accessibility indicates it is demanding to achieve this. If the level of accessibility is deemed "medium", that implies the level of difficulty is situated between those two extremes. It should be noted that such differentiation is relative.

8.5.1 Macro-accessibility

At the outset, participants may be required to expend great effort in figuring out where to look for the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic structures tested in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary. This may help explain why "[t]here is a general belief amongst those concerned with dictionaries that dictionary users do not get the best out of their dictionaries" (Atkins 1998: 1), since they may not know where to seek for the information needed. It can be argued that figuring out which is the appropriate dictionary entry or other dictionary components, such as appendix, to refer to was challenging or not as easy as it was assumed for the participants of the first pragmatics test. The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to Chinese linguistic constructions tested is summarised in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6: Macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese constructions tested

Question No.	Chinese pragmatic elements tested	Location of the relevant pragmatic information	Ease of access for CFL learners
1	Topic not to discuss	Appendix	High
2	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	Teacher	Low
3	*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy	Buy	High
4	*bù*不 not	Not	High
5	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	Look	High
6	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Busy	High
7	*bù le* 不了 no	Eat	Low
8	*xièxiè* (*nǐ*) 谢谢你 thank (you)	Thank	High
9	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	Visit	Low
10	*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this	This	Medium

As the table shows, the pragmatic information associated with most of the linguistic items tested is ranked highly accessible in macro-terms, since participants may find it easy enough to figure out which headword or dictionary subsection to consult.

The pragmatic information regarding the tested Chinese items in questions 1, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8 is considered to be highly accessible. In question 1, the pragmatic information needed is associated with topics of conversations. It would be easy for participants to figure out that this would not be provided in the microstructure of individual entries, because it would be very challenging to do so. They would therefore be prepared to consult the appendix in the back matter directly. Thus its macro-accessibility is reckoned to be high. The pragmatic information assessed in question 3 is associated with "*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy". Participants may conclude it could be under the verb—"buy" instead of the pronoun "you". For an idiomatic expression in the form of a sentence or clause with a pronoun as its subject, the expression is usually included in the entry of other words which play a key role in it (Ge et al. 2009: VIII), where users would be expected to consult it. Thus its macro-accessibility is classified as high as well. For the pragmatic information associated with "*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you" in question 5, participants could think in the same way, thinking such information could be provided under the verb—"look" rather than the pronoun "you". The pragmatic information relevant to "*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy" in question 6 is offered in the microstructure of the headword "busy" as a reason for leaving. Similar to "*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you", it is of not much of challenge to the participants to think of this headword "busy" to consult for the necessary pragmatic information. Therefore, the macro-accessibility of the information associated with this structure is reckoned to be high as well. For question 8, it may not take the participants too much trouble to think of the headword "thank", since the question is asking them how they express their gratitude to someone who has lent them a dictionary.

The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic structure—"*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this", which is tested in question 10, is classified as medium. The information relevant to it is provided within the microstructure of "this". Participants may be able to figure out where to find the pragmatic information needed, either under the headword "this" or "you". Compared with the search for pragmatic information associated with the three structures tested in questions 2, 7 and 9, participants may need to spend less effort in finding the information associated with it.

The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic structures tested in question 2, 7 and 9 is classified as low. In question 2, the pragmatic information relevant to the linguistic structure is how to address a male clerk in the department of teaching affairs, which is not related to the main topic of the entry— "teacher". Therefore its macro-accessibility is deemed to be low. However, suppose the question asks the participants how to address a teacher politely in Chinese, then its macro-accessibility at "teacher" would be reckoned as highly accessible. The pragmatic information relevant to "*bù le* 不了 no" in question 7 bears little relation to the headword "eat". Participants may think of consulting the headword "no" in the first place rather than "eat". Therefore, its macro-accessibility is rated low as well. Question 9 tests the politeness in inviting others to visit you, manifested in the duplication of the Chinese verb "*zuò*坐 sit", which bears no special relation to the English headword "visit". Thus its accessibility is also rated low. Therefore, as far as the macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with the three linguistic structures tested is concerned, it would be challenging for participants to decide which headword to consult for such information needed, and their macro-accessibility is assessed to be low.

8.5.2 Micro-accessibility

As is mentioned above, accessibility can also be assessed by considering how hard it is for participants to retrieve the specific piece of pragmatic information tested from within the dictionary structure where it is located, i.e. its micro-accessibility. It can also be differentiated into three levels: low, medium and high, as is macro-accessibility. The micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in each question is summarised in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested

Question No.	Linguistic structures tested	The place where the pragmatic information tested is located	Micro-accessibility
1	Topic not to discuss	Appendix "Topics You can Take Up with Chinese"	Medium
2	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	Point three of bracketed explanations under "teacher"	Low
3	*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy	The bracketed explanation after the translation of the second example	Medium
4	*bù*不 not	The bracketed explanation after the example	Medium
5	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	Bracketed explanations following the second and third example of the second sense of "look"	Medium
6	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Point two in the bracketed explanations following the second example of "busy"	Low
7	*bù le* 不了 no	The third point in the bracketed explanation	Low

8	*xièxiè* (*nǐ*) 谢谢你 thank (you)	Pragmatic note	High
9	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	The example in the bracketed explanations of "visit"	Low
10	*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this	At the end of the pragmatic note	Low

From the table above, it can be said that in terms of the effort participants need to expend to retrieve the exact piece of pragmatic information tested, only question 8 is highly accessible in terms of micro-accessibility. The pragmatic information tested in question 8 is provided after the second translation of the second example, and would be easily found. It is thus highly accessible. But participants have to spend considerable effort to locate the exact information tested in the other 9 questions.

The micro-accessibility of pragmatic information tested in questions1, 3, 4 and 5 is rated medium. The information tested in question 1 is provided in the appendix on "Topics You can Take Up with Chinese". Participants need to go through the list of topics to exclude the ones that Chinese do talk about in their daily life. For such information tested in question 3, 4 and 5, participants could be cued indirectly by the use of pragmatically loaded Chinese structures in the translation of example sentences. Their effort to locate the exact piece of pragmatic information tested is hence considered medium. For question 3, "*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy" in the translation of the illustrative example may inspire dictionary users to read on to the pragmatic explanations immediately following it. "*bù*不 not" appears in the translation of the examples 5 and 6, which both have bracketed explanation immediately after the translation of the example to clarify the pragmatic information involved. However, they need to read all of this to address the question correctly. Thus its accessibility is considered to be medium. The pragmatic information tested in question 5 is provided under the second sense of "look", following the translation of the third example. Since "*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you" already appears in the translation, the micro-accessibility of such a piece of pragmatic information tested is classified as medium.

The effort involved in accessing the specific pragmatic information tested in questions 2, 6, 7, 9 and 10 is rated low. The information needed to answer question 2—how to address a male clerk in the teaching affairs office, is not very accessible since it can only be found in the third point of the bracketed explanation in the entry of "teacher". In other words, they have to wade through large amounts of irrelevant text (Rundell 1998: 327) to find the specific pragmatic information needed. Dictionary users need to go through the whole entry, including the explanation, to find it. Therefore, its micro-accessibility is rather low. Since dictionary

users often stop at the initial senses while consulting a polysemous entry for meaning appropriate in context (e.g. Bogaards 1998, Nesi 1987, Nesi & Haill 2002, Lew 2004), it can be expected that they may not go through the whole entry to find the pragmatic information tested as well. For question 6, the pragmatic information tested is provided in the second point of the bracketed explanation following the translation of the second example. However, participants need to finish the whole explanation to find the pragmatic role "*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy" plays. For question 7, the pragmatic information assessed can only be found almost at the end of the third point of the bracketed explanation for "eat", which is quite inaccessible to those participants. Even if the participants think of consulting the speech act of refusing in the appendix of "Pragmatic Interaction", they still need to read until almost halfway of the pragmatic information needed. Such information assessed in question 9 can only be found at the end of the bracketed explanation following the second translation of the first example, so its micro-accessibility is deemed low as well. As for the pragmatic information tested in question 10, participants have to read through the whole 11-line pragmatic note so as to address the question correctly. Therefore, the micro-accessibility of this piece of pragmatic information is also low.

8.5.3 Alignment of accessibility with participants' performance in the first pragmatics test

The two types of accessibility of pragmatic information—macro-accessibility and micro-accessibility, work together to decide how much effort the participants need to put in to retrieve a piece of pragmatic information tested. They may have affected their performance on different questions of the first pragmatics test. For them, they "need to be able to locate quickly the [leixcographical] information they are looking for" (Rundell 1998: 326). It can be argued that if dictionary users "failed to identify [the right entries or other dictionary components] which were most crucial for answering of the test questions" (Nesi & Meara 1991: 631), they would then experience trouble in finding the exact piece of such information tested. Macro-accessibility hence should prevail over micro-accessibility in determining whether a test question can be addressed correctly.

The alignment between the overall accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in a specific test question and the participants' performance on the question is summarised in the table below.

Table 8.8: Alignment of accessibility with participants' performance on the first pragmatics test

No	Linguistic structures tested	Macro-accessibility	Micro-accessibility	Participants' performance
1	Topic not to discuss	High	Medium	Medium
2	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	Low	Low	Low
3	*nǐ mǎi bú mǎi* 你买不买 you buy not buy	High	Medium	High
4	*bù*不 not	High	Medium	Medium
5	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	High	Medium	High
6	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	High	Low	Medium
7	*bù le* 不了 no	Low	Low	Low
8	*xièxiè* (*nǐ*) 谢谢你 thank (you)	High	High	High
9	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	Low	Low	Low
10	*nǐ zhège* 你这个 you this	Medium	Low	Low

This table shows how the two types of accessibility generally work together to determine the participants' ease of access to the pragmatic information needed to perform well on the pragmatics test. The overall accessibility of the pragmatic information tested generally bears a positive relationship to the participants' collective performance on each question of the first pragmatics test.

For those questions on which participants' performance falls into the high-scoring group, including 3, 5 and 8, participants do not seem so challenged by where to look for the pragmatic information tested in the first place. For question 8, the level of both types of accessibility are rated as high. First, they participants may have little difficulty finding the relevant entries of "thank", where the pragmatic information relevant to the tested linguistic structures is located. They also have no trouble retrieving the specific such information tested. For question 3 and 5, participants seem to have less trouble in deciding which entry to turn to in the first place. Even if the micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information is ranked medium, this does not affect the participants in their effort to locate the exact piece of such information tested in the bracketed explanation within the entry. Therefore, it should not be surprising that participants have scored high on both questions as well.

The overall accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic structures tested in questions 1, 4 and 6 and the participants' performance on the three questions is moderately aligned. For question 6, even if the participants do not have trouble deciding which headword to turn to for the pragmatic information needed in the first place, there is potential problem of accessing the specific pragmatic information set in the microstructure of the dictionary, so the micro-accessibility of such information in the question is ranked low. There, the two types of accessibility work together to lower the participants'

performance, which rates with the medium-scoring group. For questions 1 and 4, the pragmatic information tested is to be found within the appendix and the entry for "not" respectively and its micro-accessibility is medium. But perhaps locating the information being tested is not as easy as we think, even if participants know which dictionary component to go to.

The difficulty involved in accessing the pragmatic information tested in question 2, 7, 9 and 10 would help explain their low performance on those questions. It could be difficult to participants to access the pragmatic information tested in question 2, 7 and 9, since both macro- and micro- types of accessibility are low. After locating the right entry word, dictionary users have to find the right section within the entry in which the material is grouped in a certain order or following certain conventions, which can be fairly difficult for them to learn (Svensén 1993: 16). Since they need to exert considerable effort in accessing both types of information, the overall accessibility is reckoned to be low. The same applied to question 10, where participants have to decide whether to consult "you" or "this" in the first place. Then they need to read the whole pragmatic note in the entry of "this" to find the pragmatic information tested. This could help explain why they did not exploit the pragmatic information offered through pragmatic note so well and their performance ranked among one of the four lowest.

8.6 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

The results from the first pragmatics test have been instructive. They suggest that the pragmatic information in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary has contributed to the pragmatic learning of some of these CFL beginners in the short term. Participants with integrative motivation or combined motivation, in terms of their average score on the test, perform better than those with only instrumental motivation, indicating the importance of exploiting such motivation, for early pragmatic learning.

Based on the accuracy rates of participants' correct answers to each test question, their comparatively good performance on questions testing formulaic Chinese constructions implies their easy learnability. By contrast, questions assessing Chinese politeness strategies or subtle attitude usually elicit poor performance, implying the greater difficulty in acquiring these types of pragmatics. Participants' performance on each question does not positively align with the number of the lexicographical means or the specific lexicographical means

adopted to present the pragmatic information. However, their performance does align positively with the accessibility of pragmatic information within the dictionary structures. This indicates that dictionary compilers ought to ensure pragmatic information is highly accessible if it is to be conducive to the participants' learning of Chinese pragmatics.

The participants who continue to study Chinese for another semester have access to the enlarged second-stage experimental E-C dictionary, incorporating additional information mainly relating to the second level of the HSK vocabulary and associated constructions (see Chapter 6: 6.2). The effect of such information on their learning Chinese pragmatics in the longer run will be tested in the second pragmatics test, to be discussed in chapter 9.

Chapter 9: Results and Discussions of the Second Pragmatics Test

9.0 Introduction

9.1 Structure of the Second Pragmatics Test: Repeated Questions and the New Set

9.2 Participants' Performance on the Five Questions Repeated on the Second Pragmatics Test

9.2 Participants' Overall Performance on the Second Pragmatics Test

9.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Question on the Second Pragmatics Test

9.4 Lexicographical Vehicles and Participants' Performance

9.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information

9.6 Participants' Frequency of Use of the Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

9.7 Participants' Feedback on the Presentation of Pragmatic Information in the E-C dictionary

9.8 The Learning Profiles of 13 Participants, as Reflected in the Two Pragmatics Tests

9.9 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

9.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the results of the second pragmatics test, which was conducted at the end of the students' second semester of learning Chinese. The cohort of participants was by then reduced to the 13 "survivors" from the original cohort. They had access through their second semester to the 78-page second-stage experimental dictionary, with its additional entries and enhanced pragmatic information (See Chapter 6: 6.2). The second pragmatics test provides further data with which to address RQ4, on the contribution of the experimental dictionary to the CFL beginners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatics in the longer run. Analysis of the test questions themselves may again provide indications as to which are more and less effective in eliciting appropriate answers from the students, depending on how well they interface with the material provided in the dictionary and its accessibility. Additional questions attached to the test asked participants about how frequently they referred to the experimental dictionary, and for some feedback on how it might be enhanced.

Through the second pragmatics test, the following experimental questions were addressed:

(B1) Is there any improvement in participants' performance on the five repeated questions?

(B2) Are there any cumulative effects visible in the students' performance on the second pragmatics test?

(B3) Do the students perform better on some kinds of pragmatic questions than others?

(B4) Do the lexicographical means to present pragmatic information affect their performance?

(B5) How does the accessibility of pragmatic information in the second-stage dictionary align with their performance?

(B6) Does the students' frequency of using the experimental dictionary bear any relation to their performance?

(B7) Does any particular learning profile emerge from the combination of factors relating to the students' performance and dictionary use?

9.1 Structure of the Second Pragmatics Test: Repeated Questions and the New Set

One of the goals of the second pragmatics test is to see if there is any improvement in participants' performance on the five repeated questions. They were selected from the ten questions of the first pragmatics test according to the accuracy rates of participants' correct answers (see Chapter 8: 8.3) from three scoring groups (see Chapter 7: 7. 2.5.2). The answers to the questions of the first pragmatics test were not given to the participants after the test. The five repeated questions are summarised in Table 9.1 below.

Table 9.1: Five questions repeated on the second pragmatics test

Number of questions in first pragmatics test	Participants' performance	Pragmatic information tested	Number of questions in second pragmatics test
Q2	Low-scoring	Address form displaying respect	Q4
Q9	Low-scoring	Politeness in invitation	Q6
Q1	Medium-scoring	Topics to discuss or not to discuss	Q2
Q6	Medium-scoring	Speech act of saying goodbye	Q10
Q5	High-scoring	Speech act of criticism	Q8

Aside from the five questions that remain the same on the first and the second test, another five are introduced in the second test to complement the pragmatic information assessed in their counterparts in the first test. Table 9.2 summarises the two sets:

Table 9.2: A comparison of the five other questions on the first and the second pragmatics test

Question No. on the first pragmatics test	Pragmatic information tested	Question No. on the second pragmatics test	Pragmatic information tested
Q3	Expression of attitude showing displeasure	Q1	Expression of attitude of surprise
Q4	Expression of attitude signalling suspicion about motive	Q7	Expression of satirical attitude
Q7	Politeness in refusal	Q9	Politeness to show modesty
Q10	Speech act of criticism/disagreement	Q5	Pragmatic marker showing criticism/displeasure
Q8	Speech act of giving and receiving thanks	Q3	Modal particle showing uncertainty

Table 9.2 shows that in terms of the pragmatic information tested, three out of the five new questions on the two pragmatics tests are directly comparable. Both Q3 and Q4 on the first pragmatics test, and Q1 and Q7 on the second test focus on expression of attitudes. Q7 of the first test checks politeness in refusal, while Q9 on the second test assesses politeness in showing modesty. Thus in terms of the pragmatic information tested, the three questions are quite comparable.

It can be argued that the pragmatic information tested in questions 3 and 5 on the second pragmatics test is more subtle and indirect, thus more difficult than that tested in their counterparts—Q10 and Q8 of the first test. While Q10 on the first test targets the speech act of expressing criticism/disagreement, Q5 on the second test tests the understanding of pragmatic marker, which exercises the speech act of criticism or shows one's displeasure. Q8 on the first test focuses on the speech act of giving and receiving thanks, which is quite straightforward. By contrast, Q7 on the second test examines the expression of a satirical attitude, involving implicit satirising. These adaptations of the test question set are intended to

match the participants' increasing Chinese proficiency, and their acquaintance with the pragmatic information related to the 151-300 words in the revised lexical syllabus of HSK.

The participants' performance on the two pragmatics tests will be compared to measure the cumulative effects of the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary on helping CFL beginners in acquiring the pragmatic knowledge of Chinese.

9.2 Participants' Performance on Five Repeated Questions and their Overall Performance on the Second Pragmatics Test

As in the first pragmatic test, with each question answered correctly, a participant gets 10 points. Participants' overall performance on the second pragmatics test is the number of correct answers multiplied by 10. Before looking at the participants' overall performance on the second pragmatic test, their performance on five repeated questions on two pragmatics tests are compared in the Table 9.3 in terms of the accuracy rate of answers.

Table 9.3: A comparison of the accuracy rates on the five repeated questions

Question No.	Accuracy rate on the first pragmatics test	Accuracy rate on the second pragmatics test	Difference
Q 2	32%	46%	+14%
Q 4	16%	8%	- 8%
Q 6	8%	54%	+46%
Q 8	52%	46%	-4%
Q 10	28%	54%	+26%

Compared with the participants' performance on the five questions repeated from the first pragmatics test, that on the second one shows an overall improvement. Among the five questions, 2, 6, 8 and 10 now elicit relatively high levels of success from participants, a positive answer to the experimental question B1. In terms of the accuracy rates of answers, three questions show improvement, particularly those of questions 6 and 10. The accuracy level of question 6 improves dramatically by more than five times, while that of question 10 has almost doubled. Even if the accuracy rate of question 8 has dropped a bit, it still belongs to the high-scoring group. The cumulative effects of the pragmatic information incorporated into the first-stage and the second-stage experimental E-C dictionaries on the results of three of the five repeated questions are very visible. The only low-scoring one among them (Q4) suggests the importance of the acquisitional settings for L2 learning.

The participants' overall performance on the second pragmatics test are graphed in Figure 9.1 below. As noted, it was a much smaller cohort who continued with their studies in

Chinese, and their results are much more compact than those of the larger first semester cohort.

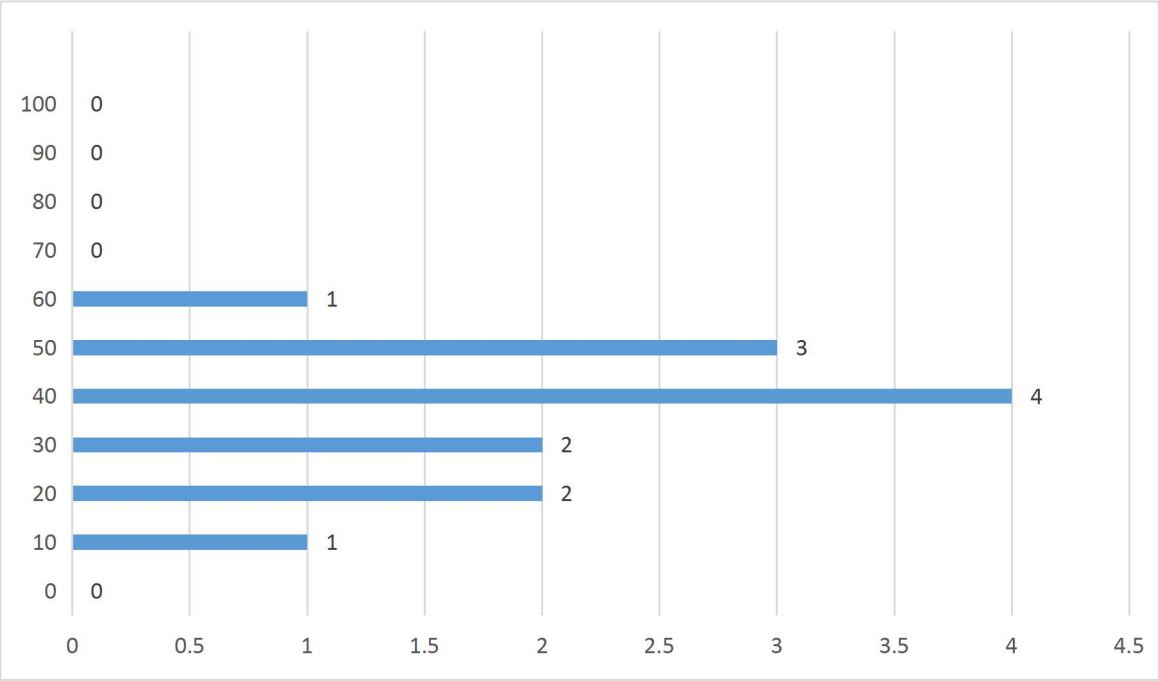

Figure 9.1: Overall distribution of participants' performance on the second pragmatics test

Compared with the participants' performances on the first pragmatics test (see Chapter 8: Figure 8.1), those shown here in Figure 9.1 for the second test point to the cumulative effects on the participants' learning of Chinese pragmatics while they had access to the second-stage E-C experimental dictionary. Figure. 9.1 shows the median of 13 participants' performance on the second pragmatics test as 40, double that of the first test, in a narrower overall range from 10 to 60. The mode of participants' performance is 40 as well, indicating the large number of participants of the second pragmatic test has got that score. Judging by the median and the mode, the participants' overall performance on the second pragmatics test has improved a lot. The participants' average score (mean) has also improved from 31.6 on the first test to 36.9 on the second. All this data provides a very positive answer to experimental question B2 on whether there are cumulative effects to be seen in the students' performance on the second test.

It however should be noted that other factors could have worked together to contribute to this improvement. By the end of the second semester, participants have had longer exposure to Chinese learning, which would naturally enhance their Chinese proficiency. CFL learners' improved Chinese proficiency helped to improve their ability to make requests in terms of both expressions and strategies, as found by Wen (2014). We may assume it supports

the acquisition of Chinese pragmatics, in terms of both pragmatic awareness and pragmatic knowledge of Chinese. This enhanced Chinese proficiency from the first to the second semester would strengthen their capacity to use the pragmatic information from the second-stage experimental dictionary and contribute to their improved performance on the second pragmatics test. Meanwhile, those continued with their Chinese studies for the second semester may be more strongly motivated to learn Chinese, which would encourage them to use the second-stage dictionary better for their learning Chinese pragmatics.

9.3 Accuracy Rates of Answers to Each Question on the Second Pragmatics Test

Let us now examine the 13 participants' performance on each question of the second pragmatics test. The distribution of their correct responses to the question is summarised in Figure 9.2. The letter R identifies the repeated questions, as will be in Figure 9.3.

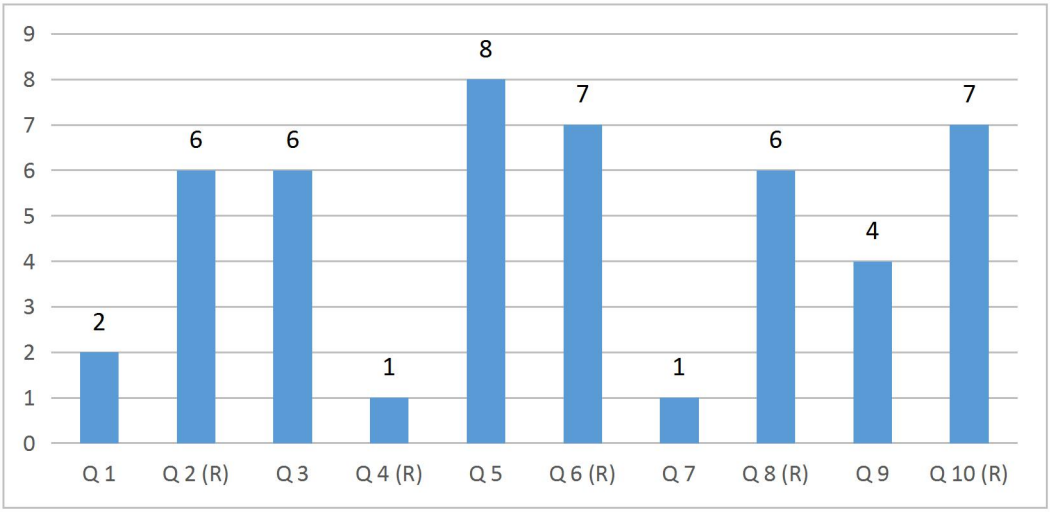

Figure 9.2: Distribution of participants' correct answers to each question of the second pragmatics test
The horizontal axis indicates the number of a question, while the vertical axis the number of correct answers it elicited from the participants.

According to the 13 participants' collective performance on each question, the ten questions can be classified into three groups: low-scoring, medium-scoring, and high-scoring, using the same thresholds for assessing their performance as for the first test (see Chapter 8: 8.3). The questions with below 20% of correct answers are categorised as the low-scoring questions. The one with accuracy rate between 21% and 40% belongs to the medium-scoring group. Those questions with accuracy rates above 40% are classified as high-scoring questions. The three groups of questions with different accuracy rates are blocked together in

Figure 9.3, with low-, medium- and high-scoring groups highlighted in blue, green and red respectively. They compare very powerfully with those shown in Figure 8.3 in Chapter 8.

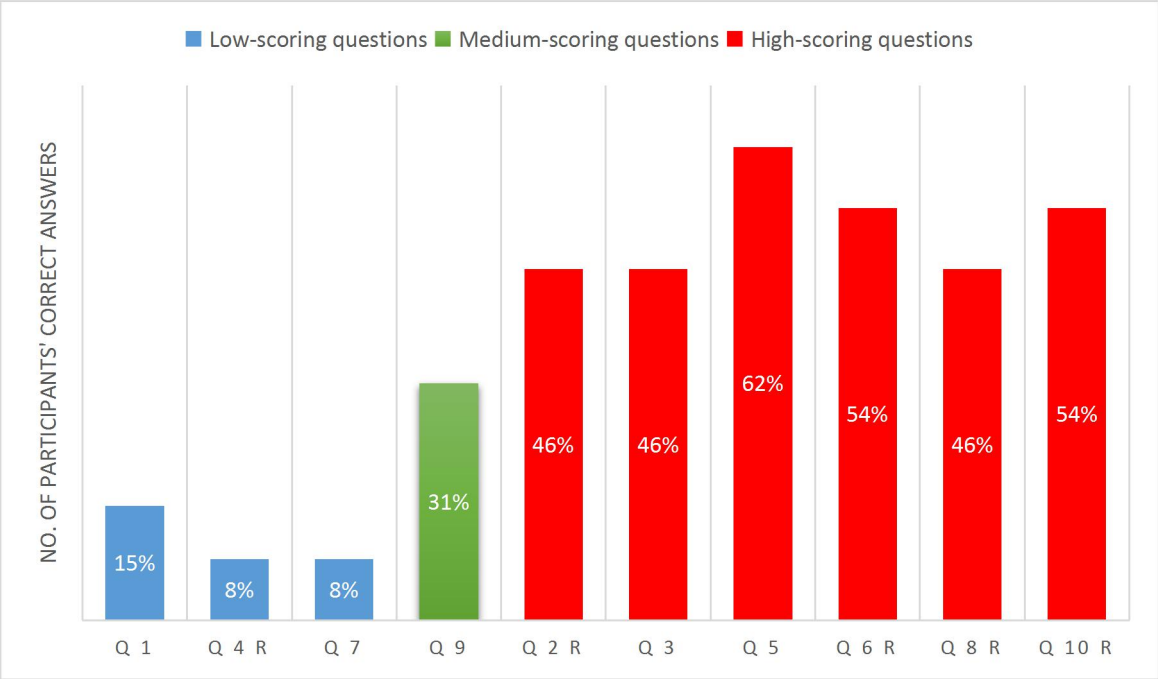

Figure 9.3: Grouping of participants' collective performance on the questions of the second pragmatics test

The configuration of the high-/medium-/low-scoring group on the second pragmatics test is quite different from that of the first. The high-scoring group of questions has doubled in size, with just one in the medium-scoring group (not far behind), and the remaining three forming a smaller low-scoring group than that of the first pragmatics test. The changes in the number of test questions in each scoring group shows consistent improvement in participants' overall Chinese pragmatic performance across the range. Figure 9.3 also documents the effects of cumulative learning in the strong scores for 4 out of the five repeated questions (R). Their numeral scores on the first and second test are compared.

Let us now review all 10 questions of the second pragmatics test in order of high-, medium-, and low-scoring groups in order to address experimental questions B3, B4 and B5. The correct answer to each question is underlined. The multiple choices in parentheses indicate that the Chinese word used in them is beyond the 300 required by the revised Level-2 lexical syllabus of HSK. Therefore the English translation is provided to help the participants to understand the choices. Literal translation in square brackets below some multiple choices are to clarify their meaning for discussion in this dissertation. They did not appear on

students' test paper. The different fonts shown in quoting from the second-stage experimental dictionary are those used there for contrastive purposes.

9.3.1 High-scoring questions: nos 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10

Question 2 This question checks the conversational topics that one can raise while conversing with Chinese people, which is also one of the five questions repeated on the second pragmatics test. For the background, the question itself and the four choices, please see Chapter 8: 8.3.2. As discussed in 8.3.2, the relevant pragmatic information to address the question can be found in the last appendix in the first-stage experimental dictionary, so it is with the second-stage one.

With an accuracy rate of 46%, it seems that the pragmatic information offered through topics in the megastructure is working effectively, possibly because such information on pragmatic topics is quite accessible through the headings/subheadings of the Appendixes to the experimental dictionary (Appendix IV in the second-stage dictionary). However, it needs to be noted that other input could have contributed to the improvement in the participants' performance on this question, i.e. the textbook the participants are using—*New Practical Chinese Reader* (Book2 2010: 228). Its compilers mention in passing that a senior family member or an elderly relative can ask the younger family member his or her age, occupation, income, marital status, which without being perceived nosy. Actually, people outside the family may ask each other similar questions as well. Two choices—income and marriage, have been included among the four choices for students to choose from. The other two are weight and weather. Therefore, the participants' improved performance on this question could also be partly attributed to the information provided in their textbook.

Question 3 This new question tests the attitude of uncertainty conveyed by a modal particle—"*ba* 吧". The associated pragmatic information is offered in the third insert—"Particles", lodged together with appendixes in the second-stage experimental dictionary. The question sets the background first: "Your and your younger sister are waiting for the visit of your friend". Then when your sister asks you if he will come or not: "tā huì lái ma? Will he come? 他会来吗？", your reply resembles her question in every word except the last modal particle: "tā huì lái ba? Will he come? 他会来吧？". Then a question is asked about the implication of your reply, followed by four choices.

jiànyì bú quèdìng

A. 建议 (suggesting) B. 不 确定 (showing uncertainty)

tóngyì zhìyí

C. 同意 (agreeing) D. 质疑 (doubting)

Modal particles in Chinese have always been a problem to L2 Chinese learners, as Qu (1986: 37), Chang (1988: 230), and Xu (1998a: 27), among others, have argued. Pragmatic information supplied in the Appendix notes "*ba* 吧 *particle*" is usually attached to the end of a sentence to convey particular tones for the speaker and a variety of pragmatic functions, such as entreaty, command, suggestion, and agreement. It can also be employed to show the speaker's uncertainty as well. This piece of pragmatic information is further supported by two examples:

"Eg.1: He will come, won't he? tā huì lái bɑ? 他会来吧?

Eg.2: Those fruits may be expensive. nà xiē shuíguǒ kěnéng hěn guì bɑ! 那些水果可能很贵吧! "

The fact that the translation of particles, like "*yíxià*一下 a bit" and "*ba* 吧", is context-dependent (Qu 1986) makes it an open question as to where to present the pragmatic information associated with them in the macrostructure of the experimental E-C dictionary. It is very challenging to provide the pragmatic information on Chinese particles within the microstructure of specific headwords in the dictionary. One solution to this problem is presenting the pragmatic aspects of these particles collectively, as in Appendix III in the second-stage dictionary. The advantage of this is that it makes it comparatively easy for dictionary users to locate the information.

The participants' relative high performance on this new question could be related to the accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with "*ba* 吧", helped by the titles/subtitles of the relevant Appendix III in the experimental dictionary. This may have been conducive to their pragmatic learning. Meanwhile, it could also be possible that the way the test question is constructed has given the participants some hint of the answer and thus helped to lessen the difficulty in figuring out the meaning conveyed by "*ba* 吧".

Question 5 This new question tests the negative attitude conveyed by a formulaic Chinese expression "*dà wǎnshàng de* 大晚上的 big night+*particle*". The background settings are provided first: One night, you prepared for the exam until after midnight. Your mom

woke up to find you working and said to you: "dà wǎnshàng de, nǐ zài gàn shénme? Big night, you are doing what? 大晚上的，你在干什么？". Then a question is asked about what kind of feeling the underlined expression implies, followed by four multiple-choices.

gāoxìng	jīdòng
A. 高兴 [happy]	B. 激动 (excitement)
bùān	bùmǎn
C. 不安 (uneasiness)	D. 不满 (dissatisfaction)

Four lexicographical means have been adopted to present the pragmatic information associated with "*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night *particle*" in the microstructure of "night": an illustrative example and its translation, pragmatic label, pragmatic explanation in brackets and cross-reference. The English example sentence already implies the attitude to be conveyed: "***What on earth are you doing at this late night (i.e. at this late time)****?* **Attitude** dà wǎnshang de，nǐ zài gān shénme ya？大晚上的，你在干什么呀？" The attitude is shown by the English expression "on earth", as is pointed out in *Times-Chambers Essential English Dictionary* (2nd Edition) (1997: 303): "You use **on earth a** in questions as a way of emphasizing how puzzled, surprised, shocked or angry you are". In other words, the expression "on earth" is rather marked in conveying a speaker's strong attitude or feeling.

The pragmatic information associated with "*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night *particle*" is extended within the microstructure of "so". For the headword "so", the expression "*dà…de* 大…的 big…*particle*" is listed out as an equivalent, preceded by a stylistic label "<spoken>". After the first illustrative example is a bracketed explanation, pointing out the expression could convey attitude of surprise, disapproval or criticism, the latter two of which are considered to be relevant to addressing this question. At the same time, it also points out the elliptical part "*dà…de* 大…的 big…*particle*" is often time. This is further supported by two other examples, which are both preceded with two bracketed explanations focusing on the particular attitudes conveyed. The pragmatic information provided within the entries of "night" and "so" has been linked via cross-references, helping participants build up the network of relevant pragmatic information on "*dà…de* 大…的 big…*particle*".

The participants' good performance on this question (8 out 13 participants have answered the question correctly) makes it the highest-scoring among the six high-scoring questions. It can be argued that the participants' high performance on the question would have

a lot to do with the high accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with "*dà wǎnshàng de* 大晚上的 big night *particle*". Formulaic pragmatic expressions like this are also easy to learn and apply.

Question 6 This repeated question tests the politeness involved in the speech act of inviting someone to your home, conveyed by the duplication of verbs. As for the background, the question and the four choices, see Chapter 8: 8.3.3. The accuracy rate of participants' correct answers to the question on the second pragmatics test was 54%. It is almost 7 times the rate on the first test—8% (see Table 9.3). Since the accessibility of the pragmatic information has not changed, the participants' improved performance may be attributed to their pragmatic learning by longer exposure to Chinese. It also appears that for most of these "survivors" in second semester, accessibility is less of an issue, since they are more familiar with the experimental dictionary's structure and how to exploit the pragmatic information in it.

Question 8 This repeated question tests the speech act conveyed by the pragmatic marker—"*nǐ kàn nǐ* 你看你 you look you". See Chapter 8: 8.3.1 for the background for the question, the question itself, and the pragmatic information presented in the first-stage experimental dictionary, which is unchanged in the second-stage one. The three lexicographical means at the entry for "look"—pragmatic label, illustrative example and its translation, plus a pragmatic explanation in brackets, to present the pragmatic information relevant to this pragmatic marker worked effectively, since 46% of the participants have addressed the question correctly, a slightly lower percentage than in the first pragmatics test. The performance of the participants on this question would relate to the accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic structure, and the fact that it could be comparatively easier to acquire as a formulaic Chinese pragmatic construction.

Question 10 This repeated question assesses the speech act of saying goodbye conveyed by "*nǐ máng* 你 忙 you busy". For details concerning the background for the question, the question itself and the choices, please refer to Chapter 8: 8.3.2. The accuracy rate of the participants' answers to this question has increased from 28% to 54% across the two pragmatics tests, with the question correctly answered by 7 out of 13 participants. Since the accessibility of the pragmatic information tested has not changed, there must be other reasons accounting for the participants' improved performance on the question on the second pragmatics test, like their increased exposure to learning Chinese. Even if the idea of attributing one's need to leave to the other party still remains something foreign to these

beginning English-speaking CFL learners, their improvement does indicate the growth of pragmatic learning in the longer term.

9.3.2 Medium-scoring question: no 9

Question 9 This new question assesses the pragmatic expression of politeness in Chinese when someone presents a gift. The question first introduces the following context to the participants: After having studied in Australia for two years, your Chinese friend is leaving for China for good. While giving him an expensive gift, you decide to say something in accordance with Chinese politeness. Then four possible choices have been attached:

zhè shì zhēnguì de lǐwù

A. 这 是 珍贵 (valuable) 的礼物。

[This be valuable *particle* gift]

xīwàng nǐ xǐhuān zhè jiàn lǐwù 。

B. 希望 你 喜欢 这 件 礼物。

[hope you like this *measure word* gift]

zhè shì (wǒ de) yīdiǎn xiǎo yìsī 。

C. 这 是（我 的） 一点 小 意思。

[This be (my) a bit little meaning]

zhè jiàn lǐwù hěn zhēnguì

D. 这 件 礼物 很 珍贵。

[This *meansure word* gift very valuable]

With 4 out of 13 participants answering the question correctly, it is the only question falling into medium-scoring group. About 62% of participants have selected A and D, which literally mean the same thing: to state matter-of-factly the great value of the gift. This goes against Chinese politeness, which requires people to denigrate the value of their gift, or other things associated with oneself, one's friends, families. The idea of understating the value of something related to oneself to attend to a recipient's face may have appeared alien to the participants, even if self-denigration constitutes an important maxim of Chinese politeness. It is quite impolite for someone to emphasise how precious a gift is when presenting it to others. This may embarrass the recipient to the extent that s/he might try her/his best to give it back.

The pragmatic information associated with the Chinese expression while presenting a gift to others is provided under "token" linked through an example and its translation,

pragmatic label, and an explanation in brackets. In addition, this piece of pragmatic information is cross-referenced to an essay on Chinese politeness in the appendix. From the participants' performance, it appears that the pragmatic information relating to the Chinese pragmatic formula to address the question is more difficult to access than is expected. However, the fact that the question falls into medium-scoring group still suggests its relatively easy learnability.

9.3.3 Low-scoring questions: nos 1, 4, 7

Question 1 This new question tests the expression of surprise conveyed by the linguistic structure "*bié shì*别是 not be". The question sets the participants in the following context: "Your brother's school is going to have a sports meet tomorrow. The next day, early in the morning, he hears someone saying something about umbrella. He murmurs to himself: "*bié shì xià yǔ le ba*？别是下雨了吧？ Not be raining?". Then the question asks the implications of this expression, followed by four multiple choices:

tā gǎndào fènnù A. 他感到 (feel) 愤怒 (angry) [He feel angry]	tā gǎndào yìwài B. 他 感到 意外 (surprised) [He feel surprised]
tā gǎndào shīwàng C. 他 感到 失望 (disappointed) [he feel disappointed]	tā gǎndào bú quèdìng D. 他 感到 不 确 定 (uncertain) [he feel uncertain]

In the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary, the sense of unexpectedness or surprise conveyed by "*bié shì* 别是 not be" is discussed within the microstructure of the headword "possible", by means of an example and its translation, and bracketed pragmatic explanation. The Chinese translation equivalent of "possible" is "*kěnéng de* 可能的". The following illustrative sentence plus its translation have been provided. "***He didn't come. Is it possible that it has rained?*** 他没有来，别是下雨了吧?" Following it is an explanation in the brackets, pointing out "*bié shì*别是 not be" "*is used to show that something the speaker doesn't wish to happen may have appeared*", thus implying that such an occurrence is quite unexpected.

Participants' low performance on this question may have resulted from their difficulty in accessing the pragmatic information relevant to "*bié shì*别是 not be" within the entry of "possible". Only 2 out of 13 participants have addressed the question correctly, even though

the expression "*bié shì xià yǔ le ba*？别是下雨了吧？" has been adapted from the example for "possible" above. Most participants were probably unable to locate the piece of pragmatic information associated with "*bié shì*别是 not be", which has affected their pragmatic learning. Though both characters in this expression have their own meaning, this combination has generated a meaning which cannot be related to their individual senses. The meaning of such a structure can only be acquired as a whole, and the attitude expressed in it would be elusive for CFL beginners to learn.

Question 4 This repeated test question assesses the pragmatic information relating to a polite address form in Chinese—"*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher". The four lexicographical means covering it: pragmatic label, an example and its translation, bracketed explanation, and cross-reference, are the same in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary. For the question itself and the four multiple choices, see Chapter 8: 8.3.3. The participants' performance on this question actually worsens on the second pragmatics test. It has dropped by half, from 16% on the first test to 8% on the second, and is one of the two lowest among the ten questions. Only 1 out of 13 participants has answered the question correctly. Like the choice made by participants in the first test, the majority—12 out of 13 participants, have chosen the option—"*xiānshēng* 先生 Sir.", a polite form to address a stranger. However, they are supposed to choose "*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher", a polite address form in Chinese, used not only for addressing teachers, but also those working in educational institutions. Its usage has been further extended nowadays.

Three factors may help account for this poor result. As pointed out in 8.3.3, participants' low performance on this question can be partly explained by the difficulty in accessing the pragmatic information concerned. In addition, there could be negative transfer from their mother tongue, since this way of attending to a clerk's positive face by according him a professional title seems foreign to them. Their lack of CFL social setting (Wu 1994: 114) for acquiring Chinese could also have led to their low performance on this question on both pragmatics tests. CFL learners generally do not have many chances to observe forms of address in natural interaction, let alone to practice whatever pragmatic knowledge that has been acquired. Those learning Chinese in China or other Chinese-speaking communities would be at an advantage in acquiring such knowledge. As "*lǎoshī* 老师 teacher" is now so often used to address teachers on Chinese campuses and beyond, they may pick up the pragmatic information associated with it in daily interactions with others.

Question 7 This new question tests the satirical attitude conveyed by the Chinese expression—"*huì shuōhuà* 会说话 can speak". The question first places participants in the context of their overhearing someone talking to another person about Li Ming: "(Lǐ Míng hěn huì shuōhuà。Li Ming very can speak. 李明很会说话。"). Then, a question asks what attitude is implied by way of asking what kind of speech act the speaker is actually performing, and follows it with four choices.

biǎoyáng	pīpíng
A. 表扬 (praising)	B. 批评 (criticizing)
fěngcì	gǎnxiè
C. 讽刺 (satirizing)	D. 感谢 (thanking)

The pragmatic information relevant to "*huì shuōhuà*会说话 can speak" has been provided in several forms under the headword—"speak". This formulaic Chinese expression carries a pragmatic meaning which differs from the straightforward combination of the word "*huì*会 can" to "*shuōhuà*说话 speak" and must be understood as a whole. A pragmatic explanation is offered after the translation of the illustrative example, starting with an exclamatory mark in bold type and the pragmatic label "**Attitude**". The explanation clarifies that the Chinese expression "*carries derogatory or satirizing sense*", and implies that a person is good at "paying lip-service". "Paying lip-service" is derogatory in English, glossed in the dictionary as "Say that one approves of or supports sth while not doing so in practice" (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* 1989: 727). Nevertheless, most participants have failed to make use of the pragmatic information in the entry of "speak", possibly because they were unable to find it. The problem of inaccessibility is compounded by the need to understand the non-literal meaning of the phrase. It could be the case that they simply ticked an answer without referring to the experimental dictionary, which might hold true for their responses to every test question. "There is no reason why learners should consult any references if they think they already know how to [address the question], even if they are wrong about this" (Frankenberg-Garcia 2015: 496).

9.3.4 Summary

As in the first pragmatics test, participants in the second test perform better on certain pragmatic questions than others, but again their performance does not seem to correlate with the particular type of pragmatic information tested. So experimental question B3 must be

answered in the negative, as far as it relates to the type of pragmatic information. Yet it should be noted that participants' performance on the questions involving formulaic expressions, such as 8, 9, 10, were better than those focusing on freely constructed expressions. This would confirm that pragmatic formulae are comparatively easier to learn for L2 students of Chinese. The subtle feeling or politeness conveyed by other Chinese pragmatic expressions seems challenging for participants, such as those tested in the new questions 1 and 7. The expressions that represent great differences between Chinese and English sociocultural pragmatics, like the form of address tested in question 4, still pose difficulties for students as well. But with longer exposure to Chinese, the accessibility of pragmatic information in the dictionary becomes less a problem for them, as shown in their good performance on other repeated questions like 2, 6 and 10.

9.4 Lexicographical Vehicles for Presenting Pragmatic Information and Participants' Performance

The possible effects of lexicographical vehicles used in the second-stage experimental dictionary on participants' performance on the second pragmatics test will be examined by comparison with the number of lexicographical means and the specific means to present the pragmatic information of a Chinese linguistic construction tested. As in the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary, the pragmatic information is presented in different structures of the second-stage dictionary by various lexicographical means, summarised in the following table. The test items elicited correct answers belonging to low-, medium-, and high-scoring groups are marked in blue, green and red fonts respectively.

Table 9.4: Categories of pragmatic information tested and the lexicographical means to present it

No	Test item	Pragmatic information tested	Location of such information	Lexicographical means to present it
1	*bié shì* 别是 not be	Expression of the attitude of surprise	Microstructure	Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
2	topics	Topics not to discuss	Megastructure	Appendix III
			Mediostructure	Cross-reference
3	ba 吧 modal paricle	Modal particle to show uncertainty	Megastructure	Appendix III
4	*Lǎoshī*	Address form	Microstructure	Pragmatic label of

	老师 teacher	displaying respect		*<address >*, **Polite**
				Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
			Mediostructure	Cross-reference
5	*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night	Pragmatic marker showing criticism/displeasure	Microstructure	Translation equivalent
				Pragmatic label **Attitude**
				Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
			Mediostructure	Cross-reference
6	*Zuòzuò* 坐坐 sit	Politeness in invitation	Microstructure	Bracketed explanation
				Example and its translation
7	*huì shuōhuà* 会说话 can speak	Expression of attitude of irony	Microstructure	Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
				Pragmatic label of **Attitude**
8	*nǐ kàn nǐ* 你看你 you look you	Speech act of criticism	Microstructure	Pragmatic label **Pragmatic Marker**
				Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanations
9	*xiǎo yìsī* 小意思 little value	Politeness showing modesty about gift	microstructure	Pragmatic label of **Polite**
				Example and its translation
				Bracketed explanation
			mediostructure	Cross-reference
10	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Speech act of saying goodbye	Microstructure	Pragmatic label of **Formula**
				Bracketed explanations
			Mediostructure	Cross-reference
			Megastructure	Appendix I on pragmatics in interaction

As the table shows, the number of lexicographical means adopted to present the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic constructions tested in the second-stage dictionary varies—confined to elements of the microstructure for some, for others extended through the mediostructure and Appendixes in the megastructure.

9.4.1 The number of lexicographical means

As found in Chapter 8, the number of lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information related to a Chinese linguistic construction bears no continuous correlation to participants' performance on this question. Several examples can help illustrate this point. Five lexicographical vehicles are used to provide the pragmatic information relevant to "*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night" in question 5 on which the participants perform best of all among the questions. However, the result for question 4, for which four lexicographical means are used to present the relevant pragmatic information is among the lowest. Other questions which participants do well on actually have only one or two means of lexicographical support. For example, two lexicographical means are adopted to present the pragmatic information associated with the items tested in repeated question 2 and 6, which become the high-scoring ones on the second pragmatics test. Despite the fact that only part of the megastructure of the experimental dictionary, Appendix III, is utilised to provide the pragmatic information associated with "*ba* 吧 *particle*" in question 3, the participants' performance rate puts it in the high-scoring group. Hence it can be argued that there is no correlation between the number of lexicographical means used to present pragmatic information for a Chinese linguistic construction and the participants' performance on the associated question.

9.4.2 The particular lexicographical means used

No clear correlation can be found between the participants' performance on a specific test question and the particular set of lexicographical means used to present pragmatic information for a Chinese linguistic construction tested. The same lexicographical means—pragmatic label, and bracketed explanation have been utilised, among other ones, to present the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic construction tested in repeated questions 4 and 10. The students' performance on question 4 of the second test still sits in the low-scoring group, while their performance on question 6, classified as medium-scoring one on the first test, improves to become a high-scoring one in the second test. If those two lexicographical means work effectively, we must expect the participants' performance on the two questions on the second test to be similar, and put the questions into the same scoring group on the second test.

In several cases, e.g. nos 1, 6, 8 and 9, the lexicographical means to provide the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic constructions tested share two—example and its translation, and bracketed explanation. The two means seem to have worked for questions 6 and 8, both high-scoring repeated questions, but not for new questions 1 and 9. The four lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with the linguistic structure tested in questions 5 and 9: pragmatic label, example and its translation, bracketed explanation, and cross-reference, can also be contrasted. The participants' performance on 5 is the highest of high-scoring group while that on 9 is only a medium-scoring result. It seems there is no correlation between the specific lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic construction, and the participants' performance on the second pragmatics test. So experimental question B4 must be answered in the negative.

9.5 Accessibility of the Pragmatic Information

The effects of the accessibility of the pragmatic information tested on 13 participants' performance on a specific question of the second pragmatics test is discussed below (compare Chapter 8: 8.5). The main problem in a learners' dictionary is to gain access to the information the lexicographers have provided, since dictionary users cannot be expected to read a dictionary from one end to the other (Tarp 2004: 234). Accessibility has been defined, distinguished into two types—macro-accessibility and micro-accessibility in Chapter 8; and differentiated into three levels: low, medium and high (see Chapter 8: 8.5). In discussing the accessibility of the pragmatic information tested on the second pragmatics test, the focus will be on the accessibility of such information assessed in the five new test questions. However, the pragmatic information tested in the other five repeated questions will be included as well to show their overall accessibility.

9.5.1 Macro-accessibility

As on the first pragmatics test, students have to figure out which dictionary entry or other dictionary components, such as the appendixes, to refer to in the first place. The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relating to the Chinese linguistic constructions tested is summarised in the following table.

Table 9.5: Macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese constructions tested

Question No.	Chinese pragmatic elements tested	Location of the relevant pragmatic information	The level of accessibility
1	*bié shì*别是 not be	Possible	Low
2	Topics	Appendix IV	High
3	*ba* 吧 *particle*	Appendix III	High
4	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	Teacher	Low
5	*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night	Night	Medium
6	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	Visit	Low
7	*huì shuōhuà*会说话 can speak	Speak	Medium
8	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	Look	High
9	*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value	Token	Low
10	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Busy	High

The pragmatic information needed to address questions 2, 3, 8 and 10 is considered to be highly accessible. For the discussion of the macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in questions 2, 8 and 10 (=questions 1, 5 and 6 on the first pragmatics test), please see 8.5.1 in chapter 8. The pragmatic information tested in question 3 is associated with "*ba* 吧 *particle*" and presented in Appendix III, where participants can easily locate it. Thus their macro-accessibility is classified as high.

The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information relevant to the Chinese linguistic constructions tested in new questions 5 and 7 is classified as medium. The information relevant to "*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night *particle*" is provided within the micro-structure of "night", and would not be difficult for them to figure out where to find the pragmatic information needed, either under the headword "big" or "night". Since "big" is not included in the macrostructure of the experimental E-C dictionary, participants must turn to "night". The information is cross-referenced with that within the entry "so" as well. Thus its macro-accessibility is classified as medium. The pragmatic information related to "*huì shuōhuà*会说话 can speak" is presented under "speak". The participants may consult either the entry "can" or "speak" for the information. Therefore, its level of accessibility is considered to be medium as well. Compared with the pragmatic information associated with the four Chinese linguistic constructions tested in questions 1, 4, 6 and 9, participants may need to spend less effort in finding the information associated with those two.

The macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information associated with the Chinese linguistic constructions tested in questions 1, 4, 6 and 9 is classified as low. For the discussion

of the accessibility of such information in repeated questions 4 and 6, please refer to that of the macro-accessibility of information for questions 2 and 9 of the first test (see Chapter 8: 8.5.1). The pragmatic information relevant to "*bié shì*别是 not be" in question 1 bears little relation to the headword "possible", linked through the Chinese translation of the construction—"Is it possible …?". Thus it is rather difficult for participants to think of consulting the headword "possible" in the first place. Its macro-accessibility is therefore considered low. The pragmatic information relevant to "*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value" in question 9 is provided under "token". Even if the translation of the headword "token" in one example has employed this Chinese construction, the headword itself is irrelevant to this Chinese expression, Therefore, it would be challenging for participants to decide which headword to consult for the pragmatic information needed. Thus the macro-accessibility is considered to be low as well.

9.5.2 Micro-accessibility

The accessibility of the relevant piece of pragmatic information within the dictionary structure which is needed to answer the test question is discussed below, summarised in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6: Micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested

Question No.	Linguistic structures tested	The place where the pragmatic information tested is located	The level of accessibility
1	*bié shì*别是 not be	Bracketed explanations of "possible"	Medium
2	Topics	Appendix "Topics You can Take Up with Chinese"	Medium
3	*ba* 吧 *particle*	Appendix "Particle"， point three of the first particle "吧"	High
4	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	Point three of bracketed explanations under "teacher"	Low
5	*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night	Bracket explanations for the second example of the phrase "at night" under "night"	Medium
6	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	The example in the bracketed explanations of "visit"	Low
7	*huì shuōhuà*会说话 can speak	Bracketed explanations for the second example of "speak"	Medium
8	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	Bracketed explanations following the second and third example of the second sense of "look"	Medium
9	*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value	The bracketed explanations for the second example	Medium
10	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	Point two in the bracketed explanations following the second example of "busy"	Low

As the table shows, the micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in most test questions on the second pragmatics test is rated medium or low. Only in one case is it high.

The least effort is needed to find the pragmatic information tested in question 3. Such information tested is provided in the experimental dictionary's appendix on "*ba* 吧 *particle*" entitled "Particles".

The level of accessibility of such information tested in questions 1, 5, 7, 8 and 9 is deemed to be medium, since it depends on participants' being cued by the use of pragmatically loaded Chinese constructions in the translation of example sentences. In question 1, the pragmatic information tested is provided in the bracketed explanation following the translation of the third example of the headword—"possible". The Chinese linguistic construction tested—"*bié shì*别是 not be" appears in the translation, which should encourage the participants to finish the pragmatic information on this structure in the brackets. Therefore, the micro-accessibility of this piece of pragmatic information is reckoned to be medium. For question 5, such information assessed is provided in the form of bracketed explanations following the translation of the second example for the phrase "at night". Since the expression "*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night *particle*" appears in the translation, this suggests that they should read the bracketed explanation. Thus its accessibility is classified as medium. The pragmatic information tested in question 7 is provided under "speak", following the translation of its second example. As in question 5, the relevant expression "*huì shuōhuà* 会说话 can speak" appears in the translation of the example, which would be a hint to participants they should further consult the bracketed explanation behind. In terms of the accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in question 9, because the expression "*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value" appears as part of the translation of the second example sentence, the accessibility of this piece of pragmatic information tested is considered to be medium as well. Please refer to Chapter 8: 8.5.2 for the discussion of the micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in questions 2 and 8 on the second pragmatics test, which were questions 1 and 5 on the first test.

The micro-accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in questions 4, 6 and 10 is rated low. For details, see the discussion of the micro-accessibility of such information tested in questions 2, 9 and 6 in Chapter 8: 8.5.2.

9.5.3 Alignment of accessibility with participants' performance in the first pragmatics test

As in the first pragmatics test, the two types of accessibility—macro-accessibility and micro-accessibility, work together to determine how easy or difficult the participants may retrieve a specific piece of pragmatic information tested. This in turn has affected their performance on different questions, hence their Chinese pragmatic learning. The alignment between the overall accessibility of the pragmatic information tested in a specific test question and the participants' performance on the question is summarised in the table below.

Table 9.7: Alignment of overall accessibility with participants' performance

No.	Linguistic structures tested	Macro-accessibility	Micro-accessibility	Participants' performance
1	*bié shì*别是 not be	low	medium	low
2	topics	high	Medium	high
3	*ba* 吧 *particle*	high	high	high
4	*lǎoshī*老师 teacher	low	low	low
5	*dà wǎnshang de* 大晚上的 big night	medium	medium	High
6	*zuòzuò*坐坐 sit	low	low	High
7	*huì shuōhuà*会说话 can speak	medium	medium	low
8	*nǐ kàn nǐ*你看你 you look you	high	medium	high
9	*xiǎo yìsī*小意思 little value	low	medium	medium
10	*nǐ máng* 你忙 you busy	high	low	High

The data in Table 9.7 suggests that macro- and micro-accessibility often correlate with the participants' performance on the second pragmatics test. Despite the expectation that macro-accessibility of the pragmatic information "determine[s] whether the information will be easily retrieved and effectively used" (Liang & Xu 2015: 19), on the pragmatics test it is clearest only at the extremes of high and low scores. On question 3, the high accessibility ratings are consistent with high performance, and by contrast, on question 4, where the low accessibility ratings are consistent with the low performance.

In-between there is consistency if we give greater weight to the macro-accessibility score. This can be seen on questions 2, 8 and 10, where high rating for the macro-accessibility seems to outweigh the medium or low rating for micro-accessibility in resulting in high performances. Again the converse applies: on question 1, the low score for macro-

accessibility outweighs the medium score for micro-accessibility in accounting for the low performance.

The relationship between accessibility and performance is anomalous for questions 5, 6, 7 and 9. The students' good performance on questions 5 and 6 is better than might be predicted from the accessibility ratings of the pragmatic information they have to find (dramatically so for the repeated question 6). For question 9, the medium performance would seem to reflect the micro-accessibility rating. The most anomalous of all results is for question 7, where medium accessibility ratings are not reflected in the participants' low performance score.

The fact that the majority of high-scoring questions (4 out of 6) were repeated questions, all of which still have medium or low micro-accessibility ratings, means that the early problems of accessing the relevant information shown in the first semester test, seem to have been overcome. These positive results show the cumulative effects of the students' pragmatic learning, with improved proficiency in Chinese and better familiarity with using the experimental dictionary.

9.6 Participants' Frequency of Use of the Second-stage Experimental E-C Dictionary

The second pragmatics test added a question asking on how frequently the 13 participants used the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary for their Chinese pragmatic learning. The purpose of asking this question was to see if the participants' frequency of using the dictionary bore any relation to their performance on the second pragmatics test. It is expected that the more often they use the dictionary, the more familiar they become with its structure and the lexicographical information therein, hence their better performance on the test. The participants' self-reported frequency of weekly dictionary use may thus serve to show some correlation between their actual usage and their performance on the test. However, it should be admitted that this self-reported frequency of dictionary use may not always align with that of their actual use. Their regularity of dictionary use is arranged in the decreasing order in the table below.

Table 9.8: Participants' frequency of using the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary and their performance on the second pragmatics test

Regularity of use	Number of participants making this choice	Percentage of participants making this choice	Participants' score	Median of participants' making the same choice
Almost daily	0	0%		
Several times a week	5	38%	40	40
			40	
			60	
			40	
			20	
Occasionally during a week	5	38%	10	40
			20	
			40	
			50	
			50	
Scarcely	3	24%	50	30
			30	
			30	

As Table 9.8 shows, 10 of 13 participants used the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary either several times a week or occasionally, while 3 of 13 have scarcely used it at all. No participants have used it on the daily basis, even if they may need to learn Chinese everyday. This complies with the reality of dictionary use. Dictionaries are not books, but only tools for reference. Users usually consult a dictionary when faced with a language problem or when need arises. This seems to point to the fact that "no matter how well dictionaries present [pragmatic] information…, learners will not use that information if they do not feel the need to look it up" (Frankenberg-Garcia 2015: 496). Therefore, if they turn to the second-stage dictionary for help several times a week or even occasionally, this aligns with the reality of using a dictionary. Those who consult the dictionary several times a week would discover how to access helpful contents. Judging by the participants' median on the second pragmatics test in the last column of Table. 9.8, their frequency of dictionary usage seems to bear some relation to their performance on the second pragmatics test. The median of the test score of the participants who use the dictionary several times a week is 40. That of those who have scarcely used it is 30, lower than that of those consulting it occasionally. The difference is not large in this small group of students, but it suggests that the availability of the experimental dictionary has contributed to their improved performance on the second pragmatics test. This still echoes the view that frequent dictionary consulting boosts the learning effect, and learners must be encouraged to use dictionaries more often either inside or outside of the classroom (Liang & Xu 2015).

9.7 Participants' Feedback on the Presentation of Pragmatic Information in the E-C dictionary

The second pragmatics test also has a question eliciting the participants' suggestions for bettering the presentation of pragmatic information in the experimental E-C dictionary.

The feedback from 8 participants who provided detailed answers are summarised in the following table in terms of structure/layout and contents.

Table 9.9: 8 participants' suggestions for improving the pragmatic information in the experimental dictionary

Suggestions regarding structure	1	"The layout can be more clearer."/"takes time to find correct information"/"The information is a little messy that a student will get confused"
	2	"maybe sort out a better layout"
	3	"try to find an …easier way to navigate through the dictionary" "having examples on the bottom of the entries, instead of mixed in with the definition will help"
	4	"The structure of the information makes it quite hard to find the information …"
	5	"making it easier to find that information … would be useful"
Suggestions regarding contents	1	"Sort …by expressions and how to express different ideas"
	2	"Include further pragmatics regarding greetings and farewells for different formalities"
	3	Expand "the exceptions to any rules relating to standard conventions"

As the table shows, the respondents' comments are not confined to pragmatic content, but extend to improving the overall dictionary structure. Those who consult the dictionaries naturally interact with all levels of its structure, not just the microstructure.

9.7.1 Participants' suggestions for improving dictionary structure

Participants' suggestions concerning the structure mostly revolve around the accessibility of the pragmatic information provided, though in different guises. Some participants have directly mentioned: "The layout can be more clearer", while others phrased it in more oblique way: "takes time to find correct information", "try to find an …easier way to navigate through the dictionary", "The structure of the information makes it quite hard to find the information …". The two aspects are of course interrelated: where there is something inadequate about the layout, dictionary users will have trouble in locating the pragmatic information needed.

Another comment that "[t]he information is a little messy so that a student will get confused" also touches upon the form of presenting pragmatic information. Diverse lexicographical indicators, including different fonts, font sizes, symbols, like a big sized "**!**", not to mention labels, bracketed explanations, have been used to present pragmatic information in the dictionary. But due to the black-and-white layout, the pragmatic information still does not seem to stand out. This may partly explain why the participant complains about the messiness of the information. Compilers ought to strive to present the lexicographical information in such a way so as to avoid mistakes and confusion, or even irritation on the part of dictionary users (Opitz 1983: 174), which will be attended to in future revised versions of the experimental dictionary.

The suggestion that "having examples at the bottom of the entries, instead of mixed in with the definition will help" raises a structural aspect of the dictionary microstructure. However, separating the examples from definition and placing them at the bottom of an individual entry is not ideal since they usually help clarify definitions. If the advantages and disadvantages of shifting the position of examples are weighed against each other, it can be argued that the examples maybe should be kept where there are in the dictionary, but perhaps more clearly distinguished by the use of background and /or in contrasting font colors.

Structurally speaking, highlighting the pragmatic information in different colors from other types of lexicographical information, such as grammatical information, may be an effective way to improve its accessibility on different structural levels. The pragmatic information offered in the front or back matter could be colored. Within the macrostructure, headwords with integrated pragmatic information can be highlighted in a different color all through the dictionary. Within the mediostructure, highlighting cross-references in a different color can be used as well. In the microstructure, marking pragmatic information in a different color from that for other types of lexicographical information might help dictionary users find the pragmatic information needed with less effort. Marking the pragmatic information in a different color at least can make it stand out than the black-and-white presentation.

To sum up, except for clustering the examples at the bottom of an entry, participants' other suggestions for structural improvement reflect the difficulty in finding the pragmatic information needed. Highlighting the pragmatic information in different dictionary structures in different colours would contribute to the solution of this problem. Other means to strengthen the accessibility of the pragmatic information need to be explored.

9.7.2 Participants' suggestions for improving dictionary contents

Only three suggestions on the actual contents of the pragmatic information have been made, which fall into two groups: rearranging and enhancing the current contents.

The suggestion "[s]ort …by expressions and how to express different ideas" seems to emphasise the presentation format of the pragmatic information. Possibly the unfamiliarity with what has been offered in the experimental dictionary may have made him/her comment in this way. In the appendix of the experimental dictionary, the section on "Pragmatic Interaction" (see Appendix II of the second-stage dictionary) groups together different expressions for nine types of speech acts. These expressions are cross-referenced with other relevant pragmatic information in the microstructure. The topics CFL learners can raise with Chinese in daily life have been offered as one appendix in the dictionary as well.

The suggestions to "[i]nclude further pragmatics regarding greetings and farewells for different formalities" is reasonable. As has been noted earlier (see chapter 3), the present project is mainly confined to integrating the lexicographical information relevant to Chinese words out of 300 required by new HSK (see Chapter 3) and associated constructions. Thus participants may have noticed that some expressions for saying farewell to or greeting others cannot be found in the dictionary. If the pragmatic information is not limited to what is related to the first 300 words required by HSK lexical syllabus, their expectations can be better met. More pragmatic information about greetings or saying goodbye to others can be provided. Expression for performing other types of speech acts, like criticising, making requests, can be enhanced as well.

The third suggestion to include "the exceptions to any rules relating to standard conventions" also makes sense. Language usage is hard to prescribe, and the exceptions to language rules are quite normal. Dictionary compilers since 1970s have more or less taken a descriptive tradition (Zhang 2004). However, it can be argued that for the beginners, without the prescriptive tradition, they may not be able to understand what is right or wrong. As dictionary users become more competent at the target language, the lexicographical information can be more descriptive, to provide dictionary users with more language facts concerning a linguistic unit. At that later stage, the exceptions to any pragmatic rules could be added. The inclusion of all exceptions to any rule would be too demanding to dictionary compilers, and they may only reflect what rule applies generally.

Five participants' replies do not offer suggestions for bettering the structure and content of the experimental dictionary. While admitting the (extreme) usefulness of the experimental E-C dictionary, three participants also acknowledge that the lack of time has prevented them from making proper use of it. Among the three, one participant reckons that he likes "structure and layout". Another one considers the language of the pragmatic information "bald and easy to understand". Their views, though informative, do not contribute to bettering the pragmatic information provided. A fourth participant suggests: "adding pinyin to English" for all Chinese, but this does not make much sense. Already *pinyin* transcription has been provided for all Chinese equivalents of the English headwords, the translation of illustrative sentences, or elsewhere which Chinese is used. Meanwhile, a fifth participant just says s/he is "not using so many different parts", which seems to imply the pragmatic information is more than enough.

9.8 The Learning Profile of 13 Participants as Reflected in the Two Pragmatics Tests

Let us finally put together the additional factors relating to the participants' learning profiles: their motivation and self-reported dictionary use, to see if any preferred learning mode emerges among them, amid the various factors that can affect it. Factors such as learning style, intelligence, preference, gender, and culture may be there (Tomlinson et al. 2003), all of which contribute to the students' learning efficiency (Tomlinson 2003). But in this research, the most relevant are their motivation in learning Chinese (see Chapter 2: 2.3.2), and the frequency of their use of the experimental E-C dictionary (see above section 9.6).

The motivation of 38 participants of the first pragmatics test was classified into three groups: integrative (3), instrumental (16), and combined (19) (see Chapter 8: 8.2.1), and in terms of the average score of the participants motivated similarly, those with integrative and combined motivation outperformed those purely instrumentally motivated (see Chapter 8: 8.2.2). Let us presume that the motivations reported in the first pragmatics test persist through second semester for the 13 participants in the second pragmatics test, as shown in Table 9.10 below; and add beside it the data relating to their frequency of dictionary use, summarized above in Table 9.8 (which showed that those who used the E-C learner's dictionary several times or occasionally -- in a week generally did better on the second pragmatics test than those who used it only scarcely). But let us now examine their individual profiles in terms of motivation and dictionary use in tandem with their individual scores on both tests

Table 9.10 combines all this data for the 13 participants' performance, with the participants numbered and arranged in the decreasing order based on their performance on the second test.

Table 9.10: Thirteen participants' performance on two pragmatics tests, their motivation for learning Chinese and weekly dictionary use frequency

	1st test	2nd test	Details of motivation	Motivation type		Weekly dictionary use frequency
				Classification	overall	
1	40	60	To be equipped for the future	Instrumental	Combined	Occasionally during a week
			To communicate with Chinese friends and relatives; fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
2	10	50	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China	Instrumental	Instrumental	Several times per week
3	70	50	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China; expand job base (specified in Others)	Instrumental	Combined	scarcely
			To communicate with Chinese friends and relatives; fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
4	80	50	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China	Instrumental	Combined	Several times per week
			Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
5	20	40	To be equipped for the future; for career prospects (specified in Others)	Instrumental	Combined	Several times per week
			Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
6	20	40	To be equipped for the future	Instrumental	Combined	Occasionally during a week
			To communicate with Chinese friends and relatives; fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
7	30	40	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China	Instrumental	Combined	Occasionally during a week
			To communicate with Chinese friends and relatives; fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
8	50	40	To be equipped for the future; for business opportunities (specified in Others)	Instrumental	Combined	Occasionally during a week
			To communicate with Chinese friends and relatives	Integrative		
9	30	30	To be equipped for the future	Instrumental	Combined	Scarcely
			Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
10	40	30	To be equipped for the future	Instrumental	Instrumental	Scarcely
11	20	20	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China	Instrumental	Combined	Several times per week
			Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		
12	30	20	To be equipped for the future	Instrumental	Instrumental	Occasionally during a week
13	40	10	To be equipped for the future; to travel in China	Instrumental	Combined	Several times per week
			To communicate with Chinese, friends and relatives; fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture	Integrative		

The data laid out in the table above invites discussion as to whether there may be common factors in the learning profiles of the 13 who continued studying Chinese through both semesters. The performance data is mixed, with five participants improving their scores on the second test, and two getting the same score. Meanwhile those of the other six have decreased, although in some cases (e.g. nos 3, 4 and 8) they remain within the highest-scoring group overall. Still the correlation between combined motivation (integrative + instrumental) seems to hold for better or more sustained performance across the range of scores, indicating again many people who learn Chinese have both integrative and instrumental motivations (Thompson 1980, Zheng 1997). However two of the three with only instrumental motivation are among the medium-scoring group over the two semesters, in line with the view that instrumental motivation can facilitate language learning in the early stages (Yu & Watkins 2011: 17), including their understanding of Chinese pragmatics, in this case. The motivational factor thus seems to work in different ways for individuals over the course of language learning.

Adding in the self-reported data on the frequency of dictionary use adds further complexity to the learning profiles of the participants, and the role of the experimental dictionary in it. As a reference work it is available for incidental learning, as reflected in the variable responses on frequency of use. Frequent reference (several times/occasionally in a week) often coincides with better scores overall, in keeping with the median for the second test (Table 9.8). It lends support to the view that more frequent dictionary use can enhance users' familiarity with dictionary structure, as well as the contents of the dictionary, including pragmatic information, which may have helped them achieve relatively better results. Yet the fact that participants 3, 9 and 10 who consulted the dictionary "scarcely", have maintained high or medium-level performances calls for comment. In fact it may indicate that they could be more adept dictionary users, according to Huang's (2009: 155-156) research on the dictionary use strategies of EFL learners in Taiwan. In his research, the more proficient English learners actually make less frequent but more strategic use of the dictionary in solving lexical tasks. They first try to understand an unknown word in its natural context of use, because they have more background knowledge of the language. Thus language learners with greater proficiency can make more efficient use of the dictionary's contents. For them, less is more in terms of the dictionary's contribution to their learning of Chinese pragmatics. By contrast, for participants 11, 12, and 13 who consulted the dictionary at least occasionally in a given week, their relatively low language proficiency may have impeded efficient learning

and productive dictionary consultation, so that they were less able to benefit from it in the same period as others in their cohort. Even regular dictionary use cannot guarantee efficient learning and successful performance.Thus it could be said there is no one learning style or learning profile common to the students in this continuing group (Ebert 1994: 45). It is best described by a variety of components rather than a single trait (Hardigan 1996: 129).

9.9 Concluding Remarks to the Chapter

The results of the second pragmatics test have been positive. Compared with the participants' performance on the first pragmatics test, that on the second test has improved a lot, with 6 out of 10 questions eliciting high scores. Four out of the five repeated questions from the first test are up there and two new questions also appear in the high-scoring group. The median, mode, average score of participants' performance and their overall performance on the second pragmatics test, show visible improvement. Compared with median and mode of the first test, which were both 20, those of the second test have doubled. The participants' average score increases from 31.6 on the first to 36.9 on the second. This suggests the cumulative effects of greater Chinese proficiency and ability to use the experimental dictionary in developing their Chinese pragmatic learning, and yields positive answers to experimental questions B1 and B2.

Participants do perform well on some pragmatic questions, although their performance is not consistently correlated with a certain category of pragmatic information. However, experimental question B3 can be answered positively, to the extent that questions testing formulaic Chinese constructions again scored comparatively higher. This indicates that formulae are more easily recognised and amenable to pragmatic learning, and supports the view that they can be learned before learners develop their analytical knowledge of second language (Wildner-Basset 1994). Such formulae would be better supported by usage in the second language context than the foreign language context (Roever 2012: 11), but they evidently help in the Australian foreign language context. However, pragmatic expressions which reflect a large difference between English and Chinese culture, or embed subtle Chinese pragmatics, like attitudes, politeness, may need more attention, to become part of the participant's pragmatic learning.

As found in the first pragmatics test, so in the second test, the number of lexicographical means and the specific means to present pragmatic information do not correlate particularly well with the participants' performance, thus a negative finding on question B4. The macro-

and micro-accessibility of pragmatic information turn out to be less important for participants in the second pragmatics test, with good scores on both repeated questions and some new ones. It seems that problems of accessibility diminish gradually on longer exposure to Chinese study and more frequent use of the experimental dictionary, thus a rather different answer to this question B5 than its counterpart on the first pragmatics test (A4). The finding in relation to B6 is that there is evidence from students' feedback that using the experimental dictionary "several times a week" or at least "occasionally" lines up with the better median scores on the second pragmatics test. But its alignment with individual performances in the learning profiles of the 13 participants over the two semesters is less consistent (B7), suggesting that other individual factors such as language proficiency and efficiency in consulting the dictionary may also come into play, and make for more or less strategic use of the dictionary. The variability in students' use of dictionaries points to the need for training in dictionary use, as noted in other lexicographical research.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

10.1 Overview of the Study

10.2 Major Findings

10.3 Limitations of This Enquiry and Directions for Future Research

10.4 Concluding Remarks

10.1 Overview of the Study

This research was undertaken to develop a systematic approach for introducing CFL beginners to Chinese pragmatics; and to investigate the effects of incorporating Chinese pragmatics into a customised E-C learners' dictionary as a supplementary way to help develop their pragmatic knowledge.

Four key research questions (RQs) were raised in Chapter 1:

RQ 1. What are the obstacles for a beginning CFL/CSL learner seeking to acquire Chinese words as the building blocks of pragmatic knowledge?

RQ 2. How much pragmatics is embedded in core Chinese vocabulary and associated linguistic constructions?

RQ 3. How much of this pragmatics is included in current textbooks or learners' dictionaries?

RQ4. Can a customised dictionary which integrates Chinese pragmatics into every dictionary component, provide support for beginners in Chinese, and contribute to their acquisition of pragmatics?

RQ 1. A review of the research literature in Chapter 2 discussed some of the difficulties for L2 learners of Chinese in understanding Chinese words and characters, as the building blocks for understanding Chinese pragmatics. They need to acquire Chinese words/structures, their sound, logo-graphic script, and variable meanings. The research on teaching and learning of L2 Chinese pragmatics is mostly limited to speech acts with little of the large range of pragmatics used in everyday interaction. Given the difficulties in acquiring Chinese and its pragmatics, L2 learners have to be well motivated to learn the language. Integrative motivation is known to be an important predictor of early proficiency and longer term language learning, and the result of the pragmatics tests (10.2) are in line with this.

RQ2. The core HSK vocabulary (Levels 1 and 2) gives plenty of scope for teaching Chinese pragmatics. Out of 300 words expected of L2 Chinese learners by the revised lexical syllabus of HSK (2009), altogether 120 pragmatically loaded Chinese words and their associated constructions have been identified as "pragmatic points", and classified into 7 categories of pragmatics, including speech acts and speech functions, and discourse interactive markers. These provided a benchmark for closer investigation of the available language learning materials.

RQ3. A review of the coverage of pragmatic points in selected beginning CFL textbooks—*Encounters*, *Practical Chinese*, *Integrated Chinese* and *Chinese Link* in Chapter 4, showed even the best one contained only one third of 120 Chinese pragmatic points identified with HSK core vocabulary. Pragmatic issues are not foregrounded in the four textbooks, mainly indicated through translation equivalents (with bracketed explanations), language and cultural notes, and grammatical explanations. A similar review of 6 selected reference dictionaries for beginners—*Collins*, *Oxford*, *Tuttle*, *Concise*, *Far East*, and *Practical* found that even the best (*Collins*), contained less than one sixth of the 120 pragmatic points identified.

RQ4. To make Chinese pragmatics available to beginning CFL learners as well as to supplement its classroom teaching, the 120 points of Chinese pragmatics were designed into the different structural components of an expandable two-stage experimental E-C learners' dictionary, as discussed in Chapter 6. The effectiveness of the pragmatic information in the experimental E-C dictionary in supporting CFL beginners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatics over a short and longer period through two pragmatics tests were designed and implemented, as discussed in Chapter 7. The results of the two tests, conducted at the end of first and second semester are discussed in full in Chapters 8 and 9, and in summary below (10.2). The findings from the tests point to the overall conclusion that such information is conducive to CFL beginners' pragmatic learning in the short run, and especially cumulative learning in the longer run. See next section.

10.2 Major Findings of the Two Pragmatics Tests

10.2.1 Findings from the first pragmatics test

The results of the first pragmatics test indicate that the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary can facilitate some CFL beginners in learning Chinese pragmatic in the shorter term. This lends support to the view that certain "aspects of L2 pragmatics, [such as speech acts,

politeness,] are teachable to absolute beginners" (Tateyama 2001: 172). Participants performed better on questions assessing formulaic Chinese pragmatic expressions, which confirms the easy learnability of such composite fixed expressions. The number of lexicographical means or a particular lexicographical means used to present pragmatics in the first-stage experimental dictionary did not correlate with the participants' performance at all. Their rather weak performance overall suggests one or two types of accessibility—macro- and micro-accessibility, may have impeded their access to relevant information for the test, especially access within the dictionary's macrostructure. This raises the issue of how to improve the accessibility of pragmatic information in an E-C learners' dictionary which targets Chinese beginners.

In answer to a question about their motivation, very few participants indicated that it was purely integrative, the type that is most conducive to early proficiency in L2 (see Chapter 2.3). Integratively motivated participants and those driven by a combination of integrative and instrumental motivation might have reason to go to the dictionary at the point of need, thus familiarising themselves with dictionary contents for subsequent use, if not an immediate purpose. Their median scores were both notably higher than those of students with purely instrumental motivation.

10.2.2 Findings from the second pragmatics test

The performance of 13 participants on the second pragmatics test showed that the pragmatic information in the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary had helped to develop their Chinese pragmatic learning in the longer run. Their performance on four out of the five questions repeated from the first pragmatics test came into the high-scoring group. The mode and median of the participants' performance on the second test doubled those of the first test, and their average performance score showed visible improvement from 31.6 to 36.9. These measures all indicate the cumulative effects of their pragmatic learning through the second-stage dictionary, combined with their increased Chinese vocabulary and general Chinese proficiency.

As in the first pragmatics test, participants' performance again showed the easier learnability of formulaic Chinese pragmatic expressions, which can be introduced from the start of their learning Chinese. The number of the lexicographical means to present the pragmatic information associated with a Chinese linguistic structure tested in a question did

not bear positive influence on their performance, nor was it affected by the particular lexicographical means used to present it. Accessibility problems were apparently overcome in correct answers to test items with lower accessibility (both repeated and new questions). Survey question on participants' frequency of use of the experimental E-C dictionary showed most used it to some extent. Despite the visible improvement in accessing pragmatic information needed to answer test questions, some participants complained of the need to make it more findable, and more informative in the experimental dictionary, and to clarify the mix of lexicographical elements within the microstructure. The learning profiles of the 13 participants who completed both tests suggested different kinds of dictionary use among them: more frequent, incidental use by some students, probably task-related inquiries; while others made less frequent but probably more strategic use of the dictionary, suggesting their greater language proficiency at that stage of the year.

10.2.3 Summary

The present study points to the value of the pragmatic information presented in an experimental E-C learners' dictionary in helping CFL beginners acquire Chinese pragmatics. According to Sharpe (1989: 316), pragmatic information "must be [provided] for all dictionaries of language pairs that are culturally divergent", such as English and Chinese. This research shows how access to a pragmatically enriched E-C learners' dictionary can be an alternative resource to help students acquire Chinese pragmatics independently, rather than relying on explicit classroom instruction. Dictionaries with enriched pragmatic content would be particularly important to those acquiring Chinese in foreign language settings, since they have fewer opportunities for developing pragmatic abilities (Tateyama et al. 1997: 163). Integrating Chinese pragmatics into an E-C learners' dictionary can help increase their exposure to the range of sociocultural pragmatics associated with the target language.

The study also supports to draw the conclusion that even CFL beginners are able to learn Chinese pragmatic expressions. Pedagogical research on acquiring Chinese pragmatics in foreign language settings all focus on intermediate and advanced Chinese learners. Their findings suggest that to learners of the two higher proficiency levels, Chinese pragmatics in relation to performing speech acts is teachable. This study indicates that beginning Chinese learners are also teachable and able to acquire a range of pragmatics, not just speech acts. This suggests the importance of learning it from the very start of their Chinese studies, echoing the view that L2 pragmatic teaching should start with beginners (Tateyama et al. 1997, Locastro

2012). Meanwhile, the participants' relative better performance on questions assessing formulaic Chinese constructions conveying pragmatic meaning implies that pragmatic formulae should be prioritised in teaching Chinese pragmatics to beginning L2 learners. At the same time, other pragmatic structures not so fixed should not be marginalised. They may deserve more attention and may need more effort to help learners acquire them.

This study expands the area of the pedagogical research on Chinese pragmatics (see Chapter 2: 2.2), with most research to date focusing on speech acts. The research helps to establish the role that a learners' dictionary can play in helping students with acquiring the range of Chinese pragmatics, like picking a suitable topic, being polite, paying heed to interlocutors' attitudes or feelings in expressing oneself. In this sense, the present research can be considered a contribution to teaching Chinese as a foreign/second language, demonstrating how different kinds of Chinese pragmatics can be learned via a dictionary. It thus also contributes to research on dictionary use.

This research also provides evidence for the way CFL learners' Chinese pragmatic knowledge increases in the longer run, not just over a short time. Pedagogical research on Chinese pragmatics reported (e.g. Hong 2011; Li S. 2012, 2013; Wen 2014) featured instruction relating to particular speech acts, followed within a few days by a pragmatics test to measure the students' ability to recognise or produce them. By contrast, this research shows how, through two successive pragmatics tests at the end of first and second semester, the acquisition of Chinese pragmatics can develop and be sustained over a longer period, with the support of a customised E-C dictionary. The cumulative effects are visible through the students' improved performance on the five questions repeated from the first pragmatics test and their ability to handle several new ones. This suggests that a pragmatically enriched learners' dictionary targeting higher proficiency levels would contribute further to CFL students' wider pragmatic learning. The effect of such information could be enhanced further if combined with classroom instruction, or other possible means like study-abroad programs.

10.3 Limitations of This Enquiry and Directions for Future Research

10.3.1 The amount of pragmatic information presented and the means of presenting it

The project investigated the pragmatic meanings built into the core Chinese vocabulary, i.e. the revised version of Levels 1 and 2 lexical syllabuses of HSK in them. It found 120 Chinese "pragmatic points" calling for lexicographical treatment, as well as topics such as Chinese politeness and interactive discourse markers which could be integrated into an expandable E-C experimental dictionary targeting CFL beginners. While fully acknowledging the potential usefulness of such information to L2 Chinese beginners, this volume of pragmatic topics and expressions is rather limited. With ongoing research on Chinese pragmatics, the pragmatic meaning relevant to Chinese words far beyond the 300 required by new HSK vocabularies could be incorporated into future E-C learners' dictionaries targeting foreign learners at different proficiency levels. The efficacy of such information incorporated would merit further research, and closer attention needs to be paid to the lexicographical means or the most effective combination of them, to optimise pragmatic information for learners of different levels of the learners' dictionary.

10.3.2 Dictionary medium

The print medium of the experimental dictionary also imposed limitations on the present study. The pragmatic information concerned was integrated into a print E-C experimental dictionary, which placed space limits on incorporating lexicographical information as well as the means to present it. This would be overcome in an electronic or online E-C pragmatics dictionary. As Ding (2015: 25) found through a survey with English majors in a Chinese university, there is "the inevitable and total replacement of paper dictionaries by digital ones in students' everyday study life". Set against this trend, the reduced portability of the experimental print dictionary may have affected the participants' ability to take it around, and thus reduced their chances of taking full advantage of the pragmatic information provided.

Therefore, incorporating pragmatic information on Chinese into dictionaries in other media should be something to consider in future research. The same information could be furnished in electronic or online dictionaries, dictionary apps, and so on, which have few problems in relation to space. These media can also lend "dictionary consultation flexibility

with which the user can execute each of these activities singly or combines them depending on the need" (Yamada 2014a: 6). They do however need the support of the latest technology. As Kawamura (2014: 438) noted, "lexicographers did not utilise the latest technology very effectively for the proper treatment of pragmatics" in dictionaries. This pinpoints the direction in which lexicographers can seek to provide new kinds of pragmatic information in learners' dictionaries in the new media. For example, in a specially designed electronic or online learners' dictionary, the pragmatic information in an entry can be "presented in [interactive] phases. At each step, users are given two or more options to choose from, and are thus led towards the [pragmatic] information they will finally select…without seeing all the rest of the information which the entry contains" (Hulstijn & Atkins 1998: 16). This would help them to avoid interference from other pragmatic information they do not need. However, with a print dictionary, such as the experimental one used in this research, the dictionary user is confronted with the pragmatic information within an entry all at once. This may affect their consulting process by diverting their attention from what they exactly look for. Offering audio or video clips of pragmatics in action would bring verbal examples to life for L2 Chinese learners. The cross-references between interrelated pragmatic information within a dictionary and links beyond it could be sped up with these dictionaries. All of these are beyond the capacity of print dictionaries.

Other measures for enhancing access to pragmatic information could be incorporated in learners' dictionaries, in print or electronic media, like using different background colours to highlight the pragmatic information, and subjected to research. As Dziemianko (2015a) has shown, presenting part-of-speech and syntactic labels in coloured fonts can help speed up online dictionary consultation for grammatical information, enhance the accuracy in dictionary look-up and facilitate retention. Setting the pragmatic information apart in a different coloured font may help to achieve the same effect. Meanwhile, highlighting signposts on a blue background in LDOCE5 enabled users to retrieve senses from polysemous entries with less time and speed up the sense identification (Dziemianko 2015b: 18).

10.3.3 Limitations of the two pragmatics tests

Several limitation of the two pragmatics tests can be overcome in the future studies.

To begin with, absolute non-heritage Chinese beginners from Macquarie University, Sydney, were taken as the participants of the present study, and their number was pretty small,

especially in the second semester. It would be interesting to expand the participant groups to include more CFL learners from different universities in Australia, or beyond it, like those studying in Canada or the USA. This would allow us to compare the acquisition of pragmatics by CFL learners in different English-speaking contexts, and see how much it varies. It will also be worthwhile to compare the acquisition of pragmatics by heritage Chinese learners in Australia and by CSL learners in China. Their learning resources and contexts differ a lot, which would likely impact on their learning of Chinese pragmatics.

Variables, like participants' age and gender were not considered in the present study, which may have influenced the participants' performance on the two pragmatics tests and their understanding of particular Chinese pragmatics. In the future empirical studies on the effectiveness of the pragmatics presented in a learners' dictionary, the influence of those factors can be taken into account.

Thirdly, because the participants were absolute CFL beginners, no pre-test was conducted to benchmark their prior Chinese pragmatic knowledge. Their general knowledge of Chinese pragmatics may nevertheless have varied before the pragmatics tests, which might have affected their performances on the two pragmatics tests. Therefore, pre-tests should be conducted in the future research to make sure that the participants' original pragmatic knowledge is comparable. In this way, their pragmatic learning can be maximally attributed to the input from pragmatically enriched E-C learners' dictionaries.

Lastly, observing or monitoring the participants' dictionary use process can help reveal to a great extent how they make use of such information to be conducive to their pragmatic learning. The participants' performance on the two pragmatics tests indicated that the pragmatic information incorporated into the expandable E-C experimental dictionary did contribute to their Chinese pragmatic learning. But how this exactly happens remains a researcher's guesswork until we know more about the students' actual dictionary consultation process during the two tests. Therefore, with methods like video-recording, eye-tracking, or think-aloud protocols, the participants' success or failure to take full advantage of such information can be better accounted for. This would give insights into how to assist dictionary users in fully exploiting and utilising pragmatic information for learning Chinese pragmatics.

10.3.4 Instruction in dictionary use

In future research on participants' pragmatic learning through pragmatic information in E-C learners' dictionaries, some instruction in dictionary use could be trialed. It could be the participants' lack of dictionary skills that has led to their failure to fully utilise the pragmatic information provided in the experimental dictionary, especially in the first semester. In this research, the pragmatically enriched experimental E-C dictionary was simply distributed to CFL beginners at the start of each semester for them to refer to it in their Chinese study. However, as it emerged from this investigation of the participants' frequency of dictionary use, as well as their overall performance on the two tests, they may have been unaware of where pragmatic information was presented, or underused this information because they did not know how to access it. The supposedly straightforward operation of consulting a dictionary often requires considerable persistence and skill (Rundell 1998: 326). Actually "using a dictionary is a skill which needs to be learnt and further developed over the whole period of L2 learning" (Szerszunowicz 2015: 105).

As empirical research on English language learners' dictionary use has shown, one of the recurring themes is the role of dictionaries as **an aid** [emphasis added by me] to English language learning (Nesi 2014: 39). An E-C learners' dictionary should have equal potential to be the aid in learning the Chinese language, including its pragmatics. However, it is not uncommon for lexicographers, publishers, language teachers, and so on, to underestimate "the knowledge, ability and the level of persistence students would need in order to teach themselves how to use a dictionary" (Chi 1998: 565) properly. Therefore, to investigate the value of the pragmatic information in the future, researchers should incorporate dictionary training on how to fully exploit such information (Götz-Votteler & Herbst 2009: 64), through seminars, or a course in dictionary use. Such instruction can enable dictionary users familiarise themselves with types of dictionary, dictionary functions, and practical methods for dictionary consultation (Yamada 2014b: 1)—and better able to locate relevant information to enhance their Chinese pragmatic knowledge and awareness. With such instruction, dictionary users can be more adept at selecting pragmatic information, applying such information appropriately, and adopting, when necessary, a more critical stance (Nesi 2015: 5). Otherwise, the gap between lexicographers' or teachers' expectation of language learners' dictionary use and their actual use will always be there.

10.3.5 The possibility of interactive testing of the pragmatic material in a dictionary

In this research, the effects of the pragmatic information presented in a customised E-C learner's dictionary to supplement CFL beginners' Chinese pragmatic learning were tested through two pragmatics tests. This does not rule out the possibility or value of researching their learning process in more interactive, ways, such as through action research, when the researcher is also the class teacher. The pragmatic information incorporated into the dictionary can be increased and improved incrementally, based on the participants' feedback and/or their performance on a pragmatics test, until the information really meets dictionary users' pragmatic needs.

10.4 Concluding Remarks

This research contributes to the teaching and learning of Chinese, including its pragmatics. It investigated making a pragmatically enriched E-C learners' dictionary a potential vehicle to help with CFL beginners' acquisition of Chinese pragmatics, thus a timely response to the call of popularising Chinese teaching globally. Even if classroom instruction plays an important role in their learning Chinese pragmatics, the study has shown that learning materials, like E-C learners' dictionaries, can contribute to it in foreign language settings. With learners' dictionaries tailored to different proficiency levels, helping them to acquire Chinese pragmatics can start from the very beginning of their Chinese study. Meanwhile, with instruction in dictionary use, Chinese language learners can have "full understanding of what today's dictionaries seek to offer and how they do so" (Tickoo, 1989: 184 quoted in Chi 1998: 566). Such instruction also helps develop their "*dictionary look-up strategies* and …*ability* to use the best possible strategy in a *particular context* and for a specific *purpose*" [originally italicised] (Campoy-Cubillo 2015: 120). In this way, the role of E-C learners' dictionaries in learning Chinese can be enhanced in the future.

The present research is also a contribution to the field of lexicography. On the basis of identifying pragmatic information, a framework for providing such information systematically in E-C dictionaries targeting CFL learners was established. This may be adopted in future E-C learners' dictionaries, or learners' ones in general. As Hulstijn and Atkins (1998: 7) noted almost three decades ago, the "subject of dictionary use is very much alive today". This research also contributes to the empirical studies on dictionary use by testing the effect of a specific type of information incorporated—pragmatic information. By investigating "in which

way a user uses a dictionary, [it is hoped that] the results can help improve the quality of a dictionary" (Schierholz 2015: 338), including E-C learners' dictionaries for CFL learners.

Chinese lexicography can reach higher levels if it absorbs the beneficial findings of linguistic research (Huang 1999: 2), including pragmatics, and L2 language acquisition. As a matter of fact, not just Chinese lexicography, lexicography in general can benefit from such valuable inputs. This research marks a small step towards the blueprint he drew up almost twenty years ago, to make dictionaries betters tools to serve their users and language teaching and learning (Wei & Zhang 2001: 55), and to highlight the didactic function of dictionaries.

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List of appendixes

Appendix 1: Pragmatic meaning relating to 120 Chinese words and associated linguistic structures261

Appendix 2: New HSK Level-1 Lexical Syllabus (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word)..... 264

Appendix 3: HSK Level-2 Lexical Syllabus: 300 Chinese Words (including 150 above) (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word).....266

Appendix 4: Pragmatic points provided in *Integrated Chinese*.....268

Appendix 5: Pragmatic points provided in *Practical Chinese*..... 270

Appendix 6: Pragmatic points provided in *Encounters*.....272

Appendix 7: Pragmatic points provided in *Chinese Link*..... 274

Appendix 8: Inclusion of 120 pragmatic points in six dictionaries..... 276

Appendix 9: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Collins*..... 281

Appendix 10: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Oxford*..... 284

Appendix 11: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Tuttle*..... 286

Appendix 12: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of Concise.....288

Appendix 13: Pragmatic information in the micro-structure of *Far East*..... 288

Appendix 14: Pragmatic meaning relating to Chinese words beyond the 300 required of new HSK test-takers and their associated linguistic structures.....289

Appendix 15: 95 pragmatic points integrated into the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary..... 292

Appendix 16: 43 pragmatic points added into the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary.....295

Appendix 17：The second-stage E-C experimental dictionary..... 298

Appendix 18: Pragmatics Test 1.....361

Appendix 19: Pragmatics Test 2.....364

Appendix 20: Ethics Approval.....367

Appendix 1: Pragmatic meaning relating to 120 Chinese words and associated linguistic structures

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic Meaning
1	*bà（ba）*	爸（爸）	Father	Dad	Addressing one's dad
2	*bié…*	别…	Not	Do not	Advising/forbidding
3	*bié shì*	别是	Not be	It is possible that…	Surprise
4	*bú kèqì/yòng xiè*	不客气/用谢	No polite/need thank	You are welcome	Reply to thanks/formula
5	*bú sòng le*	不送了	No see off+*particle*	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
6	*bú yào*	不要…	Not want…	Do not	Advising/forbidding
7	*...bù...*	…不…	Not	Not	Attitude of reluctance
8	*bù le*	不了	No+*particle*	No	Politeness/refusal
9	*bù zěnmeyàng*	不怎么样	No how about	Not so good	Attitude of contempt
10	*bù zhīdào…*	不知道…	Not know	I wonder	Request/formula
11	*…cóng nǎr lái de*	…从哪儿来的	…from where come+*particle*	Where have…got…	Attitude of suspicion
12	*dà … de*	大…的	Big…*particle*	So…	Attitude of disagreement
13	*děi*	得	Have to	Have to	Order
14	*dìdi*	弟弟	Younger brother	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger brother, but for talking about him
15	*duì, …*	对, …	Right. …	Right….	Agreement/confirmation
16	*duì bu duì*	对不对	Correct not correct	Correct	Asking or providing confirmation
17	*duìbù*	对不起	Sorry	Sorry	Apology/formula
18	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Excuse me	Request/formula
19	*duì le, ….*	对了	Correct+*particle*	By the way	Switching topic
20	*duō*	多…	Much…	How…	Feeling
21	*érzi*	儿子	Son	Given name	Not used for addressing one's son
22	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter; waitress	Sir./Ms.	Politeness/address
23	*…+ gē*	…哥	…brother	Buddy	Politeness/address
24	*gē（ge）*	哥（哥）	Elder brother	Elder brother	Addressing one's elder brother
25	*guì xìng*	贵姓	honorific surname	May I have your name	Politeness in asking name/formula
26	*háizi*	孩子	Child	Dear	Address/feeling
27	*háizimen*	孩子们	Children	Dear	Address/feeling
28	*hǎo*	好（的）	Good (*particle*)	Right	Agreement/formula
29	*… hǎo ma*?	…好吗	…good+*particle*	How be…?	Greeting/formula
30	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng ... ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	…Ok./good+*particle*/ Ok./can…*particle*	Can…?/Be…Ok.	Politeness/request
31	*hěn kěnéng*	很可能	Very possible	Highly possible	Vagueness
32	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Can speak	Pay lip-service	Satirical attitude
33	*jiào*	叫	Call	Order/require	Command
34	…jiě	…姐	…elder sister	Given name	Politeness/address
35	*jiě（jie）*	姐（姐）	Elder sister	Elder sister	Addressing one's elder sister
36	*jiù*	就	Exactly	Exactly	Emphasis
37	*jiù*	就	Already (+*verbal structure*)	So (fast, early,...)	Surprise
38	*kànkan*	看看	Look look	Visit	Politeness in tenor
39	*kàn nǐ shuō de*	看你说的	Look you say+*particle*	What are you saying	Disagreement/formula
40	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	Possible	Vagueness
41	*… kěyǐ/hǎo ma?*	…可以/好吗？	…good/Ok.+*particle*	How about…/Be…OK.	Politeness/suggestion
42	*… lǎoshī*	…老师	…teacher	Given name	Politeness/address
43	*lǎoshī*	老师	teacher	Given name	Politeness/address
44	*mā（ma）*	妈（妈）	Mother	Mom	Addressing one's mother
45	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Slow slow eat	Take your time in enjoying the food	Politeness in food manners/formula
46	*màn zǒu （a）*	慢走（啊）	Slow walk (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
47	*méiguānxi/shén me/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	You are welcome/do not mention it	Reply to thanks/formula

48	*méi guānxi/ shénme/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	It is nothing/ no worries	Reply to Apology/formula
49	*mèimei*	妹妹	Younger sister	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger sister, but for talking about her
50	*méi（yǒu）wèntí*	没（有）问题	Not (have) problem	No problem	Replying to a request/formula
51	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	Tomorrow see.	See you tomorrow	Saying goodbye/formula
52	*nǎ'r lái de…*	哪儿来的…	Where come+*particle…*	How come…?	Refusal/attitude
53	*nǎ'r ya*	哪儿呀	Where+*particle*	No	Showing disagreement
54	*nǐ néng/néng bu néng…*	能/能不能…	Can/can not can…	Can you…	Politeness/request
55	*nǐ bù zhīdào（ma/ba）*	你不知道（吗/吧）	You not know (*particle/particle*)	Don't you know…	Targeting speaker's words, explaining or providing new information
56	*（nǐ） chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	(You) eat+*aspect marker+particle*	*Hello*	Greeting/formula
57	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	You how big+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age
58	*nǐ duóshǎo suì le*	你多少岁了	You how many years+ *particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age
59	*nǐ hái bié shuō*	你还别说	You still not say	You are right	Showing agreement
60	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	You/(polite) you good	Hello	Greeting/formula
61	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	You several years+ *particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age
62	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	You call what name	What is your name	Politeness in asking names
63	*（nǐ） kàn nǐ*	（你）看你	(You) look you	Look	Showing criticism
64	*nǐ máng（ba）*	你忙（吧）	You busy (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
65	*nǐ máng ma/máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	You busy+*particle*/ busy not busy	How are you	Greeting/formula
66	*nǐ mǎi bù mǎi*	你买不买	You buy or not buy	Don't you want to buy	Attitude of impatience
67	*nǐmen hǎo*	你们好	You good	Hello	Greeting/formula
68	*nǐ qù nǎli/'r a*	你去哪里/儿啊	You go where+*particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula
69	nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng	你身体怎么样	Your body how about	How are you	Greeting/formula
70	*nǐ xiān máng*	你先忙	You first busy	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
71	*nǐ zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	(You) how+*particle*	What is up/wrong	Surprise
72	*nǐ...zěnmeyàng*	你…怎么样	You…how about	How are you	Greeting/formula
73	*（nǐ） zhè…*	（你）这…	(You) this…	Excuse me,	Criticising
74	*nǐ zhīdào（ma/ba）*	你知道（吗/吧）	You know (*particle/particle*)	Don't you know	Drawing attention, seeking agreement
75	*nǐ zhēn/hěn piàoliang*	你真/很漂亮	You really/very beautiful	You are really /so beautiful	Politeness in praising females for appearance
76	nín	您	(Polite) you	You	Politeness in addressing
77	*qīzi*	妻子	Wife	Wife	Referring to one's wife in introducing
78	*qǐng*	请	Please	Please	Politeness in request
79	*qǐng*	请	Please	After you/help yourself	Politeness/formula
80	*qǐngwèn*	请问	Please ask	Excuse me	Request/formula
81	*…shénme… a*	…什么…啊	…what…*particle*	What is the point of	Attitude of disagreement
82	*shénme shíhou … le*	什么时候…了	What time…*particle*	How can I do…	Politeness in refusal
83	*shì*	是	Be	Yes	Agreement/confirmation
84	*shì*	是	Be	Exactly	Emphasis
85	*shì*	是	Be	Even if…be…	Attitude of concession
86	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Be not be	Right	Affirming, drawing attention, and

					being polite
87	*shì…háishì…*	是…还是…	Be…or…	…or…	Politeness in offering
88	*shì ma*	是吗	Be+*particle*	Really	Surprise
89	*...shì...wèntí*	…是…问题	…be…problem	…be something…	Criticising
90	*…tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate…	Hi	Politeness/address
91	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	Hi	Politeness/address
92	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmates	Everyone	Politeness/address
93	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Evening good	Good evening	Greeting/formula
94	*wèi*	喂	Hello	Hello	Greeting/formula
95	*wèntí shì…*	问题是…	Problem is	The problem is	Criticising
96	*wǒ de yìsi shì*	我的意思是	My meaning is	I mean	Supplementing, correcting, or emphasizing one's words
97	*wǒ juédé/kàn/xiǎng*	我觉得/看/想…	I feel/look/think	I think	Vagueness
98	*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe*	我说什么来着	I say what come+*progressive marker*	I said so	Showing criticism
99	*wǒ shuō zěnme/ne*	我说怎么/呢	I say why/*particle*	I see	Polite reply to others' answer/explanation
100	（*wǒ*）*xīwàng…*	（我）希望…	(I) hope…	I hope	Criticising
101	*xiàwǔ hǎo*	下午好	Afternoon good	Good afternoon	Greeting/formula
102	*….xiānsheng*	…先生	… gentleman	Mr.	Politeness/address
103	*xiānsheng*	先生	Sir.	Sir.	Politeness/address
104	*xiānsheng/ zhàngfu*	先生/丈夫	Sir./husband	Husband	Referring to one's husband in introducing
105	*xiǎo…*	小…	Little…	Little…	Feeling
106	*…xiáojiě*	… 小姐	…Miss	Miss…	Politeness/address
107	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	Miss	Politeness/address
108	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	Little friend	Dear	Feeling/address
109	*xiǎo yìsi*	小意思	Little value	A token of our gratitude	Politeness in presenting a gift/formula
110	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	Thank	Thanks	Giving thanks/formula
111	*yīshēng*	医生	Doctor	Dr.	Politeness/address
112	*yígè huài dōngxi*	一个坏东西	A bad thing	A bad person	Dislike
113	*zàijiàn*	再见	Again see	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula
114	（*zài*） *…zhe …ne*	（在）…着…呢	(At)*…progressive marker… particle*	Be+verb+ing	Politeness in replying to others
115	*zài…kàn lái*	在…看来	At…look come	In … view	Making personal comment
116	*zǎo, zǎoshang hǎo*	早, 早上好	Early/morning good	Good morning	Greeting/formula
117	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	…how about	How about…	Politeness/suggestion
118	*zhème shuō*	这么说	So speak	So	Assuming/concluding
119	zhēn	真	Real	Very/really	Emphasis
120	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Real+*particle+particle*	Really	Surprise

Appendix 2: New HSK Level-1 Lexical Syllabus (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word)

A: 1．ài 爱

B: 2．bā 八 3．bàba 爸爸 4．bēizi 杯子 5．Běijīng 北京 6．běn 本 7．bú kèqi 不客气 8．bù 不

C: 9．cài 菜 10．chá 茶 11．chī 吃 12．chūzūchē 出租车

D: 13．dǎ diànhuà 打电话 14．dà 大 15．de 的 16．diǎn 点 17．diànnǎo 电脑 18．diànshì 电视 19．diànyǐng 电影 20．dōngxi 东西 21．dōu 都 22．dú 读 23．duìbuqǐ 对不起 24．duō 多 25．duōshao 多少

E: 26．érzi 儿子 27．èr 二

F: 28．fàndiàn 饭店 29．fēijī 飞机 30．fēnzhōng 分钟

G: 31．gāoxìng 高兴 32．gè 个 33．gōngzuò 工作

H: 34．Hànyǔ 汉语 35．hǎo 好 36. hào 号 37. hē 喝 38．hé 和 39．hěn 很 40．hòumiàn 后面 41．huí 回 42．huì 会

J: 43．jǐ 几 44．jiā 家 45．jiào 叫 46．jīntiān 今天 47．jiǔ 九

K: 48． kāi 开 49．kàn 看 50．kànjiàn 看见 51．kuài 块

L: 52．lái 来 53．lǎoshī 老师 54．le 了 55．lěng 冷 56．lǐ 里 57．líng 零 58．liù 六

M: 59．māma 妈妈 60．ma 吗 61．mǎi 买 62．méi guānxi 没关系 63. méiyǒu 没有 64．mǐfàn 米饭 65．míngtiān 明天 66．míngzi 名字 67．nǎ 哪 68. nǎr 哪儿

N: 70．nà 那（nàr 那儿） 70．ne 呢 71．néng 能 72．nǐ 你 73．nián 年 74．nǚ'ér 女儿

P: 75．péngyou 朋友 76．piàoliang 漂亮 77．píngguǒ 苹果

Q: 78．qī 七 79．qián 钱 80．qiánmiàn 前面 81．qǐng 请 82．qù 去

R: 83．rè 热 84．rén 人 85．rènshi 认识

S: 86．sān 三 87．shāngdiàn 商店 88．shàng 上 89．shàngwǔ 上午 90．shǎo 少 91．shéi 谁 92．shénme 什么 93．shí 十 94．shíhou 时候 95．shì 是 96．shū 书 97．shuǐ 水 98．shuǐguǒ 水果 99．shuìjiào 睡觉 100．shuō 说 101．shuōhuà说话 102. sì 四 103．suì 岁

T: 104．tā 他 105．tā 她 106．tài 太 107．tiānqì 天气 108．tīng 听 109．tóngxué 同学

W: 110．wèi 喂 111．wǒ 我 112．wǒmen 我们 113．wǔ 五

X: 114．xǐhuan 喜欢 115．xià 下 116．xiàwǔ 下午 117．xià yǔ 下雨 118．xiānsheng 先

生 119．xiànzài 现在 120．xiǎng 想 121．xiǎo 小 122．xiǎojiě 小姐 123．xiē 些 124．xiě 写 125．xièxie 谢谢 126．xīngqī 星期 127．xuésheng 学生 128．xuéxí 学习 129．xuéxiào 学校

Y: 130．yī 一 131. yìdiǎnr 一点儿 132．yīfu 衣服 133．yīshēng 医生 134．yīyuàn 医院 135．yǐzi 椅子 136．yǒu 有 137．yuè 月

Z: 138．zài 在 139．zàijiàn 再见 140．zěnme 怎么 141．zěnmeyàng 怎么样 142．zhè 这（zhèr 这儿） 143．Zhōngguó 中国 144．zhōngwǔ 中午 145．zhù 住 146．zhuōzi 桌子 147．zì 字 148．zuótiān 昨天 149．zuò 坐 150．zuò 做

Appendix 3: HSK Level-2 Lexical Syllabus: 300 Chinese Words (including 150 above) (In the order of the *pinyin* of each word)

B: 151. ba 吧 152. bái 白 153. bǎi 百 154. bāngzhù帮助 155. bàozhǐ 报纸 156. bǐ 比 157. bié 别

C: 158. cháng 长 159. chànggē 唱歌 160. chū出 161. chuān 穿 162. cì次 163. cóng 从 164. cuò错

D: 165. dǎ lánqiú 打篮球 166. dàjiā大家 167. dào 到 168. de 得 169. děng 等 170. dìdi 弟弟 171. dìyī第一 172. dǒng 懂 173. duì对 174. duì对

F: 175. fángjiān 房间 176. fēicháng 非常 177. fúwùyuán 服务员

G: 178. gāo 高 179. gàosu 告诉 180. gēge 哥哥 181. gěi 给 182. gōnggòngqìchē公共汽车 183. gōngsī公司 184. gǒu 狗 185. guì 贵 186. guo 过

H: 187. hái 还 188. háizi 孩子 189. hǎochī好吃 190. hēi 黑 191. hóng 红 192. huānyíng 欢迎 193. huídá 回答 194. huǒchēzhàn 火车站

J: 195. jīchǎng 机场 196. jīdàn 鸡蛋 197. jiàn 件 198. jiàoshì教室 199. jiějie 姐姐 200. jièshào 介绍 201. jìn 进 202. jìn 近 203. jiù就 204. juéde 觉得

K: 205. kāfēi 咖啡 206. kāishǐ 开始 207. kǎoshì考试 208. kěnéng 可能 209. kěyǐ可以 210. kè课 211. kuài 快 212. kuàilè快乐

L: 213. lèi 累 214. lí离 215. liǎng 两 216. lù路 217. lǚyóu 旅游

M: 218. mài 卖 218. màn 慢 219. máng 忙 220. 每 221. māo 猫 222. měi 每 223 mèimei 妹妹 224. mén 门

N: 225. nán 男 226. nín 您 227. niúnǎi 牛奶 228. nǚ女

P: 229. pángbiān 旁边 230. pǎobù 跑步 231. piányi 便宜 232. piào 票

Q: 233. qīzi 妻子 234. qǐchuáng 起床 235. qiān 千 236. qiānbǐ铅笔 237. qíng 晴 238. qùnián 去年

R: 239. ràng 让 240. rì日

S: 241. shàngbān 上班 242. shēntǐ身体 243. shēngbìng 生病 244. shēngrì生日 245. shíjiān 时间 246. shìqing 事情 247. shǒubiǎo 手表 248. shǒujī手机 249. sòng 送 250. suīrán…dànshì…虽然……但是……

T: 251. tā它 252. tī zúqiú踢足球 253. tí 题 254. tiàowǔ跳舞

W: 255. wài 外 256. wán 完 257. wán 玩 258. wǎnshang 晚上 259. wèi shénme 为什么 260. wèn 问 261. wèntí问题

X: 262. xīguā西瓜 263. xīwàng 希望 264. xǐ洗 265 xiǎoshí小时 266. xiào 笑 267. xīn 新 268. xìng 姓 269. xiūxi 休息 270. xuě雪

Y: 271. yánsè 颜色 272. yǎnjing眼睛 273. yángròu羊肉 274. yào药 275. yào要 276. yě也 277. yìqǐ 一起 278. yíxià 一下 279. yǐjīng已经 280. yìsi意思 281. yīnwèi…suǒyǐ…因为……所以…… 282. yīn阴 283. yóuyǒng游泳 284. yòubian右边 285. yú鱼 286. yuǎn远 287. yùndòng 运动

Z: 288. zài 再 289. zǎoshang 早上 290. zhàngfu 丈夫 291. zhǎo 找 292. zhe 着 293. zhēn 真 294. zhèngzà正在 295. zhīdào 知道 296. zhǔnbèi 准备 297. zìxíngchē自行车 298. zǒu 走 299. zuì最 300. zuǒbian 左边

Appendix 4: Pragmatic points provided in *Integrated Chinese*

No	Pinyin	Chinese	Pragmatic information in *Integrated Chinese*			
			Status	Means	Pragmatic informaiton offered	To be supplemented
1	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	✓	Language note	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" is used for someone to apologize (Part 2: 50).	
2	*duì le*, ….	对了	✗	Language note	"*duì le* 对了 by the way" is often used when one suddenly thinks of something to say (Part 2: 269).	It is often used to switch a topic.
3	*...guì xìng*	…贵姓	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*guì xìng* 贵姓 honourable surname" is used as a polite way to ask one's surname (Part 1: 23).	"*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 (polite) you honourable surname" is a polite way of asking one's surname on formal occasions. "*nǐ guì xìng* 你贵姓 you honourable surname" can be used on informal occasions or a speaker deems there is no need to be so polite.
4	… *hǎo ma*?	…好吗	✗	Language note	"*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 how are you" is a greeting asked of people you already know (Part 1: 111).	The pattern can also be used to inquire after the addressee's friends, relatives, family members, etc.
5	… *hǎo ma/kěyǐ ma*?	…好/可以吗？	✗	Grammatical explanation/ language note	"*hǎo ma* 好吗 Okay" is to elicit others' opinion after making a suggestion (Part 1: 106, 176).	It is polite to use this structure. "*kěyǐ ma* 可以吗 okay" can be used to fulfil the same function.
6	*jiù*	就	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*jiù* 就 already" suggests the earliness or promptness of an action in the speaker's judgement (Part 1: 182).	Surprise is conveyed through using it.
7	*kànkan*	看看	✗	Grammatical explanation	Duplication of a verb refers to a requested action and makes the tone milder (Part 2: 85).	Through reduplicating a verb, the requested action sounds polite.
8	*màn zǒu*（*a*）	慢走（啊）	✓	Translation equivalent	"*màn zǒu*（*a*）慢走（啊）" is one way to say goodbye (Part 2: 316).	
9	*méi guānxi*	没关系	✗	Language note	"*méi guānxi* 没关系 it doesn't matter" is a common way to respond to others' apology (Part 2: 50).	"*méi shénme/shì'r* 没什么/事儿" can also be used as a casual reply to one's apology.
10	*méi*（*yǒu*）*wèntí*	没（有）问题	✓	Language note	"*méi*（*yǒu*）*wèntí*没（you）问题 no problem" is to assure that a promise will be fulfilled or an action done (Part 1: 151).	
11	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	✓	Translation equivalent	"*míngtiān jiàn* 明天见" is translated as "see you tomorrow", one common way to say goodbye (Part 2: 315).	
12	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	✗	Language note	"*nǐ duō dà le* 你多大了 how old are you" is used to ask someone's age (Part 1: 67).	It is usually used on adults or kids over ten years old. It is impolite to ask a senior person his/her age in this way.
13	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	✗	Language note	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好 hello" is a common way of greeting used among strangers or acquitances (Part 1: 20).	"*nín hǎo* 您好 hello" can be used on formal occasions to be polite.
14	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	✗	Language note	"*nǐ jǐ suì le* 你几岁了 how old are you" is used to ask the age of a kid under ten (Part 1: 67).	It is impolite to ask an adult, esp. a senior person, his/her age this way.
15	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	✗	Culture Note	"*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi* 你叫什么名字 what is your name" is used to ask the full or given name of a person (Part 1: 37).	It is often used by an adult to ask the name of a kid or used among youngsters.
16	（*nǐ*）*zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	✗	Language note	"（*nǐ*）*zěnme le*（你）怎么了 what's the matter" is asked upon encountering an unusual situation (Part 2: 18).	The surprise on the part of the speaker is not mentioned.
17	*nín*	您	✓	Language note	"您 (polite) you" is used to address someone older or of a higher social rank. It can be used to be polite or respectful (Part 1: 20, 150).	
18	*qǐng*	请	✗	Translation	"*qǐng* 请 please" is a polite form	It can be used independently as a

				equivalent	of request (Part 1: 21).	polite request. Context can help clarify what the intention of a speaker is.
19	*qǐngwèn*	请问	✗	Language note	"*qǐngwèn* 请问 excuse me" is a polite formula before asking a question or making an equiry (Part 1: 20).	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" can be used in the same way. The combination of "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" and "*qǐngwèn* 请问 excuse me" makes it sound even politer.
20	*shì…de*	是…的	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*shì…de* 是…的 it be…that" is used to describe or enquire about the time, place, manner, etc. (Part 2: 119).	The emphasis conveyed through using the structure can be specified.
21	*shì*	…是…	✓	Grammatical explanation	"*shì* 是 be" is used to show the speaker accepts the validity of something but want to emphasize a different aspect of a matter (Part 2: 22).	
22	*shì ma*	是吗	✓	Language note	"*shì ma* 是吗 really" is a milder expression of the speaker's surprise on hearing something unexpected (Part 1: 123).	
23	*xiānsheng*	先生	✗	Translation equivalent/Culture note	"*xiānsheng* 先生" is translated as Mr. (Part 1: 22, 248)	The politeness conveyed as well as the occasion for using it can be added.
24	*xiǎo…*	小…	✓	Language note	Placing "*xiǎo* 小 little" before surname is a faimilar and affectionate way to address a young person (Part 1: 110).	
25	*xiáojiě*	小姐	✗	Translation equivalent/culture note	"*xiáojiě* 小姐" is translated as "Miss" (Part 1: 20, 21).	Its negative connotation and dominant usage as a polite usage can be added.
26	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	✗	Language note	"*xièxie* 谢谢 thanks" is a way to express gratitude and repetition of its may be more polite. (Part 1: 63)	Chinese usually do not mention the favour done in thanking a person. They do not thank as often as western people
27	*zàijiàn*	再见	✓	Translation equivalent	"*zàijiàn* 再见" is translated as goodbye (Part 1: 69).	
28	*zǎo/zǎo shang hǎo*	早, 早上好	✓	Language note	"*zǎo* 早 morning" is the common greeting among Chinese. "*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 good morning" still sound too formal to many Chinese (Part 1: 188).	
29	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	✗	Translation equivalent	"*zěnmeyàng* 怎么样" is translated as "how is that, how does that sound" (Part 1: 68).	It is polite to use the structure to make a suggestion.
30	*zhēn*	真	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*zhēn* 真 really" can be used in exclamatory sentences to show the speaker's approval or disapproval, etc. (Part 1: 180).	A speaker wants to be emphatic about something.

Appendix 5: Pragmatic points provided in *Practical Chinese*

No	Pinyin	Chinese	Pragmatic information in *Practical Chinese*			
			Status	Means	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	✓	Languge note	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" is a commonly used phrase for apologizing (1: 57).	
2	*duì le*, …	对了	✓	Language note	"*duì le* 对了 by the way" is used to switch a topic, indicating the speaker suddenly thinks of something or going to add or correct something (2: 203).	
3	*duō*	多…	✗	Language note	"*duō* 多 how" is commonly used to express strong feelings (2: 203).	A speaker usually has implied intentions by using it.
4	...*guì xìng*	…贵姓	✗	Language note	"*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 (polite) you honorable surname" is a polite way to ask one's surname (1: 43).	"*nǐ guì xìng* 你贵姓 you honourable surname" can be used on informal occasions or a speaker deems there is no need to be so polite.
5	… *hǎo ma*?	…好吗	✗	Language note	"*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 how are you" is a common greeting for not seeing someone for sometime (1: 5).	It is often used on someone you already know. The pattern can also be used to inquire after the addressee's friends, relatives, other family members, etc.
6	… *hǎo ma/kěyǐ ma*?	…好/可以吗？	✗	Language note	"... *hǎo ma/kěyǐ ma?* 好/可以吗" Is it Ok…." is used in making suggestions (1: 73).	It is polite to use this structure.
7	*jiù*	就	✓	Language note	"*jiù* 就 exactly" has the function of emphasizing this is what the fact exactly is (2: 9).	
8	*jiù*	就	✗	Language note	"*jiù* 就 already" suggests the quickness of an action (2: 30).	It conveys surprise. The quickness depends on the speaker's subjective judgment.
9	… *lǎoshī*	…老师	✗	Language note	It is impolite to address a teacher by his/her by personal name. "Surname+teacher" is used (1: 31).	"Surname+teacher" is a must to address a teacher you know. "*lǎoshī* 老师" has very extensive polite usage as an address.
10	*méi guānxi/ shì'r*	没关系	✗	Language note	"*méi guānxi* 没关系 it does not matter" is the usual response to a person's apology (1: 57).	"*méi shénme/shì'r* 没什么/事儿" can also be used as a casual reply to one's apology.
11	*méi*（*yǒu*）*wèntí*	没（有）问题	✓	Language note	"*méi wèntí* 没问题 no problem" is used in spoken Chinese to show the affirmative, confident attitude. (1: 197)	
12	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	✗	Language note	"*nǐ duō dà le* 你多大了 how old are you" is used to ask the age of an adult or people of the same generation as the speaker (1: 133).	It is impolite to ask a senior person his/her age in this way.
13	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	✗	Language note	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好 Hello" is a common greeting used at any time of a day when meeting people for the first time or someone you know. "*nín* 您 you" is the polite form of "*nǐ* 你 you" (1: 4).	"*nín hǎo* 您好 (polite) you good" can be used formal occasions to be polite.
14	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	✗	Language note	"*nǐ jǐ suì le* 你几岁了 how old are you" is only used to ask the age of a child (1: 133).	It is impolite to ask an adult, esp. a senior person, his/her age this way.
15	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	✓	Language note	"*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi* 你叫什么名字 whati si your name" is a casual expression for adult to talk with a child or is used among youngsters (1: 95).	
16	*nǐ zěnmeyàng*	你怎么样	✓	Language note	"*nǐ zěnmeyàng* 你怎么样 how are you" is similar to "*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 how are you", used among friends and acquaitances (1: 133).	
17	*nín*	您	✓	Translation equivalent/language note	"*nín* 您 (polite) you" is a polite second person pronoun refer to an elderly person or a senior person when talking, or someone of the same generation on a formal	

					occasion (1: 30, 31).	
18	*qǐng*	请	✗	Language note	"*qǐng* 请 please" is used in making a polite request (1: 43).	It can be used independently as a polite request. Context can help clarify what the intention of a speaker is.
19	*shì*	是	✓	Grammatical explanation	"*shì* 是 be" can be used to emphasize the time and location of past events, and the manner in which they occurred (2: 166).	
20	*shì bu shìduì bu duì*	是不是	✗	Language note	"*shì bu shì* 是不是 right" is a speculation and expects a response from a hearer (1: 158).	The functions "*shì bu shì*是不是 right" plays are incomplete.
21	*shì ma*	是吗	✓	Language note	"*shì ma* 是吗 really" expresses a hearer's mild surprise concerning something s/he doesn't know (1: 133, 251).	
22	*tóngxué*	同学	✗	Language note	Students can call each other "*tóngxué* 同学 classmate" (2: 152).	It is a polite address. A sutdent's full name can be added to it.
23	*tóngxué men*	同学们	✗	Language note	Teachers or other people can call a student "*tóngxué* 同学 classmate" (2: 152).	It is a polite address.
24	*xiānsheng*	先生	✗	Translation equivalent/language note	"*xiānsheng* 先生 Sir." is a general address form for a male adult (1: 157).	The politeness conveyed as well as the occasion for using it can be added.
25	*xiáojiě*	小姐	✗	Translation equivalent	"*xiáojiě*小姐 Miss" is used as Miss (1: 58).	Its negative connotation and dominant usage as a polite usage can be added.
26	*xièxie …*	谢谢…	✗	Translation equivalent	"*xièxi* 谢谢 thanks" is used to thank somebody (1: 57).	Chinese usually do not mention the favour done in thanking a person. They do not thank as often as western people.
27	*zàijiàn*	再见	✓	Translatio equivalent	"*zàijiàn* 再见 goodbye" is used to say goodbye (1: 57).	
28	*zǎo/zǎo shang hǎo*	早/早上好	✗	Language note	"*zǎo* 早 morning" is a commonly used Chinese greeting in the morning (2: 9).	"*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 moring good" sounds more formal.

Appendix 6: Pragmatic points provided in *Encounters*

No	Pinyin	Chinese	Pragmatic information in *Encounters*			
			Status	Means	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*bà*（*ba*）	爸（爸）	✗	For your interest	"*bàba* 爸爸" is used to address one's father (1: 121).	"*bà*爸 father" is also often used to address one's father.
2	*dìdi*	弟弟	wrong	For your inrerest	Elder siblings address the youngers ones with "*dìdi* 弟弟" (1: 121).	It is not usually used to address one's younger brother, since it goes againt the Chinese politeness of self-denigration. The given name or pet name is often used instead.
3	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	✗	Translation equivalent	"*duìbùqǐ*对不起" is translated into "I'm sorry" (1: 33).	It is often used by Chinese to apologise.
4	*gē*（*ge*）	哥（哥）	✓	For your interest	Younger siblings address the elder brothers as *gēge* or *gē*. (1: 121)	
5	*...guì xìng*	…贵姓	✗	For your interest	It is more cultrally appropriate to address someone older or with a higher social status than yourself with "*nín guì xìng*您贵姓" (1: 26).	"*nǐ guì xìng*你贵姓 you honourable surname" can be used on informal occasions or a speaker deems there is no need to be so polite.
6	*háizi*	孩子	✗	For your interest	Parents often address their kids with "*háizi* 孩子" (1: 121).	It is affectionate to addressing one's or others' kids this way. The addresser is usually an adult.
7	… *hǎo ma*	…好吗	✗	For your interest	"*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 how are you" is a friendly and informal greeting. It is more formal and polite to use "*nín hǎo ma* 您好吗 how are you" (1: 19).	"*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗 how are you" is only used on people you know. The pattern can also be used to inquire after the addressee's friends, relatives, other family members, etc.
8	*jiě*（*jie*）	姐（姐）	✓	For your interest	Younger siblings address the elder sisters as *jiějie* or *jiě* (1: 121).	
9	*kànkan*	看看	✓	Grammatical explanation	Reduplicating a verb makes it less forceful and more polite and more of a suggestion (1: 173, 184).	
10	… *lǎoshī*	…老师	✗	For your interest	It is best for a teacher to be addressed with surname plus "*lǎoshī*老师"(1: 22).	"Surname+teacher" is a must to address a teacher you know. "*lǎoshī* 老师" has very extenstive polite usage as an address.
11	*mā*（*ma*）	妈（妈）	✗	For your interest	"*māma* 妈妈" is used to address one's mother. (1: 121)	"*mā*妈" is often used as well
12	*méi guānxi*	没关系	✗	Translation equivalent/ For your interest	It is pointed out in the vocabulary "*méi guānxi* 没关系" means "That's all right. No problem" as a reponse to apology (1: 39, 2: 2).	"*méi shénme/shì'r* 没什么/事儿" can also be used as a casual reply to one's apology.
13	*mèimei*	妹妹	Wrong	For your interest	Elder siblings address the younger sisters with "*mèimei* 妹妹". (1: 121)	It is not usually used to address one's younger sister, since it goes againt the Chinese politeness of self-denigration. The given name or pet name is often used instead.
14	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	✓	For your interest	"*míngtiān jiàn* 明天见" is used to say goodbye (1: 22).	
15	（*nǐ*） *chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	✗	For your interest	"（*nǐ*） *chī le ma* （你）吃了吗 Have you eaten" is a conventional Chinese greeting (2: 86).	It is used around meal time except breakfast time.
16	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	✗	For your interest	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好 hello" is an informal and friendly greeting, used regardless of either the time of a day or person. addressed. When greeting someone at a formal or business occasion, or who is senior to you significantly, "*nín hǎo* 您好 hello" is used (1: 39).	"*nín hǎo* 您好" sounds politer.
17	*nín*	您	✗	For your interest/translation equivalent	"*nín* 您" is a formal and more polite form of address (1: 19, 39).	It is often used to refer to someone who is higher in social position or senior in age.
18	*qǐng*	请	✗	Translation equivalent	"*qǐng*请" is transalted as "please" (1: 33).	It is polite to make a request by using it.
19	*qǐng*	请	✗	Translation equivalent	"*qǐng*请" is transalted as "please go ahead of me" (1: 39).	It does not specify the politeness in its formulaic usage and other ones context can help clarify.
20	*qǐngwèn*	请问	✗	Translation	"*qǐngwèn* 请问" is translated as	It is polite to use it. "*duìbùqǐ* 对不

				equivalent	"May I ask…" (1: 39).	起 sorry" can be used in the same way. The combination of "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" and "*qǐngwèn* 请问 excuse me" makes it sound even politer.
21	*shì*	是	✓	Grammatical explanation	"*shì…de* 是…的 it is … that " is an structure to show the interest in when, why, why, etc. an event happened in the past (1: 114).	Using this structure shows emphasis.
22	*xiānsheng*	先生	✓	For your interest	"*xiānsheng*先生 Sir." is a general address term (1: 126).	It is polite to use the term and is often used on formal occasions.
23	*xiáojiě*	小姐	✓	For your interest	"*xiáojiě* 小姐 Miss" is a general address form, which now indicates a prostitute sometimes (1: 126-127, 2: 4).	It is still a dominant polite usage.
24	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	✓	Translation equivalent	"*xièxie* 谢谢" is translated as "thank you" (1: 39).	Chinese usually do not mention the favour done in thanking a person. They do not thank as often as western people.
25	*zàijiàn*	再见	✓	For your interest	"*zàijiàn* 再见" is translated as goodbye (1: 22).	
26	*zǎo/zǎoshang hǎo*	早/早上好	✓	For your interest	"*zǎo* 早 morning" is common way to greet friends in early morning. "*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 good morning" is more formal (1: 19).	"*zǎo* 早 morning" is a casual way of greeting.
27	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	✓	Translation equivalent	"*zěnmeyàng*怎么样" is translated as "how does it sound to you after a suggestion" (1: 92).	It is polite to use the structure to make a suggestion.

Appendix 7: Pragmatic points provided in *Chinese Link*

No	Pinyin	Chinese	Pragmatic information in *Chinese Link*			
			Status	Means	Pragmatic information provided	To be suppmented
1	*bú kèqì*	不客气	✗	Translation equivalent/language note	"不客气 you are welcome" is similar to "You are welcome" (Part 1: 148, Part 2: 50).	It is polite to reply this way.
2	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	✗	Translation equivalent	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" means "I'm sorry" (Part 1: 147).	It is often used by Chinese to apologise.
3	*duì le*	对了	✓	Translation equivalent/language note	"*duì le* 对了 by the way" is used to start a new topic in informatl conversation (Part 1: 34, 36).	
4	*...guì xìng*	…贵姓	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 May I ask your surname" is a polite way of asking a person's surname. One can reply with surname or full name (Part 1: 21).	"*nín guì xìng* 您贵姓 May I ask your surname" is used on formal occasions. "*nǐ guì xìng* 你贵姓 you honourable surname" can be used on informal occasions or a speaker deems there is no need to be so polite.
5	*hǎo*	好（的）	✓	Language note	"*hǎo* 好 Ok." is often used to indicate agreement with what others just mentioned (Part 1: 127).	
6	… *hǎo ma*?	…好吗	✗	Langauge note	"*nǐ hǎo ma* 你好吗" is a common greeting similar to "How are you?". The common reply is "*wǒ hěn hǎo* 我很好 I'm very well" (Part 1: 36).	The greeting is appropriate among acquitances. The pattern can also be used to inquire after the addressee's friends, relatives, other family members, etc.
7	… *hǎo/kěyǐ ma*?	…好/可以吗	✗	Grammatial explanation	Tag question like "*hǎoma* 好吗 okay" is used for suggestions (Part 1: 130).	It is polite to use this structure. "*kěyǐ ma* 可以吗 okay" can be used to fulfil the same function..
8	*jiù*	就	✗	Grammatical explanation	"就" is for emphasizing time and expectation of an event, indicating an action was or will be carried out sooner than expected (Part 1: 174).	It shows the speaker's surprise.
9	*kànkan*	看看	✗	Grammatical explanation	Duplicated verbs indicates a quick anction, doing a bit of something or doing something in a related way (Part 2: 31).	Politeness in using this expression is not mentioned, particulary in making a request.
10	（*nǐ*）*chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	✗	Culture note	"（*nǐ*） *chī le ma* （你） 吃了吗 Have you eaten" is used close to meal times as a greeting (Part 1: 13).	It is a causal way of greeting others. It is not used at breakfast time.
11	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	✗	Language note	"*nǐ duō dà le* 你多大了 how old are you" is generally used to ask the age of adults or children over ten (Part 2: 50).	It is impolite to ask a senior person his/her age in this way.
12	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	✓	grammatical explanation/language note note	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好 hello" is a common greeting. "*nín hǎo* 您好 hello" can be used for people elder or with a higher social status. It can also be used to refer to someone of the same status or age out of politeness (Part 1: 4, 21).	
13	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	✗	Langauge note	"*nǐ jǐ suì le* 你几岁了 how old are you" is used to ask a child younger than ten (Part 2: 50).	It is impolite to ask an adult, esp. a senior person his/her age this way.
14	*nǐ zěnmeyàng*	你怎么样	✗	Culture note	"*nǐ zěnmeyàng* 你怎么样 How is everything going" is one common greeting in Chinese in the form of question-and-answer (Part 1: 13).	It is used among people who know each other.
15	*nín*	您	✓	Translatin equivalent/grammatical explanation	It is a polite form of "*nǐ*你 you". It is often used to address someone senior in age or status. It can also be used to address someone of similar age to a speaker for meeting him/her first time or on formal occasion (Part 1: 18, 21, 85).	
16	*qǐng*	请	✗	Translation equivalent	It is translated as "(polite) please" (Part 1: 118).	It is used to make a request. It does not specify the politeness in its formulaic usage, which context can help clarify.

17	*qǐngwèn*	请问	✗	Translation equivalent/language note	"*qǐngwèn* 请问 may I ask" is used to make a polite request (Part 1: 20).	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" can be used in the same way. The combination of "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 sorry" and "*qǐngwèn* 请问 excuse me" makes it sound even politer.
18	*shì*	是	✓	Grammatical explanation	The structure "*shì...de* 是…的 It be …that…" is to emphasize what comes between "是" and "的" (Part 1: 94).	
19	*shì bu shì/duì bu duì*	是不是	✗	Grammatical explanation	"*shì bu shì/duì bu duì*是不是/对不对 don't/aren't…" are used for asking confirmation or making a suggestion (Part 1: 129-130).	It is polite to using them. The pragmatic functions can be more specific.
20	*xiānsheng*	先生	✗	Culture note	"*xiānsheng* 先生 Sir." is a proper form to address a male stranger (Part 1: 85).	It is polite to use the term and is often used on formal occasions.
21	*xiǎo*…	小…	✗	Culture note/language note	"*xiǎo* 小 Little" is used with a person's surname to be informal or friendly to address familiar people. Usually it is for addressing people younger than you (Part 1: 85, 153).	It does not mention the affection involved in this usage.
22	*xiáojiě*	小姐	✗	Culture note	"*xiáojiě* 小姐 Miss" is a proper form to address a female stranger (Part 1: 85).	Its negative connotation and dominant usage as a polite usage can be added.
23	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	✗	Culture note	"*xiǎo péngyou* 小朋友 dear" is used for addressing children (Part 1: 85).	It is affectionate to use this term.
24	*xièxie* …	谢谢…	✗	Translation equivalent	"*xièxie* 谢谢" is translated as "thanks" (1: 146).	Chinese usually do not mention the favour done in thanking a person. They do not thank as often as western people.
25	*zàijiàn*	再见	✓	Translation equivalent	"*zàijiàn* 再见" is rendered into Goodbye (Part: 124).	
26	*zǎo/zǎo shang hǎo*	早/早上好	✗	Culture note	"*zǎo* 早 morning" can use the same greeting early or late morning (Part 1: 12).	"*zǎo* 早 morning" is a casual greeing. "*zǎoshang hǎo* 早上好 moring good" is usually used in formal settings.

Appendix 8: Inclusion of 120 pragmatic points in six dictionaries

No	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese	Headword	Inclusion of pragmatic points					
				Collins	*Oxford*	*Tuttle*	*Concise*	*Far East*	*Practical*
1	*bà*（*ba*）	爸（爸）	Dad	✓	×	×	×	×	×
2	*bié…*	别…	Do	×	✓	×	×	×	×
3	*bié shì*	别是	Possible	×	×	×	×	×	×
4	*bú kèqì*	不客气	Not	×	✓	×	×	×	×
			Welcome	✓	×	×	×	×	×
5	*bú sòng le*	不送了	See	×	×	×	×	×	×
6	*bú yào*	不要…	Do	×	×	×	×	×	×
7	*bù*	不	Not	×	×	×	×	×	×
8	*bù le*	不了	No	×	×	×	×	×	×
9	*bù zěnmeyàng*	不怎么样	Good	×	×	×	×	×	×
10	*bù zhīdào…*	不知道…	Wonder	×	×	×	×	×	×
11	*…cóng nǎr lái de*	…从哪儿来的	Where	×	×	×	×	×	×
12	*dà … de*	大…的	Night/so	×	×	×	×	×	×
13	*děi*	得	Have	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Must	×	×	×	×	×	×
14	*dìdi*	弟弟	Brother	×	×	×	×	×	×
15	*duì, …*	对, …	Correct	×	×	×	×	×	×
16	*duì bu duì*	对不对	do	×	✓	×	×	×	×
17	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	✓	✓	✓	×	×	×
18	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Excuse	×	×	✓	×	×	×
19	*duì le, ….*	对了	Way	×	×	×	×	×	×
20	*duō*	多…	How	×	×	×	×	×	×
			What	×	×	×	×	×	×
21	*érzi*	儿子	Son	×	×	×	×	×	×
22	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter	✓	×	×	×	×	/
			Waitress	×	×	×	×	×	/
23	*…+ gē*	…+哥	Brother	×	×	×	×	×	×
24	*gē*（*ge*）	哥（哥）	Brother	×	×	×	×	×	×
25	*guì xìng*	贵姓	Surname	×	×	×	×	×	×
26	*háizi*	孩子	Child	×	×	×	×	×	×
27	*háizimen*	孩子们	Children	×	/	/	/	/	/
28	*hǎo*	好（的）	Ok (Okay)	×	✓	×	×	×	×

29	*… hǎo ma?*	…好吗	How	×	メ	×	×	×	×
30	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	Mind	×	メ	×	×	×	×
31	*hěn kěnéng*	很可能	Must	×	メ	×	×	×	×
32	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Speak	×	×	×	×	×	×
33	*jiào*	叫	Ask	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Order	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Tell	×	メ	×	×	×	×
34	…jiě	…姐	Sister	×	×	×	×	×	×
35	*jiě（jie）*	姐（姐）	Sister	×	×	×	×	×	×
36	*jiù*	就	Exactly	×	×	×	×	×	/
37	*jiù*	就	Arrive	×	×	×	×	×	×
38	*kànkan*	看看	Visit	×	×	×	×	×	×
39	*kàn nǐ shuō de*	看你说的	You	×	×	×	×	×	×
40	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	×	メ	メ	×	×	×
41	*… kěyǐ/hǎo ma?*	…可以/好吗？	Can	メ	メ	メ	×	×	×
			May	メ	メ	メ	×	×	×
42	*… lǎoshī*	…老师	Teacher	×	×	/	×	×	/
43	*lǎoshī*	老师	Teacher	×	×	/	×	×	/
44	*mā（ma）*	妈（妈）	Mom	/	×	×	/	×	/
45	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Eat	×	×	×	×	×	×
46	*màn zǒu（a）*	慢走（啊）	Slowly	×	×	×	×	×	/
47	*méiguānxi/ shénme/shì 'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	Welcome	×	×	×	×	×	×
48	*méi guānxi/ shénme/shì 'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	Matter	メ	×	×	×	×	×
			Mind	×	×	×	×	×	×
49	*mèimei*	妹妹	Sister	×	×	×	×	×	×
50	*méi（yǒu）wèntí*	没（有）问题	Problem	×	×	メ	/	×	×
51	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	Tomorrow	×	×	×	×	×	×
52	*nǎ 'r lái de…*	哪儿来的…	Can	×	×	×	×	×	×
53	*nǎ 'r ya*	哪儿呀	No	×	×	×	×	×	×
54	*nǐ néng/néng bu néng…*	能/能不能…	Can	×	×	メ	×	×	×
55	*nǐ bù zhīdào*	你不知道（吗/吧）	Know	×	×	×	×	×	×

	（*ma/ba*）								
56	（*nǐ*）*chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	Eat	乂	×	×	×	×	×
57	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	Age	×	×	×	×	×	×
58	*nǐ duóshǎo suì le*	你多少岁了	Age	×	×	×	×	×	×
59	*nǐ hái bié shuō*	你还别说	Well	×	×	×	×	×	×
59			Right	×	×	×	×	×	×
60	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	Hello	乂	乂	乂	×	×	×
60			You	×	×	×	×	×	×
61	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	Age	×	×	×	×	×	×
62	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	Name	乂	乂	乂	×	×	×
63	（*nǐ*）*kàn nǐ*	（你）看你, …	Look	×	×	×	×	×	×
64	*nǐ máng*（*ba*）	你忙（吧）	Busy	×	×	×	×	×	×
65	*nǐ máng ma/máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	Busy	×	×	×	×	×	×
66	*nǐ mǎi bù mǎi*	你买不买	Buy	×	×	×	×	×	×
67	*nǐmen hǎo*	你们好	Hello	×	×	×	×	×	×
68	*nǐ qù nǎli/'r a*	你去哪里/儿啊	Where	×	×	×	×	×	×
69	*nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng*	你身体怎么样	Body	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Health	×	×	×	×	×	×
70	*nǐ xiān máng*	你先忙	Busy	×	×	×	×		×
71	*nǐ zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	Matter	×	×	×	×	×	×
72	*nǐ...zěnmeyàng*	你…怎么样	How	乂	×	×	×	×	×
73	（*nǐ*）*zhè…*	（你）这…	This	×	×	×	×	×	×
74	*nǐ zhīdào*（*ma/ba*）	你知道（吗/吧）	Know	×	×	×	×	×	×
75	*nǐ zhēn/hěn piàoliang*	你真/很漂亮	Beautiful	×	×	×	×	×	/
76	*nín*	您	You	×	乂	×	×	乂	×
77	*qīzi*	妻子	Wife	×	×	×	×	×	×
78	*qǐng*	请	Please	乂	乂	乂	×	✓	×
79	*qǐng*	请	After	×	×	×	×	×	×

			Help	×	×	×	×	×	×
80	*qǐngwèn*	请问	Excuse	✓	×	×	×	×	×
81	*…shénme … a*	…什么…啊	What	×	×	×	×	×	×
82	*shénme shíhou … le*	什么时候…了	Time	×	×	×	×	×	×
83	*shì*	是	Be	×	×	×	×	×	×
84	*shì*	是	Be	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Certainly	×	×	×	×	×	/
85	*shì*	是	Be	×	×	×	×	×	×
			Indeed	×	/	×	×	×	×
86	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Do	×	✓	×	×	×	×
87	*shì…háishì …*	是…还是…	Or	×	×	×	×	×	×
88	*shì ma*	是吗	Be	×	×	×	×	×	×
89	*...shì...wèn tí*	…是…问题	Something	×	×	×	×	×	×
90	*…tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate	×	×	×	×	×	×
91	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	×	×	×	×	×	×
92	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmate	×	×	×	×	×	×
93	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Good evening	×	×	×	×	×	×
94	*wèi*	喂	Hello	×	×	✓	×	×	×
95	*wèntí shì…*	问题是…	Problem	×	×	×	/	×	×
96	*wǒ de yìsi shì*	我的意思是	Mean	×	×	×	×	×	×
97	*wǒ juédé/kàn/xiǎng*	我觉得/看/想…	Think	×	×	×	×	×	×
98	*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe*	我说什么来着	Say	×	×	×	×	×	×
99	*wǒ shuō zěnme/ne*	我说怎么/呢	See	×	×	×	×	×	×
100	（*wǒ*）*xīwàng…*	（我）希望…	Hope	×	×	×	×	×	×
101	*xiàwǔ hǎo*	下午好	Good afternoon	×	×	×	×	×	×
102	*….xiānsheng*	…先生	Mr.	✓	×	×	✓	×	×
103	*xiānsheng*	先生	Gentleman	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×
			Mister	/	/	×	×	×	/
			Sir.	✓	/	×	✓	×	×
104	*xiānshen/zhàngfu*	先生/丈夫	Husband	×	×	×	×	×	×

105	*xiǎo…*	小…	Little	×	×	×	×	×	×
106	*…xiáojiě*	… 小姐	Miss	乂	×	×	乂	×	×
107	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	乂	×	×	×	×	×
			Prostitute	×	/	×	×	×	×
108	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	Friend	×	×	×	×	×	×
109	*xiǎo yìsi*	小意思	Token	×	/	×	×	×	×
110	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	Thank	乂	×	×	×	×	×
111	*yī shēng*	医生	Doctor	×	×	×	×	×	×
112	*yígè huài dōngxi*	一个坏东西	Person	×	×	×	×	×	×
113	*zàijiàn*	再见	Goodbye	×	×	×	×	×	×
114	*zài …ne*	（在）…着…呢	Eat	×	×	×	×	×	×
115	*zài…kàn lái*	在…看来	View	×	×	×	×	×	×
116	*zǎo, zǎoshang hǎo*	早, 早上好	Good morning	×	×	×	×	×	×
117	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	How	乂	乂	×	×	×	×
118	*zhème shuō*	这么说	So	×	×	×	×	×	×
119	zhēn	真	How	×	×	×	×	×	×
			really	×	×	×	×	×	×
120	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Really	乂	×	乂	×	×	×
Pragmatic points included				19	18	12	3	2	0

Appendix 9: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Collins*

Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Collins*							
No	*Pinyin*	Chinese	Head -words	Means	Status	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*bà* （*ba*）	爸（爸）	Dad	Translation of example	メ	"Dad! 爸! bà !" indicates that it can be used as an address form.	"*bàba* 爸爸" can be also used an address form.
2	*bú kèqì*	不客气	Not	Explanation/translation of example	メ	"*bú kèqì*不客气", following the bracketed explanations—"in answers to thanks", is given as the translation of "not at all".	"*bú kèqì*不客气" is a polite formulaic way to respond to one's gratitude. Other formulaic ways can be supplemented.
3	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Translation of example	メ	"对不起 *duìbùqǐ*" is provided as the equivalent "sorry" in three examples, implying it is used for apologising in Chinese.	It is a formula for apologising. Other expressions can be used as well.
4	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter	Translation of example	メ	"Waiter! 服务员! *Fúwùyuán*!" is offered, implying it can be used as an address form.	"*fúwùyuán* 服务员" can be used as a polite address for both waiters and waitresses. It can also be used to refer to people working in hotel and other service industry as well.
5	… *hǎo ma/kěyǐ / ma/kéyǐ /néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	Can	Translation of example	メ	The translation of two examples indicate "（…） *kéyǐ…ma*? （…） 可以…吗？" can be used to make a request.	It is a polite formula for making a request in Chinese. Other forms can also be used.
			May	Translation of example	メ	The translation of one example shows "（…） *kéyǐ…ma*? （…） 可以…吗？" can be used to make a request.	It is polite formula making a request in Chinese. Other forms can also be used.
6	*méi guānxi/ shénme /shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	Matter	Translation of example	メ	The translation of one example indicates "*méiguānxi* 没关系" can be used as a response to others' apology.	"*méiguānxi* 没关系" is a common formulaic response to others' apology. "*méi shénme/shì*'没什么/事儿" can also be used in the same way.
7	（*nǐ*） *chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	Eat	Language tip	メ	In China, "（*nǐ*） *chī le ma*? （你） 吃了吗?" is used as a common greeting, not an invitation.	It is a casual greeting usually used around meal time except breakfast time.

8	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	Hello	Translation equivalent/ explanation	人	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好" is provided as the translation of the first sense, supplemented with "(as a greeting)"	Depending on factors like the addressee's age, status, or the formality of the occasion, "*nín hǎo* 您 (polite you)" 好 can be used as well.
9	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	Name	Translation of example	人	"*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*? 你叫什么名字?" is given as the translation of an example to ask for a person's name.	Conditions for using this expression is not mentioned, like adults talking to a kid, are not specified.
10	*nǐ…zěn meyàng*	你…怎么样	How	Translation of example	人	"*nǐ zěnmeyàng*? 你怎么样?" is offered as translation of "How are you?".	"*nǐ zěnmeyàng*? 你怎么样?" is a common greeting among friends and acquaintances.
11	*qǐng*	请	Please	Translation of Example	人	Translations of two examples indicate that "*qǐng*请" can be used to make a request.	"*qǐn* 请" can be used to start a polite request.
12	*qǐng wèn*	请问	Excuse	Translation of Example	人	Translation of an example implies that "*qǐng wèn* 请问" can precede a request.	"*qǐng wèn* 请问" is a polite formula to start a request. It can go with "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起 excuse me" to be more polite.
13	*….xiān sheng*	…先生	Mr.	Translation of example	人	"Mr. Smith" is translated as "史密斯先生", implying "*….xiānsheng* …先生" can be used to address others.	The surname of a man can be added to "*xiānsheng*先生" as a polite address on formal occasions.
14	*xiānshe ng*	先生	Gentleman	Translation of example	人	Gentlemen is translated into "*xiānsheng men* 先生们" in the example, indicating it is used an address.	"*xiānsheng men* 先生们" is a polite address on formal public occasions.
			Sir.	Translation of example	人	The translation of "Sir." in examples into "*xiānsheng*先生" shows that it is used as address.	"*xiānsheng*先生" is a polite general address usually used on formal occasions.
15	*…xiáoj iě*	… 小姐	Miss	Translation of example	人	The translation of "Miss" in examples show that it can be added before a person's surname as an address.	Adding a person's surname before is "*xiáojiě* 小姐" makes a polite address used on formal occasions, regardless of the addressee's marital status.
16	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	Language tip	人	It is an appropriate address for young and unmarried lady.	It has the negative connotation of prostitution but is still dominantly used as a polite address. Thus care should be paid while using it.
17	*xièxie …*	谢谢…	Thank	Translation of example	人	The translation of two examples imply that "*xièxie* （*nǐ*） 谢谢（你）" is used to show one's gratitude.	People usually do not need to mention the specific favor they have received in expressing their gratitude. Repetition of "*xièxie* 谢

							谢” can be more polite.
18	…*zěnm eyàng*	…怎么样	How	Explanation/translation of example	メ	The bracketed “in suggestions” implies “*zěnmeyàng* 怎么样” is used for suggesting. The translation of an example further illustrates this.	It is a way to make a polite suggestion.
19	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Really	Explanation/translation of example	メ	“indicating surprise” in brackets indicates “*zhēn de ma* 真的吗” is used to show one’s feeling. The translation of an example further illustrates this usage.	It can also be used to show one’s disbelief.

Appendix 10: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Oxford*

Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Oxford*							
No	*Pinyin*	Chinese	Headword	Means	Status	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*bié…*	别…	Do	Translation of example	乂	"*bié* 别" is used in the translation of two examples, indicating asking others not to do something.	It can be used to give advice or forbid somebody to do something, depending on context.
2	*bú kèqì*	不客气	Not	Translation of example	乂	"*bú kèqì*不客气" is provided as the translation of "not at all" in response to "thank you".	"*bú kèqì*不客气" is a polite formulaic way to respond to one's gratitude. Other formulaic ways can be supplemented.
3	*duì bu duì*	对不对	Do	Boxed note/translation of example	乂	The boxed note points out English tag questions are usually put into "*duì bu duì*对不对", with the translation of an example to illustrate this.	Different implications of using "*shì bu shì*/*duì bu duì*对不对" as pragmatic markers are not explained.
4	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Translation of example	乂	Translation of two examples indicate "对不起 *duìbùqǐ*" is used for apologising.	It is a formula for apologising. Other expressions can be used as well..
5	*hǎo*	好（的）	Ok	Translation of example	乂	The translation of example implies "*hǎo* 好" is a positive reply to others' request.	It is a formulaic way to show one's agreement.
6	*… hǎo ma*?	…好吗	How	Translation of example	乂	The translation of examples imply "*… hǎo ma*? 好吗" can be used to greet others or enquire about the wellbeing of others.	"*…hǎo ma*?...好吗" is a polite greeting among friends and acquaintances for not meeting each other for some time. It is also a polite expression to enquire about the wellbeing of the friends, acquaintances as well.
7	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	Mind	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example for the second sense indicates "*hǎo ma*? 好吗?" can be used for a request.	It is a polite formula for making a request in Chinese. Other forms can also be used.
8	*hěn kěnéng*	很可能	Must	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example for the third sense indicates "*hěn kěnéng* 很可能" can be used to indicate the speaker's assumption.	It is a way to distance the speaker from a proposition he expresses.
9	*jiào*	叫	tell	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example for the fourth sense indicates that "*jiào* 叫" can be used to give request or command.	In giving commands or orders, "*jiào* 叫" is only appropriate within senior to junior context.
10	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example indicates "*kěnéng* 可能" can be used to indicate the speaker's assumption.	It is a way to distance the speaker from the proposition he expresses.

11	（…）*kéyǐ…ma*?	（…）可以…吗？	can	Translation of example	人	The translation of "Can I smoke?" into "*wǒ kěyǐ xīyān ma* 我可以吸烟吗" indicates the Chinese structure can be used to make a request.	It is polite formula used in making a request in Chinese. Other forms can also be used.
			May	Translation of example	人	The translation of "May I come in?" into "*wǒ kěyǐ jìnlái ma* 我可以进来吗" indicates the Chinese structure can be used to make a request.	It is polite formula used in making a request in Chinese. Other forms can also be used
12	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	Hello	Translation equivalent	人	"*nǐ hǎo* 你好" is used for greeting someone.	Depending on factors like the addressee's age, status, or the formality of the occasion, "*nín hǎo* 您 (polite you)" 好 can be used as well.
13	*míngzi*	名字	Name	Translation of example	人	"*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*? 你叫什么名字?" is offered as the translation of the example "What's your name?"	Conditions for using this expression is not mentioned, like adults talking to a kid, are not specified.
14	*nín*	您	You	Translation of equivalent/ bracketed explanation /translation of example	人	"*nín* 您" is provided as the equivalent of the second person pronoun "you" with "polite singular form" in brackets. The translation of one example helps illustrate this usage.	"*nín* 您" is often used to address someone senior in age or rank or an occasion is formal.
15	*qǐng*	请	Please	Translation of example	人	The use of "*qǐng* 请" in translating the example "please come in" as "*qǐng jìn* 请进" indicates it can help make a request.	"*qǐn* 请" can be used to start a polite request.
16	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Do	Boxed note/translation of example	人	The boxed note points out English tag questions are usually put into "*shì bu shì*是不是", with the translation of an example to illustrate this.	Different implications of using "*shì bu shì*/*duì bu duì* 是不是" as pragmatic markers are not explained.
17	*xiānsheng*	先生	Gentleman	Translation equivalent/translation of example	人	The translation of "a gentleman" into "*yí wèi xiānshēng* 一位先生" illustrates "*xiānshēng* 先生" can be a polite term for man, since "*wèi* 位" is a polite measure word in Chinese.	"*xiānsheng*先生" followed by the Chinese plural marker "*men* 们" can be used to address a group of men politely on formal public occasions.
18	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	How	Translation of the example	人	"*chūqù chīfàn zěnmeyàng*? 出去吃饭怎么样?" is given as the translation of "How would you like to eat out?", to illustrate the sense "when making a suggestion".	"*zěnmeyàn* 怎么样" is usually used to make a polite suggestion in Chinese.

Appendix 11: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Tuttle*

Pragmatic information in the microstructure of *Tuttle*							
No.	*Pinyin*	Chinese	Headword	Means	Status	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example indicates "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" is a way to apologise.	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" is a formulaic way to apologise in Chinese.
2	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Excuse	Translation of example	乂	The translation of an example indicates "*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" can be used to request.	"*duìbùqǐ* 对不起" is used to make a polite request. "*qǐng wèn* 请问" can be used in the same way.
3	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	Translation of example	乂	The translation of the example indicates "*kěnéng* 可能" can be used to indicate the likelihood for something to happen.	It is a way to distance the speaker from the proposition he expresses.
4	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/可以/能…吗/	Can	Translation equivalent/translation of example	乂	The translation of an example implies that "*kéyǐ…ma* 可以…吗" can be used to make a request.	"*kéyǐ ma* 可以吗" is used to make a polite request. Other forms can also be used
			May	Translation equivalent/translation of example	乂	The translation of an example implies that "*kéyǐ…ma* 可以…吗" can be used to make a request.	"*kéyǐ…ma* 可以…吗" is used to make a polite request. Other forms can also be used.
5	*méi（yǒu）wèntí*	没（有）问题	Problem	Translation of phrase/example	乂	The translation of an example shows that the translation of the phrase "no problem"—"*méi wèntí*没问题", can be replied to one's request.	"*méi wèntí*没问题" shows strong positive attitude of a speaker.
6	*nǐ néng/néng bu néng…*	你能/能不能…	Can	Translation of example	乂	The translation of the example shows "*nǐ néng*…你能…" can be used to make a request.	It is a polite structure to make a request. "*nǐ néng bu néng* 你能不能" can be used to perform the same function.
7	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	Hello	Translation of example	乂	The translation of the example shows the translation equivalent—"*nǐ hǎo* 你好" is used as a greeting.	It is a common greeting in Chinese. When faced with someone senior in age, status, etc. or on a formal occasion, "*nín hǎo* 您好" is used instead.
8	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	Name	Translation of example	乂	The translation of "What's you name?" into "*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*? 你叫什么名字?" shows that it can be used to ask a person's name.	This expression is usually used by adults to ask the name of a kid or people of the same age, status.
9	*qǐng*	请	Please	Translation equivalent/translation of examples	乂	The translation of two examples shows that "*qǐng*请" can be used to make a request.	"*qǐng*请" is a formulaic way of making a polite request.

10	*wèi*	喂	Hello	Bracketed explanation /translation of example	✓	The translation of the example illustrates that "*wèi* 喂" is used to greet someone on the phone.	"*wèi* 喂" can be used to greet people at other places as well.
11	*xiānshen g*	先生	Gentleman	Translation of example	✓	The translation of the example shows that "*xiānsheng*先生" plus the plural marker "*men* 们" can be used as an address for a group of men.	"*xiānsheng*先生" is used as a general polite address for man. "*xiānshengmen* 先生们" is a polite address for a group of men usually on formal occasions.
12	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Really	Translation of example	✓	The translation of the example implies that "*zhēn de ma*真的吗" can show a person's feeling.	"*zhēn de ma*真的吗" is used to show the speaker's surprise or disbelief.

Appendix 12: Pragmatic information in the microstructure of Concise

Pragmatic information in *Concise*							
No.	*Pinyin*	Chinese	Head-word	Means	Status	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	….*xiān sheng*	…先生	Mr.	Translation of example	⅄	The translation of one example shows a person's surname can precede "*xiānsheng*先生" as an address.	The surname of a man can be added to "*xiānsheng*先生" as a polite address on formal occasions.
2	*xiānsheng*	先生	Gentleman	Translation of example	⅄	Gentlemen is translated into "*xiānsheng men* 先生们" in the example, indicating it is used an address.	"*xiānsheng men* 先生们" is a polite address on formal public occasions.
			Sir.	Translation of example	⅄	Translation of an example shows it can be used as an address.	"*xiānsheng*先生" is a general polite address usually used on formal occasions.
3	…*xiáojiě*	… 小姐	Miss	Translation of example	⅄	The translation of "Miss" in examples show that it can be added before a person's surname as an address.	This is a polite address used on formal occasions, regardless of the addressee's marital status.

Appendix 13: Pragmatic information in the micro-structure of *Far East*

Pragmatic information in *Far East*							
No.	*Pinyin*	Chinese	Headwords	Means	Status	Pragmatic information provided	To be supplemented
1	*nín*	您	You	Translation equivalent/ bracketed explanation	⅄	"*nín* 您" is offered as an equivalent, supplemented with "respectful" in brackets after it.	"*nín* 您" is the polite second person pronoun usually used on formal occasions, or to people senior in age, status, etc.
2	*qǐng*	请	Please	Translation equivalent/ bracketed explanation	✓	"*qǐng* 请" is listed as the translation equivalent, supplemented with "request politely" to indicate it is used to make a polite request.	

Appendix 14: Pragmatic meaning relating to Chinese words beyond the 300 required of new HSK test-takers and their associated linguistic structures

Altogether 21 Chinese pragmatic points have been added, which are relevant to 18 Chinese words and their associated structures, to supplement the pragmatic meaning associated with top 300 words and the linguistic structures comprising them.

Pragmatic meaning relating to politeness

Three Chinese expressions with lexico-meaning relating to politeness in asking the age of senior people politely have been added, to supplement those comprising 300 words and their relevant linguistic structures. "*wèi* 位" is a Chinese measure word conveying politeness，while "*nín jǐ wèi* 您几位" is often used by people in service industry to be polite.

Depending on the age of the person addressed, different ways of asking one's age should be adopted. "*nín duō dà niánjì le?* 您多大年纪了?", "*nín duō dà suìshù le?* 您多大岁数了?", and "*nín gāo shòu?* 您高寿?" can all be translated as " how old are (polite) you". They are all used to ask a senior person of his/her age politely. (e.g. Zhang 2005: 64)

"*nín* 您" is the polite form of second person pronoun in Chinese. (see Chapter 3: 3.3.1) Then it can go with "*jǐwèi* 几位 several+polite measure word" and be used as a polite formula for a waiter or waitress to ask how many guests there are. (e.g. Li 2012: 41).

Pragmatic meaning relating to the speech acts of addressing others, greeting people, saying goodbye

11 of them are related to Chinese address forms. For words "*àiren* 爱人 loved person", "*tàitai* 太太", "*dàifu* 大夫", their synonyms like "*qīzi* 妻子 wife", "*zhàngfu* 丈夫 husband" and "*yīshēng* 医生" have been included in the top 300 words. Therefore, pragmatic meaning relating to them are included to make L2 Chinese learners have a better understanding of how to address one's spouse in front of others or a doctor in Chinese. Terms to address one's family members like "*nǎinai* 奶奶 grandmother" and "*yéye* 爷爷 grandfather" are incorporated, since they are used not just to address one's own grandparents, but as a polite address for those of his/her grandparents' age as well. "大哥" and "大姐" are added for similar reason. "*tóngzhì*同志 comrade" is a general polite address in Chinese. "司机" is a professional title, which can be misused as a polite address. "*bàibai* 拜拜 bye-bye" is introduced to supplement the ways to say goodbye, which is quite often used. "*huānyíng*欢迎" can be a misused expression upon meeting someone.

In introducing one's husband or wife to others, "*àiren* 爱人 loved person" can be used to address one's spouse in Chinese Mainland, while those overseas Chinese still prefer to address one's one's wife as "*tàitai* 太太" and one's husband as "*xiānsheng* 先生" (Chen Jianmin 1990: 20). "*nǎinai* 奶奶 grandmother" and "*yéye* 爷爷 grandfather" are used to address one's own grandparents. (e.g. Zhu 2004: 27) At the same time, they can also be adopted as quasi-relative terms to address non-kinfolks of the addresser's grandparent's age in Chinese culture politely (e.g.: Liu 2000: 60, Wen & Zhou 2006: 5) Their surnames can be added before the two address forms as well. "*dàgē*大哥 elder brother" and "*dàjiě* 大姐 elder sister", terms for addressing one's own eldest brother and sister (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 240, 242), can also be used to address those non-kinfolks politely. (e.g. Zhou 2001: 36; Wen & Song 2006: 5; *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 240, 242) The usage "*tóngzhì*同志 comrade" as a general address form expanded since the establishment of People Republic of China in 1949 and has been widely used for almost three decades. (Wang & Li 2005: 94). It has gradually fallen out of use and is confined to mainly within the Chinese Communist Party and on some formal occasions, mainly in written forms. (Yan 2004) Now it is used to hint at homosexuality (e.g.: Jun 2001: 270, Fang 2007: 31, Yuan 2014: 274). Therefore, caution should be paid while using it, since some people may take offence. Both "*yīshēng* 医生" and "*dàifu* 大夫" can be used to address a doctor in Chinese politely. (Cui 1996: 40; Liu 2003: 138) However, it should be noted that "*sījī*司机" can not be used as a direct address form to address a driver (Liu 1998: 77), since it is not considered a profession enjoying the same status as profession like teachers. (Yao 1995: 98; Cui 1996: 41) Another polite address form "*shīfù*师傅 master worker" should be added to show the respect to the addressee.

"*huānyíng*欢迎", which can be reduplicated, can be used as a formulaic expression to show one's hospitality. However, it is usually used on very formal or diplomatic rather than private occasions, like the meeting between friends (Zhang 2000: 52) lest it sounds too formal. "*bàibai* 拜拜 bye-bye" is a casual used by people of close relation to say goodbye. (Qu & Chen 2005: 26)

Pragmatic meaning relating to vagueness

The lexico-meaning relating to "*kǒngpà*恐怕" and "*tīngshuō* 听说" is introduced to strengthen pragmatic meaning relating to vagueness. Among the 300 Chinese words, only one word " *kěnéng* 可能"and its associated structure "*hěn kěnéng* 很可能 very possible" have been identified.

"*kǒngpà*恐怕" can be used as a sign to show that the speaker is guessing or predicting something. (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 743) In other words, it is used to make judgements about the probability of things. (Sheng 2008: 45, Liu 2011: 63) Meanwhile, it can also be adopted to denote the estimation mixed with worriedness (*Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* 2012: 743), which shows a speaker already has his or her opinion but adopts this expression to be polite. (*Xiandai Hanyu Xuci Lishi* 1996: 304; Sheng 2008: 45) According to *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian* (2012: 1298), "*tīngshuō* 听说" means "it is said that". A speaker attributes the source of something to hearsay, thus showing s/he is not so committed to the truthfulness of what is said.

Pragmatic meaning relating to attitude

"*bú shì dìfang* 不是地方" is a formulaic way easily misunderstood by L2 Chinese learners. "*bú shì dìfang* 不是地方" can be literally understood as "not be place". However, it is actually used to imply that the speaker thinks this is not a good or right place. (Zhang 1991: 47) Therefore, "*shì dìfang* 是地方" conveys exactly the opposite attitude.

Appendix 15: 95 pragmatic points integrated into the first-stage experimental E-C dictionary

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
1	*àiren/xiānshen/ zhàngfu*	爱人/先生/丈夫	Lover/Sir./husband	Husband	Referring to one's husband in introducing	Husband
2	*bà（ba）*	爸（爸）	Father	Dad	Address	Dad
3	*bàibai*	拜拜	Bye-bye	Bye-bye	Saying goodbye/formula	Bye-bye
4	*bú*	不	Not	Not	Attitude of reluctance	Not
5	*bù le*	不了	No+*particle*	No	Politeness/refusal	No
6	*bù zěnmeyàng*	不怎么样	No how about	Not so good	Attitude of contempt	Good
7	*bù zhīdào…*	不知道…	Not know	I wonder	Request/formula	Wonder
8	*…cóng nǎr lái de*	…从哪儿来的	…from where come+*particle*	Where have…got…	Attitude of suspicion	Where
9	*dà gē*	大哥	Elder brother	Elder brother	Politeness/address	Brother
10	*dà jiě*	大姐	Elder sister	Elder sister	Politeness/address	Sister
11	*dìdi*	弟弟	Younger brother	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger brother, but for talking about him	Brother
12	*duì, …*	对, …	Right. …	Right….	Agreement	Correct
13	*duì bu duì*	对不对	Correct not correct	Correct	Asking or providing confirmation	Do
14	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Sorry	Apology/formula	Sorry
15	*duìbùqǐ*	对不起	Sorry	Excuse me	Request/formula	Excuse
16	*duō*	多…	Much…	How…	Feeling	How/what
17	*…+ gē*	…哥	…brother	Buddy	Politeness/address	Brother
18	*guì xìng*	贵姓	honorific surname	May I have your name	Politeness in asking name/formula	Surname
19	*gē（ge）*	哥（哥）	Elder brother	Elder brother	Addressing one's edler brother	Brother
20	*háizi*	孩子	Child	Dear	Address/feeling	Child
21	*háizimen*	孩子们	Children	Dear	Address/feeling	Children
22	*hǎo*	好(的)	Good (*particle*)	Right	Agreement/formula	Ok (okay)
23	*… hǎo ma*?	…好吗	…good+*particle*	How be…?	Greeting/formula	How
24	*… hǎo ma/kěyǐ/ ma/kéyǐ/néng … ma*	…好吗/可以吗/ 可以/能…吗/	…Ok./good+*particle*/ Ok./can…*particle*	Can…?/Be…Ok.	Politeness/request	Mind
25	*jiào*	叫	Call	Order/require	Command	Ask/order/tell
26	…jiě	…姐	…elder sister	Given name	Politeness/address	Sister
27	*jiě（jie）*	姐（姐）	Elder sister	Elder sister	Addressing one's elder sister	Sister
28	*kànkan*	看看	Look look	Visit	Politeness in tenor	Visit
29	*kàn nǐ shuō de*	看你说的	Look you say+*particle*	What are you saying	Disagreement/formula	You
30	*kěnéng*	可能	Possible	Possible	Vagueness	Possible
31	*… kěyǐ/hǎo ma?*	…可以/好吗？	… Ok. /good +*particle*	How about…/Be…OK.	Politeness/suggestion	Can/May
32	*kǒngpà*	恐怕	Afraid	I'm afraid	Vagueness	Afraid
33	*… lǎoshī*	…老师	…teacher	Given name	Politeness/address	Teacher
34	*lǎoshī*	老师	Teacher	Given name	Politeness/address	Teacher
35	*mā（ma）*	妈（妈）	Mother	Mom	Addressing one's mother	Mom
36	*màn màn chī*	慢慢吃	Slow slow eat	Take your time in enjoying the food	Politeness in food manners/formula	Eat
37	*méiguānxi/shén me/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	You are welcome/do not mention it	Reply to thanks/formula	Matter/mind
38	*méi guānxi/ shénme/shì'r*	没关系/什么/事儿	No relation/what/thing	It is nothing/ no worries	Reply to Apology/formula	Matter/mind
39	*mèimei*	妹妹	Younger sister	Given name	Usually not used for addressing one's younger sister, but for	Sister

					talking about her	
40	*míngtiān jiàn*	明天见	Tomorrow see.	See you tomorrow	Saying goodbye/formula	Tomorrow
41	*…nǎinai*	…奶奶	…grandma	Given name	Politeness/address	Grandmother
42	*nǎinai*	奶奶	Grandma	Given name	Addressing one's grandmother	Grandmother
43	*nǎ'r ya*	哪儿呀	Where+*particle*	No	Showing disagreement	No
44	*nǎ'r lái de…*	哪儿来的…	Where come+*particle…*	How come…?	Refusal/attitude	Can
45	*nǐ néng/néng bu néng…*	能/能不能…	Can/can not can…	Can you…	Politeness/request	Can
46	*nǐ bù zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你不知道（吗/吧）	You not know (*particle/particle*)	Don't you know…	Targeting speaker's words, explaining or providing new information	Know
47	（*nǐ*） *chī le ma*	（你）吃了吗	(You) eat+*aspect marker+particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula	Eat
48	*nǐ duō dà le*	你多大了	You how big+*particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age	Age
49	*nǐ duóshǎo suì le*	你多少岁了	You several years+ *particle*	How old are you	Politeness in asking age	Age
50	*nǐ/nín hǎo*	你/您好	You/(polite) you good	Hello	Greeting/formula	Hello/you
51	*nǐ jǐ suì le*	你几岁了	You several years+*particle*	how old are you	Politeness in asking age	Age
52	*nǐ jiào shénme míngzi*	你叫什么名字	You call what name	What is your name	Politeness in asking names	Name
53	（*n ǐ*） *kàn nǐ*	（你）看你, …	(You) look you	Look	Showing criticism	Look
54	*nǐ máng ma*/*máng bù máng*	你忙吗/忙不忙	You busy+*particle*/ busy not busy	How are you	Greeting/formula	Busy
55	*nǐ máng* （*ba*）	你忙（吧）	You busy (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Busy
56	*nǐmen hǎo*	你们好	You good	Hello	Greeting/formula	Hello
57	*nǐ mǎi bù mǎi*	你买不买	You buy or not buy	Don't you want to buy	Attitude of impatience	Buy
58	*nǐ qù nǎli/ 'r a*	你去哪里/儿啊	You go where+*particle*	Hello	Greeting/formula	Where
59	nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng	你身体怎么样	Your body how about	How are you	Greeting/formula	Body/health
60	*nǐ xiān máng*	你先忙	You first busy	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Busy
61	*nǐ…zěnmeyàng*	你…怎么样	You…how about	How are you	Greeting/formula	How
62	（*nǐ*）*zhè…*	（你）这…	(You) this…	Excuse me,	Criticising	This
63	*nǐ zhīdào* (*ma*/*ba*)	你知道（吗/吧）	You know (*particle*/*particle*)	Don't you know	Drawing attention, seeking agreement	Know
64	*nǐ zhēn*/*hěn piàoliang*	你真/很漂亮	You really/very beautiful	You are really /so beautiful	Politeness in praising females for appearance	Beautiful
65	nín	您	(Polite) You	you	Politeness in addressing	You
66	*nín duō dà niánjì le*	您多大年纪了	You how big age	How old are you	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
67	*nín duō dà suìshù le*	您多大岁数了	You how big age	How old are you	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
68	*nín gāo shòu*	您高寿	You high life-span	How old are you	Politeness in asking age/formula	Age
69	*qǐngwèn*	请问	Please ask	Excuse me	Request/formula	Excuse
70	*…shénme… a*	…什么…啊	…what…*particle*	What is the point of	Attitude of disagreement	What
71	*shénme shíhou … le*	什么时候…了	What time…*aspect marker*	How can I do…	Politeness in refusal	Time
72	*shì bu shì*	是不是	Be not be	Right	Affirming, drawing attention, and being polite	Do
73	*shì…háishì…*	是…还是…	Be…or…	…or…	Politeness in offering	Or
74	*shì ma*	是吗	Be+*particle*	Really	Surprise	Be
75	*sījī…*	司机…	Driver	Sir.	Politeness/address	Driver
76	*tīngshuō*	听说	Hear say	It is said that	Vagueness	Say
77	*wǎnshang hǎo*	晚上好	Evening good	Good evening	Greeting/formula	Good evening
78	*wèi*	位	Measure word	Measure word	Politeness	You
79	*wèi*	喂	Hello	Hello	Greeting/formula	Hello

80	*wǒ juédé/kàn/xiǎng*	我觉得/看/想…	I feel/look/think	I think	Vagueness	Think
81	*nǐhǎo, xiàwǔ hǎo*	下午好	Afternoon good	Good afternoon	Greeting/formula	Good afternoon
82	*….xiānsheng*	…先生	… gentleman	Mr.	Politeness/address	Mr.
83	*xiānsheng*	先生	Sir.	Sir.	Politeness/address	Gentleman/ /mister/Sir.
84	*…xiáojiě*	… 小姐	…Miss	Miss…	Politeness/address	Miss
85	*xiáojiě*	小姐	Miss	Miss	Politeness/address	Miss/prostitute
86	*xiǎo péngyou*	小朋友	Little friend	Dear	Feeling/address	Friend
87	*xièxie…*	谢谢…	Thank	Thanks	Giving thanks/formula	Thank
88	*… yéye*	…爷爷	…Grandfather	Given name	Politeness/address	Grandfather
89	*yéye*	爷爷	Grandfather	Given name	Addressing one's grandfather	Grandfather
90	*yígè huài dōngxi*	一个坏东西	A bad thing	A bad person	Dislike	Person
91	*zàijiàn*	再见	Again see	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Goodbye
92	*zǎo, zǎoshang hǎo*	早, 早上好	Morning, morning good	Good morning	Greeting/formula	Good morning
93	*…zěnmeyàng*	…怎么样	…how about	How about…	Politeness/suggestion	How
94	zhēn	真	Real	Very/really	Emphasis	How/really
95	*zhēn de ma*	真的吗	Real+*particle+particle*	Really	Surprise	Really

Appendix 16: 43 pragmatic points added into the second-stage experimental E-C dictionary

No.	Pinyin Transcription	Chinese Expressions	Literal translation	Free translation	Pragmatic meaning	Headword
1	*àiren/qīzi/tàitai*	爱人/妻子/太太	Lover/wife/wife	Wife	Referring to one's wife in introducing	Wife
2	*bié…*	别…	Not	Do not	Advising/forbidding	Do
3	*bié shì*	别是	Not be	It is possible that…	Surprise	Possible
4	*bú kèqì//yòng xiè*	不客气/用谢	No polite/need thank	You are welcome	Reply to thanks/formula	Welcome
5	(*bú*) *shì dìfang*	（不）是地方	(not) be place	(not) be the right place	Attitude of agreement/disagreement	Be
6	*bú sòng le*	不送了	No see off+*particle*	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	See
7	*bú yào*	不要…	Not want…	Do not	Advising/forbidding	Do
8	*dà … de*	大…的	Big…*particle*	So…	Attitude of disagreement	Night/so
9	*dàifu/yīshēng*	大夫/医生	Doctor	Dr.	Politeness/address	Doctor
10	*děi*	得	Have to	Have to	Order	Have/must
11	*duì le, ….*	对了	Correct+*particle*	By the way	Switching topic	Correct
12	*érzi*	儿子	Son	Given name	Not used for addressing one's son	Son
13	*fúwùyuán*	服务员	Waiter; waitress	Sir./Ms.	Politeness/address	Waiter/waitress
14	*hěn kěnéng*	很可能	Very possible	Highly possible	Vagueness	Must
15	*huānyíng*, （*huānyíng*）	欢迎,（欢迎）	Welcome, welcome	Welcome	Politeness/formula	Welcome
16	*huì shuōhuà*	会说话	Can speak	Pay lip-service	Satirical attitude	Speak
17	*jiù*	就	Exactly	Exactly	Emphasis	Exactly
18	*jiù*	就	Already (+verbal structure)	So (fast, early,...)	Surprise	Arrive
19	*màn zǒu* (*a*)	慢走（啊）	Slow walk (+*particle*)	Goodbye	Saying goodbye/formula	Slowly
20	*méi*（*yǒu*）*wèntí*	没（有）问题	Not (have) problem	No problem	Replying to a request/formula	Problem
21	*nǐ hái bié shuō*	你还别说	You still not say	You are right	Showing agreement	Well
22	（*nǐ*）*zěnme le*	（你）怎么了	(You) how+ *particle*	What is up/wrong	Surprise	Matter
23	*nín jǐwèi*	您几位	(Polite) you several+measure word	How many of you	Politeness/formula	You
24	*qǐng*	请	Please	Please	Politeness in request	Please
25	*qǐng*	请	Please	After you/help yourself	Politeness/formula	Help/after
26	*shì*	是	Be	Yes	Agreement/confirmation	Be
27	*shì*	是	Be	Exactly	Emphasis	Be/certainly
28	*shì*	是	Be	Even if…be…	Attitude of concession	Be/indeed
29	*...shì...wèntí*	…是…问题	…be…problem	…be something…	Criticising	Something
30	*…tóngxué*	…同学	Classmate…	Hi	Politeness/address	Classmate
31	*tóngxué*	同学	Classmate	Hi	Politeness/address	Classmate
32	*tóngxué men*	同学们	Classmates	Everyone	Politeness/address	Classmate
33	*tóngzhì*	同志	Comrade	Sir.	Politeness/address	Comrade
34	*wèntí shì…*	问题是…	Problem is	The problem is	Criticising	Problem
35	*wǒ de yìsi shì*	我的意思是	My meaning is	I mean	Supplementing, correcting, or emphasizing one's words	
36	*wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe*	我说什么来着	I say what come+progressive marker	I said so	Showing criticism	Say
37	*wǒ shuō zěnme/ne*	我说怎么/呢	I say why/*particle*	I see	Polite reply to others' answer/explanation	See

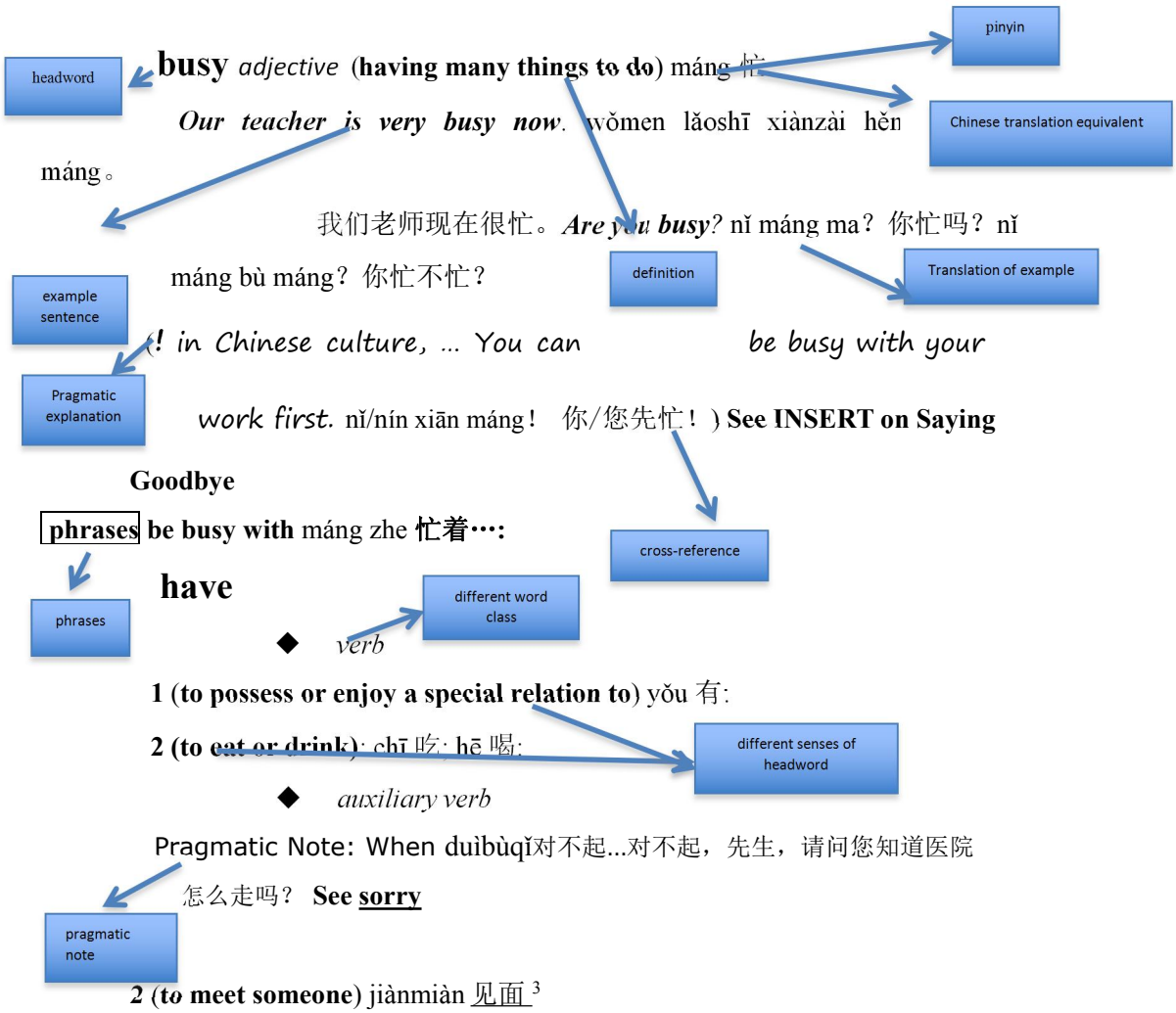
38	（*wǒ*）*xīwàng*…	（我）希望…	(I) hope…	I hope	Criticising	Hope
39	*xiǎo*…	小…	Little…	Little…	Feeling	Little
40	*xiǎo yìsi*	小意思	Little value	A token of our gratitude	Politeness in presenting a gift/formula	Token
41	（*zài*） …zhe …*ne*	（在）…着…呢	(At)…*progressive marker*…*particle*	Be+verb+ing	Politeness in replying to others	Eat
42	*zài…kàn lái*	在…看来	At…see come	In … view	Vagueness	View
43	*zhème shuō*	这么说	So speak	So	Assuming/concluding	So

Appendix 17：The second-stage E-C experimental dictionary

Pragmatically Enriched Sample English-Chinese Entries for Beginners in Chinese

By Anmin Wang

Structure of Entries



busy *adjective* (**having many things to do**) máng 忙

Our teacher is very busy now. wǒmen lǎoshī xiànzài hěn máng。

我们老师现在很忙。***Are you busy***? nǐ máng ma？你忙吗？nǐ máng bù máng？你忙不忙？

(! in Chinese culture, ... You can be busy with your work first. nǐ/nín xiān máng！ 你/您先忙！) **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

phrases be busy with máng zhe **忙着…:**

have

◆ *verb*

1 (**to possess or enjoy a special relation to**) yǒu 有;

2 (**to eat or drink**): chī 吃; hē 喝;

◆ *auxiliary verb*

Pragmatic Note: When duìbùqǐ对不起...对不起，先生，请问您知道医院怎么走吗？ **See sorry**

2 (**to meet someone**) jiànmiàn 见面 [3]

This underlined word with a superscript indicates that it is beyond the 300 words required by level 1 and 2 of the Chinese Proficiency Test. The number indicates the level at which such a word appears.

The Inventory of Pragmatic Information in the Sample Dictionary Entries

Languages are adopted by people to achieve various goals. To do this, languages should be used not only correctly, but also appropriately. Chinese, a language distinct from English, has its own pragmatic strategies and conventions. You should know what these strategies or conventions are. Since 1980s, lexicographers have been trying to integrate pragmatic studies systematically into learners' dictionaries. Based on research on pragmatic information of Chinese, in the sample entries below, the following types of pragmatic information is included:

Attitudes and feelings: Some words or expressions may show the speaker's attitudes and feelings, like approval or disapproval of something.

Emphasis: Some words or expressions can be used to emphasize the speaker's view, like be shì是.

Vagueness: Some words or expressions can be used to show the speaker's certainty or uncertainty about something or making suggestions, like think xiǎng 想；*informal* kàn 看.

Speech acts: Languages are used to perform acts. Certain commonly used acts, like apology, criticism, greeting, giving and receiving thanks, refusal, request, responses to compliments, and various common expressions to realize them are included as inserts. Individual entries concerning certain acts are provided as well.

Chinese politeness is built in its linguistic structures. Therefore, it is important to know whether is polite to express yourself in a certain way.

For your benefits, Chinese pragmatic expressions formulaic in nature are marked out. Those only show a speaker's commitment to the truthfulness of a position is labelled with pragmatic markers.

Such pragmatic information is provided through equivalents, pragmatic labels, pragmatic explanations in brackets, examples, the translation of such examples, pragmatic notes and so on within individual entries. There are also several dedicated pragmatic pages inserted following the alphabetical order in the appendix. Cross-reference is established between the pragmatic information in relevant entries, inserts and the like. We believe such information can help you improve pragmatic knowledge and better your pragmatic competence of Chinese.

afraid *adjective*

1 (**full of fear**) hàipà害怕[3] :

I'm afraid of doctors. wǒ hàipà yīshēng。我害怕医生。

2 (**sorry for something has happened or is likely to happen**) 恐怕:

I'm afraid I can't buy. wǒ kǒngpà bú néng mǎi。我恐怕不能买。kǒngpà wǒ bú néng mǎi。恐怕我不能买。[When the subject of the main clause is the first-person singular pronoun, it is usually phonetically silent and the subject of the the embedded clause can be shifted to the main one.] ***I'm afraid he has left.*** **Vagueness** kǒngpà tā yǐjīng zǒu le。恐怕他已经走了。(! kǒngpà恐怕 can be used as a device to show the speaker's uncertainty.) ***I'm afraid this doesn't work.*** **Vagueness** **Polite** zhège kǒngpà búxíng ba！这个恐怕不行吧！ (! kǒngpà恐怕 in this case shows that the speaker already has his or her view but says in this way so as not to sound too direct: This doesn't work. zhège búxíng。这个不行。)

after

◆ *preposition* (zài) …yǐhòu （在）…以后:

After several days, she told me that she saw my friend. jǐ tiān yǐhòu， tā gàosu wǒ tā kànjiàn le wǒ de péngyou。几天以后，她告诉我她看见了我的朋友。

◆ *conjuntion* …yǐhòu …以后:

After my younger brother gets up everyday, he always goes to swim. měitiān qǐchuáng yǐhòu， wǒ dìdi dōu yào qù yóuyǒng。 每天起床以后，我弟弟都要去游泳。

phrase **After you**！ **Polite** qǐng！ 请！(! qǐng 请 is used when you tell others politely to carry out the implied action, which is usually clarified by the context. For example, it can be used to tell someone to go in front of you or go into a certain place. **See help, please**

age *noun* (**the period of time a person has lived**) suì岁, niánlíng 年龄[4]:

What is your age？ nǐ duóshǎo suì le? 你多少岁了？ nín gāo shòu? **Polite** 您高寿？ nín duō dà niánjì le? **Polite** 您多大年纪了？ nín duō dà suìshù le? **Polite** 您多大岁数了？ nǐ duō dà le? 你多大了？ nǐ jǐ suì le? 你几岁了？

Pragmatic Note: In China, unlike many western countries, asking a person his or her age is not a forbidden topic. However, under the influence of the western culture, the situation has also been changing gradually. In cities, educated people tend to avoid asking the age of ladies.

If foreign learners of Chinese want to learn about the age of the other party, depending on the age of him or her, they should adopt different words or expressions, which incorporate elements of politeness. Age consideration rather than that of power or social status determines what kind of expression they will use.

Expressions of Asking Age	Description of Age Difference of Communicators
nín gāo shòu? 您高寿?	Junior in age to senior in age.
nín duō dà niánjì le? 您多大年纪了?	Junior in age to senior in age
nín duō dà suìshù le? 您多大岁数了?	Junior in age to senior in age
nǐ duóshǎo suì le? 你多少岁了?	adult people of similar age
nǐ duō dà le? 你多大了?	Senior in age to junior in age, usually young adults/adult people of similar age
nǐ jǐ suì le? 你几岁了?	Older people to a kid

arrive *verb* (**to reach a place**) dào 到:

He arrived yesterday. tā zuótiān dào de。他昨天到的。/ **Feeling** tā zuótiān jiù dào le。他昨天就到了。

(! The first Chinese translation of the example is a statement of fact. However, in the second one, where jiù 就 is used to comment on the hearer's or other people's actions, the speaker usually conveys surprise or unexpectedness.)

ask *verb*

1 (to speak to someone in order to get information) wèn 问:

He asked my name. tā wèn le wǒ de míngzì。 他问了我的名字。// ***I ask my son if he will go or not***. wǒ wèn wǒ érzi qù bu qù。我问我儿子去不去。

2 (to request) ràng 让; jiào 叫; yào 要:

Ask him to come to meet me after supper. ràng tā wǎnfàn hòu lái jiàn wǒ。让他晚饭后来见我。// ***Ask him to buy some apples.*** jiào tā mǎi xiē píngguǒ。叫他买些苹果。// ***He asks me to go to school right now***. tā yào wǒ xiànzài qù xuéxiào。他要我现在去学校。**See order**

(3) (**to invite**) qǐng 请:

ask mom to a restaurant qǐng māma qù fànguǎn chī fàn。 请妈妈去饭馆吃饭。**See invite**

B

be *verb*

(to be) shì是:

His son is a waiter. tā érzi shì fúwùyuán。他儿子是服务员。

(! shì 是, and the modal particle ma 吗 which English doesn't have an equivalent, can combine to indicate something not expected by the hearer, thus displaying various feeling, such as disbelief, surprise, doubts. **See INSERT on ma 吗, INSERT on giving and**

receiving thanks)

Feeling (*! to indicate disbelief*) A: '***I will take a plane to visit you tomorrow***. wǒ míngtiān zuò fēijī qù kàn nǐ。我明天坐飞机去看你。'—B: '***Is that so? What time?*** shì ma？ shénme shíhou？ 是吗？什么时候？'

Feeling (*! to indicate surprise*) A: '***I am ready***. wǒ zhǔnbèi hǎole. 我准备好了。'—B: '***Are you? You're so fast***. shì ma？ nǐ tài kuài le！ 是吗？你太快了！'

Attitude (*! The* shì是 *in the following sentence indicates concession in the meaning. As the example shows, usually a negative transition will introduce the idea that contradicts what is expressed in the first clause.*)

The book is good, but I don't like it. zhè běn shū shì hǎo， dàn wǒ bù xǐhuan tā。 这本书是好，但我不喜欢它。

Emphasis (*! When* shì是 *is read in the following example, stress is given to it. In this case, it is used to emphasize the information the speaker intends to convey. In the following example,* tā 他 *rather than the fact that he didn't come to school is stressed by the speaker.*)

Is it he who didn't come to school yesterday? shì tā zuótiān méi lái xuéxiào ma？ 是他昨天没来学校吗？

Feeling (*!* shì是 *can be put before nouns to indicate the speaker implies the action is appropriate or inappropriate, depending on the meaning of the sentence.*)

A: '***I put the book on the table***. wǒ bǎ shū fàng dào le zhuōzi shàng。我把书放到了桌子上。'

—B: '***It is (not) in the right place***. shū fàng de (bú) shì dìfang。书放的(不)是地方。'

beautiful *adjective* (**very attactive**) piàoliang 漂亮:

a beautiful dog yì zhī piàoliang de gǒu 一只漂亮的狗 // ***Your daughter is very beautiful***. nǐ nǚ'ér hěn piàoliang。你女儿很漂亮。

(*! In China,* piàoliang 漂亮 *can be used to modify a thing or person, usually a female. However, a male stranger's praising a woman directly for her appearance is considered inappropriate and offensive. For example, 'You are very beautiful!* nǐ zhēn piàoliang！ 你真漂亮*!' Usually the one being praised may question the motive of the speaker.*)

body *noun* (**the whole physical structure of a man or animal**) shēntǐ 身体:

<*Greeting*> **Formula** A: '***How is your body (i.e. how are you)***? nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng？你身体怎么样？'—B: '***Just so-so. And you***? hái xíng ba！nǐ ne？还行吧！你呢？' **See health, how**

(! (1) In Chinese culture, it is very common for people to ask each other about their health as a way of greeting. The typical response could be: 'not so bad, hái kěyǐ还可以', 'not bad hái xíng ba还行[4]吧', 'Just so-so yībān (bān) 一般（般）[3]', jiù nàyàng ba 就那样吧'. (2) This enquiry and its various replies serve similar phatic function to that of the English greeting 'How are you?' and its formulaic reply: 'fine'. Communicating in this way is more in accordance with the Chinese culture. The reply to the enquiry can also be the truthful reflection of one's health status. (3) At the same time, shēntǐ 身体 can also be used when one is going to say goodbye: Take care of your body (i.e. yourself). bǎozhòng（shēntǐ）！保重(身体)！or Pay attention to your body (i.e. take good care of your health.) zhùyì shēntǐ！注意身体！. The typical response could be: I'll do. You too. hǎo de，nǐ yě yíyàng！好的，你也一样！) **See Topics**

brother *noun* (**a person who has the same parents as you**) xiōngdì兄弟:

He has six brothers and sisters. tā yǒu liùge xiōngdì jiěmèi. 他有六个兄弟姐妹。// ***elder brother*** <*Address*> gēge 哥哥, gē 哥 // ***He has four elder brothers.*** tā yǒu sìge gēge。他有四个哥哥。(! In the face-to-face communication, people also address their elder brother by gē 哥.) // ***Eldest brother, where did you put that book***? <*Address*> dàgē，nǐ bǎ nàben shū fàng dào nǎr le？大哥，你把那本书放到哪儿了？// ***Eldest brother (i.e. Buddy), can you help me?*** <*Address*> **Polite** dàgē，nǐ néng bāng wǒ yíxià ma？大哥，你能帮我一下吗？(! dà gē 大哥 can be used as a polite address for a male slightly older than oneself or about one's own age.) **See sister**

(! Putting a person's surname before gē 哥 to address someone who is slightly older oneself or about the same age as oneself indicates intimate relationship.) ***Elder brother Li, I am glad that you can come***. <*Address*> **Polite** lǐ gē，(wǒ) hěn gāoxìng nǐ néng lái。李哥，(我)很高兴你能来。// **younger brother** dì 弟， dìdi 弟弟 (! These two address terms are usually not used by older siblings to address the younger ones, since this way of addressing goes against

the maxim of self-denigration in China. The older siblings will often address the younger ones with the pet names given by their parents.)

busy *adjective* (**having many things to do**) máng 忙:

Our teacher is very busy now. wǒmen lǎoshī xiànzài hěn máng。我们老师现在很忙。// ***Are you busy?*** <*Greeting*> **Formula** nǐ máng ma？你忙吗？/ nǐ máng bù máng？你忙不忙？

(! In Chinese culture, when you ask another person nǐ máng ma？你忙吗？ or nǐ máng bù máng？你忙不忙, it mainly serves a phatic function. The general answer to this question can be positive or negative: 'very busy hěn máng 很忙', 'not so busy bú tài máng 不太忙' , 'not busy bù máng 不忙'. Besides, people may also often say: 'not so busy. hái kěyǐ ba！还可以吧！ hái xíng ba！还行[3]吧！' **See body, health, Topics, INSERT on Greeting** (2) máng 忙 can also be used to say goodbye to people. Typical expressions can be: You can be busy with your work. nǐ/nín máng ba！ 你/您忙(吧)！ or You can be busy with your work first. nǐ/nín xiān máng！ 你/您先忙！) **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

phrases **be busy with** máng zhe… 忙着…:

be busy with work máng zhe shàngbān 忙着上班

be busy doing something máng zhe（zuò） …忙着（做）…:

be busy preparing for examinations máng zhe zhǔnbèi kǎoshì 忙着准备考试

buy *verb* (**to get something by paying money for it**) mǎi 买:

to buy a book mǎi yīběn shū 买一本书 // ***Do you want to buy?*** nǐ mǎi ma？你买吗？ **Attitude** nǐ mǎi bú mǎi？你买不买？(! For sellers, nǐ mǎi bú mǎi 你买不买 is an impolite way to ask if someone wants to buy something or not. This shows the speaker's impatience, irritation, etc.)

bye also **bye-bye** *interjection informal* **(goodbye)** **Formula** bàibai 拜（拜）**See goodbye, tomorrow, INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

C

can *verb*

1 (**to be possible**) néng 能:

He can come here. tā néng lái zhèli. 他能来这里。// ***Can you help these children***? <*Request*> **Polite**

nǐ néng bāng (yíxià) zhèxiē háizi ma？你能帮（一下）这些孩子吗？/ nǐ néng bu néng bāng (yíxià) zhèxiē háizi？你能不能帮（一下）这些孩子？**See INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

(*! The two Chinese expressions，'néng 能' and 'néng bu néng 能不能', seem to focus on the hearer's capability of doing something. However, while used in the two Chinese sentences above, they are actually two polite requests. 'néng bu néng 能不能' implies a more polite request. The reason is that it seems to gives the hearer more freedom to make a choice.*) // ***I am very busy at the moment. How come I can have time to play with you ?*** wǒ xiànzài hěn máng, zěnme néng yǒu shíjiān hé nǐ yīqǐ wán (=nǎr lái de shíjiān hé nǐ wán)？ 我现在很忙，怎么能有时间和你一起玩（=哪儿来的时间和你玩）？ (*! <Refusa>l* **Attitude** nǎr lái de...哪儿来（的）... *is a rhetorical question to indicate it is impossible for the speaker to have the thing mentioned. It is an impolite refusal to others' request.*) **See INSERT on Request, where**

2 (to have the knowledge of how to do something) néng 能, huì会:

I (can) speak Chinese. wǒ huì jiǎng hànyǔ。我会讲汉语。[No matter can is used in English or not, when you say you can speak a language in Chinese, huì 会 is essential.] **See speak**

3 (to be allowed) kéyǐ可以:

A: '***Can I go back home***? *<Request>* **Polite** wǒ kéyǐ huíjiā le ma？我可以回家了吗？'—B: '***Not now. You can go back tomorrow morning***. xiàn zài bù néng。nǐ míngtiān zǎoshang kéyǐ huíjiā。现在不能。你明天早上可以回家。'[The negative form of 'kéyǐ可以' is usually 'bù néng 不能' rather than 'bù kéyǐ 不可以'.]

certainly *adverb* (**used for emphasizing that something is definitely true or will definitely happen**) yídìng 一定:

I will certainly return your pictorial tomorrow. wǒ míngtiān yídìng huán nǐ huàbào. 我明天一定还你画报。// ***He certainly went to work yesterday***. tā zuótiān shì qù shàngbān le。他昨天是去上班了。(*! This stressed usage of 'shì是', as the above example shows, is to confirm and clear up the hearer's suspicion.*) **See be, indeed**

child *noun* (**a young person from the time they were born to the time before they are 14**) háizi 孩子:

He has only one child. tā zhíyǒu yíge háizi。他只有一个孩子。

(*! 'háizi 孩子' can be used by an older person to address his own children or those who he holds dear.*) ***Child (i.e. dear), you need to study hard !*** *<Address>* **Feeling** háizi，nǐ yào

hǎohǎo xuéxí！ 孩子，你要好好学习！ **See children**

children *noun* (**the plural form of child**) háizi 孩子：

Several Children are playing together. jǐ gè háizi zài yìqǐ wán。几个孩子在一起玩。

(! In addressing a group of children by an older person, 'háizi' plus Chinese plural marker 'men 们'can be used to convey affection or endearment.) // <*Address*> **Feeling**

Children (i.e. dear), are you happy? háizimen, nǐmen gāoxìng ma? 孩子们，你们高兴吗？ **See child**

classmate *noun* (**a person studying in your class**) tóngxué 同学:

I have four classmates here. wǒ zài zhèlǐ yǒu sìwèi tóngxué。我在这里有四位同学。// ***My elder brother and he are classmates***. wǒ gēge hé tā shì tóngxué。我哥哥和他是同学。

(! The full name can be put before tóngxué 同学 as a polite address for a student by someone like a teacher.) ***Classmate Ding Yun (i.e. Ding Yun), can you answer this question?*** <*Address*> **Polite** dīngyún tóngxué, nǐ kěyǐ huídá zhège wèntí ma？丁云同学，你可以回答这个问题吗？

(! The plural marker men 们 can be used after tóngxué 同学 to address a group of students.) A: ***'Good morning, Teacher Zhang (i.e. Mr. Zhang).'*** 'zhāng lǎoshī, zǎoshàng hǎo! ' '张老师，早上好！' —B：***'Good morning, classamtes (i.e. everyone).'*** <*Address*> **polite** 'tóngxuémen, zǎoshàng hǎo！' '同学们，早上好！'

(! On the campus or elsewhere, tóngxué 同学 can be used to address a student you don't know or whom you consider to be a student before asking for help, information and so on.) ***Classmate (i.e. hi), can you tell me how to get out of the school***? <*Address*> **polite** tóngxué， nǐ zhīdào chū xuéxiào de lù ma？ 同学，你知道出学校的路吗？

comrade *noun* (**a fellow member of a union, political party, etc. esp. used as a title in Communist countries**): tóngzhì同志：

Comrade, (i.e. Sir), do you want have tea? <*Address*> **Polite** tóngzhì，nǐ hē chá ma? 同志，你喝茶吗？

Pragmatic note: tóngzhì同志 was originally used as an address form among Chinese Communist Party members. After the founding of P.R.C in 1949, its usage extended and has been used as a general polite address form in China for a long

time. Since about middle and late 1990s, it was no longer an address form as popular as before. Meanwhile, it has got the connotations of somebody being a gay.

correct *adjective* (**right according to facts or rules**) *informal* duì 对，zhèngquè正确:

I think you are correct. wǒ juédé nǐ shì duì de。我觉得你是对的。// A: '***Can I do in this way?*** wǒ kěyǐ zhèyàng zuò ma？我可以这样做吗？'—B: '***Correct (i.e. right), just do like this.*** duì，jiù zhèyàng zuò。对，就这样做。' (! duì 对 in this example doesn't imply factual correctness. It is an expression for showing agreement.)

creature *noun* (**a human being**) rén 人:

My teacher is such a dear creature. wǒ de lǎoshī shì （yí）ge fēicháng kěài de rén。我的老师是（一）个非常可爱的人。// ***Poor little creature***! **Feeling** kělián de xiǎo dōngxi！ 可怜的小东西！(! 'dōngxi 东西' shows a speaker's affection in this example.) **See person, thing, something**

D

dad *noun* (**your father**) bàba 爸爸, bà 爸:

Dad, I'm going to school. <*Address*> Bà (ba)，wǒ qù xuéxiào le。爸（爸），我去学校了。(! To address one's dad, bà 爸 is often used as well. There are different dialectal words for this term of address.) **see mom**

do *verb*

1 (**to perform an action, activity or job**) zuò 做:

What job does your younger brother do? nǐ dìd zuò shénme gōngzuò？你弟弟做什么工作？

2 (**in formulating questions, negatives**):

When did he come? tā shénme shíhou lái de？ 他什么时候来的？// ***Do you feel hot***? nǐ juéde rè ma？ 你觉得热吗？// ***I didn't go to work***. wǒ méi qù shàngbān。我没去上班。

A: '***Do you want to come with us to the shop***? nǐ xiǎng hé wǒmen yìqǐ qù nà jiā shāngdiàn ma？你想和我们一起去那家商店吗？'—B: '***No, I don't***. bù，wǒ bú qù le。不，我不去了。'

3 (**in imperatives**):

Don't tell your elder brother that I came. bié gàosu nǐ gēge wǒ lái le。 别告诉你哥哥我来了。(! 'bié 别' is used in Chinese to give advice or forbid others to do something.) // ***Don't come to school on Sunday.*** xīngqīān búyào lái xuéxiào。 星期天不要来学校。(! 'búyào 不要' conveys a similar tone of advising or forbidding somebody to do something.)

4 (in short answers):

A: '***Did you buy clothes***? nǐ mǎi yīfu le ma？你买衣服了吗？'—B: '***Yes, I do.*** (duì， wǒ) mǎi le。（对，我）买了。'

A: '***Don't you feel happy?*** nǐ juéde bú kuàilè ma？你觉得不快乐吗 '—B: '***Yes, I do.*** bú，（wǒ juéde）kuàilè。不，（我觉得）快乐。'

A：'***Who asked that question*?** nàge wèntí shì shuí wèn de？那个问题是谁问的？'—B: '***I did.***' wǒ wèn de。我问的。' [It should be noted that in English, 'do' is used to refer to the previous action to avoid repetition. However, in Chinese, a verb is usually repeated in the answers.]

5 (in tag questions) **Pragmatic marker**:

(! *These tag questions are usually put into* duì bu duì 对不对 *or* shì bu shì是不是 *in Chinese, which both can serve different pragmatic functions. The affirmative answer to it is* duì 对 *or* shì (a) 是(啊). *The negative reply is* bù不 *or* bú (duì/ shì)不(对/是))

(! *to ask for confirmation when speakers lack authority*) ***He likes travelling, doesn't he?*** tā xǐhuan lǚyóu，duì bu duì？他喜欢旅游，对不对？

(! *to provide confirmation when speakers have authority*) (Teacher talking to students)***We learned this lesson, didn't we? And this one as well.*** wǒmen xué le zhè yíkè， duì bu duì？ háiyǒu zhè yíkè！我们学了这一课，对不对？还有这一课！

(! *to ask for confirmation from the hearer*) ***You don't know that teacher, do you?*** nǐ bú rènshí nàge lǎoshī，shì bu shì？ 你不认识那个老师，是不是？

(! *to be used as a politeness strategy, showing the face needs of the addressee are taken into consideration*) ***You can do a lot of things now, right, such as singing, watching TV.*** nǐxiànzài kéyǐ zuò hěnduō shqíng，shì bu shì，chànggē，kàn diànshì… 你现在可以做很多事情，是不是， 唱歌，看电视…

(! *to affirm the information before* shì bu shì 是不是) ***I do running for a long time every day, right? A very long time.*** wǒ měitiān pǎo hěncháng shíjiān，shì bu shì？hěncháng shíjiān。 我每天跑很长时间，是不是，很长时间。

(! *to make the addressee focus on the new information after* shì bu shì 是不是) ***I have good health, don't I? I can go to work.*** wǒ shēntǐ bú cuò，shì bu shì，kéyǐ shàngbān le。 我身体不错，是不是啊，可以上班了。

doctor *noun* **(a person who treats sick people)** yīsheng 医生， dàifu 大夫 [4]:

His mother is a doctor. tā māma shì yíwèi yīshēng。他妈妈是一位医生。

(!yīsheng 医生 is usually used as a form of address in the face-to-face communication. As an oral form of it, dàifu 大夫 is also used, which is one of the few professional titles implying politeness. **See teacher**) ***Excuse me, doctor, do you work this afternoon?*** <*Address*> **Polite** dàifú, qǐngwèn jīntiān xiàwǔ nín shàngbān ma？ 大夫，请问今天下午您上班吗？

driver *noun* (**a person who drives**) sījī 司机[3]:

He is a driver. tā shì yīge sījī。他是一个司机。 // ***Driver (i.e. Sir), do you know where the hospital is?*** <*Address*> **Polite** sījī shīfù，nín zhīdào yīyuàn zài nǎr ma？司机师傅[4]，您知道医院在哪儿吗？（sījī 司机 can not be used as an address form in Chinese. People usually add 'master worker shīfù 师傅' to it to convey politeness.）

E

eat *verb* (**to put food into your mouth and swallow it**) chī吃:

eat an egg/apple chī jīdàn/píngguǒ 吃鸡蛋/苹果 // (a telephone conversation) A: '***Hello, Wáng Dōng, what are you doing ?*** ' 'wèi，wáng dōng， nǐ zài gān shénme？'喂，王东，你在干什么？'—B: '***I am eating something right now***. '' 'wǒ (zài) chī zhe dōngxi ne！' '我（在）吃着东西呢！'（! The zhe 着 in the answer, an aspect marker in Chinese indicating an action is going on, makes the answer more polite. Suppose this word and the final modal particle" ne 呢" are omitted, the answer would appear rather impolite. It may make the speaker feel that s/he is not welcome at all. However, with the present answer, even without "ne 呢", the sentence still sounds polite. Based on the context, it may imply to the speaker different meanings, possibly requesting him to speak out what he wants to immediately. The final modal particle ne 呢 also helps to make this answer indirect as well as polite. Suppose someone asks the question of "What are you doing?", you may answer the question in the pattern below: wǒ (zài)+verb+ zhe…ne!我(在)+verb+着…呢! **See be**, the following **Pragmatic Note**）

Eat slowly (i.e. take your time in eating). **Polite** màn màn chī。慢慢吃。(! This is an expression that Chinese frequently use in entertaining guests. It doesn't ask you to be slow in eating. On the contrary, it is a way to ask you to enjoy your food to your heart's content.)

Pragmatic Note: (1) In Chinese culture, it is quite common for one to greet acquaitances

by asking him or her around the meal time: Eg. A: ('Have you had your lunch/dinner? chī le ma/méiyou？吃了吗/没有？' B: 'I have. And you? chī le， nǐ ne？吃了，你呢？'. Usually this is not used for greeting around breakfast time. (2) This is not an invitation for a meal, which foreigners not infrequently take it to be. Rather, it serves the phatic function in China, very much similar to English daily greetings like 'Good morning/afternoon/evening/day' or 'how are you'. But this way of greeting appears a bit old-fashioned and is becoming less frequent, especially in cities. Nowadays, it is OK for people to greet each other in other ways like 'Good morning/afternoon/evening/day! zǎoshang / xiàwǔ / wǎnshang hǎo/ nǐ hǎo！早上/下午/晚上好/你好！'(3) When you pay a visit to a Chinese family and the time draws near to the lunch or dinner time, you plan to take leave. The host or hostess may often say 'Please stay for lunch/dinner. yìqǐ chī fàn ba！一起吃饭吧！'or 'please leave after dinner! chī le fàn zài zǒu ba！吃了饭再走吧！' In most cases, this is just a kind of formality or he or she is only standing on ceremony, which implies that the host does not really want you to treat you to food. If you take his or her words seriously and stay to dine together with them, you would most probably put them in a difficult situation. The typical response could be a negation, which is 'No, next time. bù le. xiàci ba. 不了。下次吧。' **See no** Of course, this has nothing to do with the sincerity of the host or the hostess. This is just part of Chinese culture.

exactly *adverb* (**used for emphasizing that you are referring to one particular thing but not other things**) quèqiè de 确切地:

(! jiù 就 *is used in the following sentences to give emphasis.*) ***His home is exactly over there.*** tā jiā jiù zài nàlǐ。他家就在那里。// ***What he wants is exactly this.*** tā xiǎng yào de jiù shì zhège。 他想要的就是这个。**See arrive, indeed**

excuse *verb* (**to forgive someone for something**) yuánliàng 原谅:

Phrase **excuse me**

1 (when apologizing) Formula duìbùqǐ对不起:

Excuse me, I drank your coffee. duìbùqǐ, wǒ hē le nǐ de kāfēi. 对不起，我喝了你的咖啡。//

Excuse me, I heard it wrongly. duìbùqǐ，wǒ tīng cuò le。对不起，我听错了。

2 (When politely asking others to do something for you) Formula duìbùqǐ对不起:

(! *when you want others to make way for you politely*) ***Excuse me!*** (duìbùqǐ，) qǐng ràng yíxià/rang。（对不起，）请让一下/让。 **See please, INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）** // ***Excuse me, can you give me a cup of tea?*** duìbùqǐ， kéyǐ gěi wǒ yìbēi chá ma？对不起，可以给我一杯茶吗？

3 (When asking others for information) Formula duìbùqǐ对不起, qǐngwèn 请问 (! qǐngwèn 请问 *is*

often used before putting forth a polite request for information.):

Excuse me, Sir, do you know where the shop is? xiānsheng， qǐngwèn， nín zhīdào shāngdiàn zài nǎli ma？先生，请问，您知道商店在哪里吗？// ***Excuse me, can you tell me where to buy eggs?*** duìbùqǐ，néng gàosu wǒ nǎli mǎi jīdàn ma？对不起，能告诉我哪里买鸡蛋吗？

Pragmatic Note: When duìbùqǐ对不起 is used before one asks others for information, it serves similar function like qǐngwèn 请问. One can use duìbùqǐ对不起 and qǐnwèn 请问 together, which serve the same function as duìbùqǐ 对不起 or qǐngwèn 请问 on their own. The only difference is that the combination makes the expression even more polite. Eg.: Excuse me, sir, do you know how to get to the hospital? duìbùqǐ， xiānsheng， qǐngwèn nǐn zhīdào yīyuàn zěnme zǒu ma？对不起，先生，请问您知道医院怎么走吗？ **See after, please, sorry**

F

friend *noun* (**someone who you know well and like who is not your family member**) péngyou 朋友:

My younger brother has a lot of friends. wǒ dìdi yǒu hěn duō péngyou。我弟弟有很多朋友。// ***Good morning, little friend (i.e. dear)!*** *<Address>* **Feeling** zǎoshang hǎo， xiǎo péngyou！早上好，小朋友！

(!xiǎo péngyou 小朋友 is an affectionate address used by adults to address a child.) **See child, children, creature, something, thing**

G

gentleman n (**a polite term used to refer to man**) xiānsheng 先生:

I saw a gentleman come into our school this morning. wǒ kàndào yīwèi xiānshēng jīntiān zǎoshàng zǒu jìn le wǒmen xuéxiào。我看到一位先生今天早上走进了我们学校。**See Miss, mister, Mr., prostitute, sir**

good *adjective*

1 (of high quality or standard) hǎo 好:

We have a good teacher. wǒmen yǒu yíwèi hǎo lǎoshī。我们有一位好老师。(! wèi 位 is a polite measure word in Chinese.)// ***not good*** bù hǎo 不好 // ***not very good*** bú tài hǎo 不太好 // ***not so good*** *informal* **Attitude** bù zěnmeyàng 不怎么样

(! This expression shows the speaker doesn't think too much of something and may convey contempt) A: '***What do you think of the new clothes?*** nǐ juéde xīn yīfu zěnmeyàng？你觉得新衣服怎么样?'—B: '***Not so good.*** bù zěnmeyàng。不怎么样。'

2 (**enjoying good health**):

He looks good. tā kàn shàngqù shēntǐ hěn hǎo！他看上去身体很好！

3 (showing one's gratitude):

It is good of you to help me. xièxiè nǐ （bāngzhù wǒ）。谢谢你（帮助我）。**See thank**

goodbye *noun* (also *exclamation*) **Formula** zàijiàn 再见

See bye, tomorrow, INSERT on Saying Goodbye

good afternoon *exclamation*

1 (when meeting another person) xiàwǔ hǎo *formal* **Formula** 下午好；**Formula** nǐ hǎo 你好

2 (when leaving) **Formula** zàijiàn 再见

good evening *exclamation*

1 (when meeting another person) *formal* **Formula** wǎnshang hǎo 晚上好；**Formula** nǐ hǎo 你好

good morning *exclamation*

1 (when meeting another person) *informal* **Formula** zǎo a 早（啊），*formal* **Formula** zǎoshang hǎo 早上好；**Formula** nǐ hǎo 你好

2 (when leaving) **Formula** zàijiàn 再见

grandfather *noun* **(the father of one's father)** yéye 爷爷[3]; **(the father of one's mother)** wàigōng 外公:

His grandfather is a teacher. tā yéye/wàigōng shì lǎoshī。他爷爷是老师。// ***Grandfather Wang, good morning.*** 〈*Address*〉 **Polite** Wáng yéye，zǎoshang hǎo！王爷爷，早上好！(! yéye 爷爷 and wàigōng 外公 can be used as address forms to greet one's paternal grandfather and maternal grandfather respectively. Meanwhile, in face-to-face communication, yé爷 is often used to address one's paternal grandfather as well. It should be noted that yéye 爷爷 as an address form can be extended beyond one's family to address a person of about one's grandpa's age politely. In this case, the surname of that person can also go before yéye 爷爷 to make a polite address. **See grandmother**)

grandmother *noun* 1 **(the mother of one's father)** nǎinai 奶奶; **(the mother of one's mother)** 外婆:

My grandmother is 70. wǒ nǎinai qīshi suì le。我奶奶七十岁了。// ***Grandmother, do you know where my book is?*** 〈*Address*〉 nǎi（nai ），nǐ zhīdào wǒ de shū zài nǎr ma？奶（奶），你知道我的书在哪儿吗？

(! It should be noted that nǎinai 奶奶 as an address form can be extended beyond one's family to address a person of about one's grandma's age politely. In this case, the

surname of that person can also go before nǎinai 奶奶 to make a polite address. **See grandfather**) A: '***Good morning, grandmother Liu. Where are you going?*** 〈*Address*〉 **Polite** liú nǎinai, zǎoshàng hǎo! nǐ qù nǎr a? 刘奶奶，早上好！你去哪儿啊？'—B: '***I'm going to the shopping mall.*** wǒ qù yíxià shāngchǎng。我去一下商场。'

H

have

◆ *verb*

1 (**to possess or enjoy a special relation to**) yǒu 有:

They have two children, one daughter and one son. tāmen yǒu liǎngge háizi， yíge nǚ'ér， yíge érzi。他们有两个孩子, 一个女儿，一个儿子。// ***We don't have a new cup at home***. wǒmen jiā méiyǒu xīn bēizi。我们家没有新杯子。

2 (to eat or drink): chī 吃; hē 喝:

We had rice yesterday. wǒmen zuótiān chī le mǐfàn。我们昨天吃了米饭。// ***Do you want to have tea***? nǐ xiǎng hē chá ma？你想喝茶吗？

◆ *Auxiliary verb*:

You have been to the school, haven't you? nǐmen yǐjīng qù guò xuéxiào le，shìba？ 你们已经去过学校了，是吧？

Phrase **to have to (must)** děi <spoken> 得:

(! When děi 得 is used with the second person pronoun, this is the same as you are giving an order or command to the addressee.) ***You have to tell him right now***. nǐ děi xiànzài jiù gàosu tā。你得现在就告诉他。// ***We have to study hard***. wǒmen děi hǎohǎo xuéxí！我们得好好学习！

health *noun* (**the condition of your body, especially whether you are sick or not**) jiànkāng 健康 [3], shēntǐ 身体:

Jane is in very good health. jiǎn shēntǐ hěn hǎo！简身体很好！//<*Greeting*> **Formula** A: '***How is your health?*** nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng？你身体怎么样？'—B: '***Just so-so.*** hái kěyǐ ba！还可以吧！' **See body, how, Topics**

hello *exclamation*

1 (**used when greeting someone**) **Formula** nǐ/nín hǎo 你/您好 **See you**, nǐmen hǎo 你们好:

(a conversation between a teacher and a student)

A: '***Hello, teacher Wang (i.e. Mr. Wang!)*** wáng lǎoshī，nín hǎo！王老师，您好！ '—B: '***Hello, Wang Ling***! wánglíng， nǐhǎo！王玲，你好！' **See teacher**

2 (**used when greeting someone at a distance or on the street**) **Formula** wèi 喂:

A: ***'Hello, Wang Ling. Where are you heading now?*** wèi，wáng líng。shàng nǎr qù ya？喂，王玲。上

哪儿去呀？’—B: ***‘I'm going out.*** wǒ chūqù yíxià。我出去一下。**See eat, hey, where, INSERT on Greeting, INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

help

◆ *verb* **(to give support or information to someone so that they can do things more easily)** bāngzhù 帮助，bāngmáng 帮忙:

He helps his mom every day. tā měitiān dōu bāngzhù māma。他每天都帮助妈妈。// ***She wants to help me***. tā xiǎng gěi wǒ bāngmáng。她想给我帮忙。

Phrase **to help oneself (used for permitting someone to do something or use something.)** **Polite Formula** qǐng 请: (! qǐng 请 is often used to ask someone politely to perform the implied action. Usually contexts will help clarify what the action is. For example, at dinner table, this expression is used to politely ask those being addressed to help themselves.) **See after, eat, please**

◆ *noun* **(the process of helping someone, or something that you do to help someone)** bāngzhù 帮助:

The teacher gave his son a lot of help. nà wèi lǎoshī gěi le tā érzi hěn duō de bāngzhù。那位老师给了他儿子很多的帮助。

hey *exclamation* **See hello**

hope

◆ *verb* **(to want or expect something to happen or be true)** xīwàng 希望:

I hope it doesn't rain at noon. wǒ xīwàng zhōngwǔ bú xià yǔ。我希望中午不下雨。// ***I hope that you have prepared better than now***. <*Criticizing*> wǒ xīwàng nǐmen zhǔnbèi dé bǐ xiànzài hǎo yì xiē。我希望你们准备得比现在好一些。(! In Chinese culture, in criticizing a person, the face of the other party is often considered. Instead of criticizing directly, the person may use xī wàng 希望 in the sentence pattern above to convey an indirect criticism.) **See INSERT on Criticism**

◆ *noun* **(the feeling or belief that something you expect to happen is likely to happen)** xīwàng 希望:

Our hope is placed on kids. wǒmen de xīwàng fàng zài háizi shēn shàng。我们的希望放在孩子身上。

how *adverb*

1 (in what way) zěnme 怎么, zěnyàng 怎样:

How did you cook rice? nǐ shì zěnme zuò mǐfàn de？你是怎么做米饭的？// ***Excuse me, can you tell me how I go to the train station?*** duìbùqǐ，nǐ néng gàosu wǒ zěnyàng qù huǒchēzhàn ma？对不起， 你能告

诉我怎样去火车站吗？

2 (in polite questions):

How is your child? nǐ de háizi hǎo ma？你的孩子好吗？// ***How is your mother's health?*** nǐ māma shēntǐ hǎo ma? 你妈妈身体好吗？// ***How are you ?*** **Formula** nǐ hǎo ma？你好吗？/ nǐ zěnmeyàng？ 你怎么样？(! zěnmeyàng 怎么样 *is a form of greeting to enquire about the well-being of the other party.*) **See body, health, Topics**

Pragmatic Note: Though nǐ hǎo ma？你好吗？is included in textbooks for foreign learners of Chinese as a way for Chinese to enquire about the well-being of the other party, it is only used among acquaintances or those who already know each other. When they talk, they tend to ask questions concerning the current state of the other party at the moment of communication.

Eg.1: A: 'Where are you going? nǐ qù nǎli/r a？你去哪里/儿啊？'

B:'I'm going out. chū qu yí xià！出去一下！' **See INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）** Eg.2: A: 'Do you go out to buy something? nǐqù mǎi dōngxi ma？你去买东西吗？'

B: 'Yeah, I do. duì，wǒ qù mǎi xiē dōngxi。对，我去买些东西。'

To foreign Chinese learners, questions like this may sound like probing into their privacy. Besides, on the surface, the dialogues like them reveal no information, since the hearer doesn't give any specific information about his or her destination, or the speaker is asking something too obvious. However, exchanges like them serve important phatic function and help to maintain the personal relationship in China. **See INSERT on Greeting, Topics**

3 (in questions for specific information):

How old are you? nǐ duóshǎo suì le？你多少岁了？(! *This expression is usually used for adult people about the same age to learn about the other party's age.*) **See age, TOPICS** //

How tall is your younger brother? nǐ dìdi yǒu duō gāo？你弟弟有多高？

4 (when suggesting something):

How would you like to have rice today? jīntiān chī mǐfàn zěnmeyàng？今天吃米饭怎么样？(! …zěnmeyàng …怎么样 *is usually used to make a polite suggestion.*) **See INSERT on Suggestions**

5 (when emphasizing a fact or quality):

How happy they are! tāmen zhēn gāoxìng a！他们真高兴啊！(! *When used as a modifer,* zhēn 真 *can show strong personal feelings of the speaker. When used before words with complimentary meaning, it shows the speaker's like. When used before words with*

derogatory meaning, it shows the speaker's dislike.)

(! When duō 多 is used to to modify adjectives or verbs to emphasize a fact or a quality, speakers usually have implied purposes or intentions, such as suggesting, persuading, explaining, blaming, satirizing, depending on the context.)

How good the shopping mall is! It is so convenient to buy things. zhège shāngchǎng duō hǎo a， mǎi dōngxī duō fāngbiàn！这个商场多好啊，买东西多方便！(! Making a suggestion that you should purchase stuff in this place.) // ***How bad it is to behave like that?*** nàyàng zuò duó bù hǎo a！那样做多不好啊！(! Implying the blame of an action.)

Phrase **How about**…? **(used for suggesting a possible choice)** …zěnmeyàng? …怎么样？

How about having tea together? yìqǐ hē chá zěnmeyàng？一起喝茶怎么样？ **See INSERT on Suggestions**

husband *noun* (**the man a woman is married to**) <*Address*> àiren 爱人, xiānsheng先生:

This is my husband! zhè shì wǒ àiren/xiānsheng！这是我爱人/先生！ (! In face-to-face communication, usually àiren 爱人 is used as an address form to refer to one's spouse, which is very commonly used in Chinese mainland. Nowadays some people also adopt xiānsheng 先生. In Hongkong, Macau, Chinese Taiwan, etc., women tend to use xiānsheng 先生 to refer to their husband, because the word àiren 爱人 carries negative connotations there: it refers to or implies a person's lover.) **See wife**

I

indeed *adverb* (**used for emphasizing something is true**) quèshí 确实:

He indeed didn't come yesterday. tā zuótiān shì méi lái。 他昨天是没来。// A: '***You didn't finish your homework, did you***? nǐ de zuòyè méi zuò wán，shì ba'你的作业没做完，是吧？'—B: '***No, I indeed didn't. (So what?)*** duì，wǒ shì méi zuò wán。(nà yòu zěnmeyàng) 对，我是没做完。(那又怎么样？)' (! When uttered, shì 是 in this usage is usually stressed, which indicates a strong affirmation. This contrasts with the sentence without such an adverb: 'No, I didn't. duì, wǒ de zuòyè méi zuò wán。对，我的作业没做完。', which simply states a plain fact.) **See be, certainly, exactly**

invite *verb* (**ask someone to something**) qǐng 请:

invite a friend to your home qǐng péngyǒu qù nǐ jiā请朋友去你家 **See ask**

K

kid *noun* (**a child or young adult**) háizi 孩子 **See child, children, friend**

know *verb* (**to have the knowledge of**) zhīdào 知道，huì会:

Do you know where that teacher lives? nǐ zhīdào nàge lǎoshī zhù nǎli ma？你知道那个老师住哪里吗？

// ***He knows how to cook rice.*** tā huì zuò mǐfàn。他会做米饭。

Pragmatic marker (!nǐ zhīdào 你知道, and its variants like nǐ zhīdào ma/ba 你知道吗/吧, sometimes don't have specific meaning. They are usually used to remind hearers to pay attention to certain part of the speaker's words or draw their attention to them. They are also used to seek the agreement from the hearer.)

(! drawing the hearer's atttention) ***I was ready to swim, you know. It rained***. wǒ zhǔnbèi qù yóuyǒng de shíhòu, nǐ zhīdào, xiàyǔ le. 我准备去游泳的时候，你知道，下雨了。

(! Reminding the hearer to pay attention to something) ***Do you know that it is 11 o'clock in the evening? It is time for rest!*** xiànzài wǎnshàng shíyī diǎn le, nǐ zhīdào ma, xiànzài shì xiūxí shíjiān！现在都晚上十一点了，你知道吗，现在是休息时间！

(! Seeking agreement from the hearer) ***Do you know that I was sitting there at that moment?*** nǐ zhīdào ma, wǒ dāngshí zhèngzài nàlǐ zuò zhe ne！你知道吗，我当时正在那里坐着呢！

Don't you know he can swim? nǐ bù zhīdào tā huì yóuyǒng ma? 你不知道他会游泳吗？

Pragmatic marker (!Like nǐ zhīdào 你知道, sometimes nǐ bù zhīdào 你不知道 doesn't have actual meaning, which has variants like nǐ bù zhīdào ma/ba 你不知道吗/吧. They can be used to perform several pragmatic functions.)

(! Used at the beginning of the second speaker's utterance to make the other party aware that the reply is addressing his question) A: '***Has milk been bought***? ' niúnǎi mǎi le ma? 牛奶买了吗？'—B: '***I have bought it, don't you know***? nǐ bù zhīdào ba? wǒ yǐjīng bǎ niúnǎi mǎi lái le。你不知道吧？我已经把牛奶买来了。'

(! Used in the middle of a person's utterance to remind the other party that the part after nǐ bù zhīdào 你不知道 is just the explanation of the part before it) ***I am very busy, you know. I am busy like this each passing day!*** wǒ hěn máng. nǐ bù zhīdào ba, wǒ měitiān dōu zhèyàng máng!

我很忙，你不知道吧，我每天都这样忙！

(! used in the middle of an utterance to show the infomration after it is new, or to point out that hearer's idea, view or behaviors are wrong) ***We went to a shop, you know. We also bought a lot of clothes.*** 我们去了商店。你不知道吧，我们还买了好多衣服呢！

L

let *verb*

(**allow something to happen or somebody to to something**) ràng 让:

The teacher lets me go back home on Wednesday. nàwèi lǎoshī ràng wǒ xīngqīsān huíjiā。 那位老师让我星期三回家。// ***My younger sister wouldn't let mom go for work***. wǒ mèimei bú ràng māma qù shàngbān。 我妹妹不让妈妈去上班。

Phrases **let's**… (**used when making suggestions**):

Let's buy some books. wǒmen mǎi xiē shū ba！我们买些书吧！ wǒmen hē xiē kāfēi ba！// ***Let's have some coffee***. 我们喝些咖啡吧！**INSERT on Making Suggestions**

let in (**allow someone to enter building, etc.**) ràng… jìnqù 让…进去:

He didn't let me in. tā méi ràng wǒ jìnqù。 他没让我进去。

let into (a building, etc.) (allow someone to enter…**)** ràng…jìn…让…进…

He wouldn't let me into the school. tā bú ràng wǒ jìn xuéxiào。他不让我进学校。

little

◆ *adjective*

1(**in quantity**) shǎo 少:

Our money is very little. wǒmen de qián hěn shǎo. 我们的钱很少。

2 (**in size, age**) xiǎo 小:

There is a little watermelon at home. jiālǐ yǒu ge xiǎo xīguā. 家里有个小西瓜。

(! xiǎo 小 can be used as a prefix before a person's surname in Chinese to express endearment. Usually the addresser is senior in age, or higher in rank or social status than the addressee. However, addressers can also make exceptions to follow the existing naming practice in the group. This way of addressing is very common in Chinese mainland.) // ***Little Wang (i.e. Wang), how are you?*** <*Address*> **Feeling** xiǎo wáng，nǐ shēntǐ hǎo ma？小王，你身体好吗？**See child, children, friend**

◆ *pronoun* (**a small amount**) yìdiǎn（r） 一点(儿):

I want to have a little. wǒ xiǎng chī yìdiǎn（r）. 我想吃一点（儿）。

Phrases **a little bit** yìxiē 一些, yìdiǎnr 一点（儿）:

I have a little bit time. wǒ yǒu yìxiē shíjiān。 我有一些时间。// A: '***More tea***? hái hē chá ma？还喝茶吗？'—B '***Thanks, a little bit.*** xièxiè，yìdiǎnr。谢谢，一点（儿）。'

look

◆ *verb*

1 (to direct your eyes toward someone or something) kàn 看:

look at this book kàn zhèběn shū看这本书

2 (used when you want someone to look at something or to pay attention to what you are going to say)

Look, your mom is there! kàn, nǐ māma zài nàr. 看，你妈妈在那儿。// ***Look what you have done!***

Pragmatic marker (nǐ) kàn nǐ，nǐ zuò le shénme？（你）看你，你做了什么？// **Look, how come you are sitting here**? nǐ kàn nǐ，zěnme néng zuò zài zhèr ne？（你）看你，怎么能坐在这儿呢？ (! (nǐ) kàn nǐ (你)看你 is an indicator that the speaker is going to utter something negative about the hearer or to criticize.)

◆ *noun* kàn 看:

He wants to have a look. tā xiǎng kàn (yí) kàn。他想看（一）看。

M

matter

◆ *noun* (**used for talking about problems or bad situations**) máfán 麻烦[4]:

Is there something the matter? yǒu shénme máfán ma？有什么麻烦吗？// ***What's the matter with you?***

Feeling nǐ zěnme le？你怎么了？(! nǐ zěnme le 你怎么了 usually conveys the surprise on the part of the speaker upon finding the hearer in an unusual situation, like s/he shows sign of pain, anxiety and so on.)

◆ *verb* (**to be important**) yǒu guānxì有关系:

It doesn't matter. **Formula** méi guānxi 没关系, méi shénme 没什么.

A: '***Sorry***. duìbùqǐ。对不起。'—B: '***It doesn't matter***. méi guānxi / shénme。没关系/什么。

(! méi guānxi 没关系 and méi shénme 没什么 are typical responses to another person's apology. At the same time, these two expressions can also be used to respond to another person's thanks.) **See INSERT on Apology, INSERT on Giving and Receiving Thanks**

may *verb*

1 (When talking about a possibility) Vagueness kěnéng 可能:

I may have been wrong this morning. jīntiān zǎoshàng wǒ kěnéng cuò le。 今天早上我可能错了。// ***Mom may have gone shopping***. māma kěnéng qù mǎi dōngxi le。妈妈可能去买东西了。

2 (when asking for or giving permission) kéyǐ 可以:

May I go to buy some apples? wǒ kéyǐ qù mǎi xiē píngguǒ ma？我可以去买些苹果吗？ (! This is a polite request to do something. **See INSERT on Request** // ***You may look at your watch right now.*** nǐ xiànzài kéyǐ kàn biǎo。 你现在可以看表。// ***You may not watch TV now.*** nǐ xiànzài bùnéng kàn diànshì。你现在不能看电视。(! bùnéng 不能 instead of bù kéyǐ不可以 makes a direct refusal of a request.)

mean *verb* **(to have a particular meaning)** shì…de yìsi 是…的意思:

What does it mean ? tā shì shénme yìsi ？它是什么意思？

Phrase **I mean 1 (used for adding a comment, or explaining what you have just said)** Pragmatic marker wǒ de yìsi shì我的意思是 (!wǒ de yìsi shì我的意思是 can be used to supplement, explain or correct information.):

I mean, he is a good student. wǒ de yìsi shì， tā shì yíge hǎo xuéshēng. 我的意思是，他是一个好学生。// ***I said I went to school. I mean, I only went there in the morning***. wǒ shuō guò wǒ qù le xuéxiào。wǒ de yìsi shì，wǒ zhǐshì zǎoshang qù guò。我说过我去了学校。我的意思是，我只是早上去过。

(! used for correcting information) ***He told me that his mother cooked some rice. I mean, he may have said this***. tā gàosu wǒ tā māma zuò le xiē mǐfàn。wǒ de yìsi shì，tā kěnéng shuō guò zhèxiē！他告诉我他妈妈做了些米饭。我的意思是，他可能说过这些！

(! used to emphasize) ***Please come in. I mean, 'come in', not 'sit down'.*** qǐng jìn！ wǒ de yìsi shì 'qǐng jìn'，bú shì 'qǐng zuò'。请进！我的意思是 '请进'，不是 '请坐'。

mind *verb* **(to feel upset or unhappy about something)** fǎnduì反对[4]:

Phrases **Would you mind… (used for asking for something politely)** <*Request*> …kěyǐ ma 可以吗，…hǎo ma 好吗:

Would you mind washing these fruits? xǐ yíxià zhèxiē shuíguǒ，hǎo ma？洗一下这些水果，好吗？**See INSERT on Request, INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

never mind (used for telling someone not to be upset about something, because you think it is unimportant) Formula méiguānxi / shénme 没关系/什么

A: '***Sorry, there are no planes now***. duìbùqǐ，xiànzài méi fēijī le。对不起，现在没飞机了。'

—B: '***Never mind. We can take a plane tomorrow***. méiguānxi/shénme， wǒmen kéyǐ zuò míngtiān de fēijī。没关系/什么，我们可以坐明天的飞机。' **See matter**

Miss *noun* **1 Miss (a title used in front of one's surname or whole name of a girl or an unmarried woman)** <*Address*> **Polite** …xiáojiě …小姐:

Miss Wang, this way please. wáng xiáojiě，zhè biān qǐng！王小姐，这边请！

2 (used for talking to a girl or young woman whose name you don't know) <*Address*> **Polite** xiáojiě 小姐:

Excuse me, Miss, do you know where to take taxi? xiáojiě， qǐngwèn nín zhīdào zài nǎl zuò chūzūchē ma？小姐，您知道在哪里坐出租车吗？(! xiáojiě 小姐 can be used with surnames or full names to convey politeness in China. Normally it isn't used with given names in Chinese. Meanwhile, it is widely used as a respectful and polite title for a young woman on its own, regardless of her marital status. However, it needs to be noted that，possibly around 1990s, this word has taken on negative connotations of prostitution. Thus addressers need to heed that some of the addressees may take offence at this address.) **See mister, Mr., sir.**

mister *noun* **(a title for a man you don't know)** <*Address*> **Polite** xiānsheng 先生:

Mister, do you know the way to the train station? xiānshēng, nín zhīdào qù huǒchēzhàn zěnme zǒu? 先生，您知道去火车站怎么走？ **See miss , Mr., sir.,**

Mom *noun* **(your mother)** māma 妈妈, mā 妈

Mom, do you feel cold? māma, nǐ lěng ma? <*Address*> 妈（妈），你冷吗？(To address one's mom, mā 妈 is often used as well. There are different dialectual words for this term of address.) **See dad**

Mr. *noun* **(a title used before a man's name)** <*Address*> **Polite** …xiānsheng …先生:

Mr. Wang, when do you come to work? wáng xiānsheng，nǐ shénme shíhou lái shàngbān ne？ 王先生，你什么时候来上班呢？ **See miss, mister, sir.**

must *verb*

1 (when indicating obligation) děi 得:

You must arrive there in the morning. nǐ děi zǎoshang dào nàlǐ。 你得早上到那里。(! When děi 得 is used with the second person pronoun, this is the same as you are giving an order or command to the addressee.) **See have**

2 (***when indicating necessity***) děi 得; yào 要:

He must eat somehing after getting up in the morning. tā zǎoshang qǐchuáng hòu děi chī dōngxi。他早上起床后得吃东西。// ***You must be careful***. nǐ yídìng yào xiǎoxīn。你一定要小心。

3 (**when assuming something is true**) **Vagueness** hěn kěnéng 很可能:

They must have returned home. tāmen hěn kěnéng huíjiā le。他们很可能回家了。

N

name *noun* (**a word or set of words used to refer to a person or thing**) míngzi 名字:

A: '***What's your name***? nǐ jiào shénme míngzi？你叫什么名字？'—B: '***My name is Wang Dong.*** wǒ jiào wáng dōng。我叫王东。'

(! (1)This is a usual way to ask the name of another person in China. Usually the addresser is senior to or about the same age or social status as the addressee. Suppose the addressee is senior in age or social status, or the situation is very formal, a more polite way of asking is usually adopted. **See surname** (2) It should be pointed out that Chinese names, different from English ones, put surname in the front position. Besides, middle names are optional in China. Even if some names have middle names, the middle ones alone do not make an appropriate addressing form in China. (3) Chinese surnames are non-kin public address forms, and can be used by others outside one's family. Middle names plus given names and given names are kin familial address forms.)

night *noun* (**evening**) wǎnshang 晚上:

a night yíge wǎnshang一个晚上 // ***He came to see me one night***. yìtiān wǎnshang tā lái kàn wǒ. 一天晚上他来看我。

Phrases **at night** wǎnshang 晚上:

He works at night. tā wǎnshang gōngzuò. 他晚上工作。// ***What on earth are you doing at this late night (i.e. at this late time)***? **Attitude** dà wǎnshang de，nǐ zài gān shénme ya？ 大晚上的，你在干什么呀[4]？(! dà … de 大…的 is a structure to show displeasure, irritation, and so on) **See so**

no

◆ *adverb*

1 (**in negative answer to a question**) bù 不:

A: '***Do you want to come to Beijing?*** nǐ xiǎng lái Běijīng ma？你想来北京吗？'—B: '***No, I don't***. bù，wǒ bù xiǎng。不，我不想。'

A: '***Is he a student***? tā shì xuéshēng ma? 他是学生吗？'—B: '***No, he is a teacher.*** nǎr ya，tā shì lǎoshī。哪儿呀，他是老师。'(! nǎr a 哪儿呀 is used to indicate disagreement.).

A:'***How about having tea at my home?***' lái wǒ jiā hē chá ba？来我家喝茶吧？—B: '***No, no. How about next week?*** bù le, bù le, xià xīngqī ba！不了，不了，下星期吧！') (! when somebody wants to refuse an invitation in Chinese, instead of saying 'bù 不', one tends to add 'le 了' to make the tone of refusal not sound so flat and more polite. See INSERT on le 了)

2 (**in answering a negative question**) shì de 是的, duì对:

A: '***Don't you go to school?*** nǐ bú qù xuéxiào ma？你不去学校吗？'—B: '***No, I don't***. duì，wǒ bú qù。对，我不去。'

◆ *determiner* (**not any**) méiyǒu 没有:

We have no computers. wǒmen méiyǒu diànnǎo。我们没有电脑。// ***There are no taxies***. méiyǒu chūzūchē。没有出租车。

not *adverb*

(**used for giving a negative meaning to a sentence, expression, or word**) bù不；méi 没：

She is not beautiful. tā bú piàoliàng。 她不漂亮。// ***I don't have a Chinese book.*** wǒ méiyǒu hànyǔ shū。我没有汉语书。// ***He didn't come***. tā méi lái。他没来。// ***Why didn't you go to school?*** nǐ wèishénme bú qù xuéxiào？你为什么不去学校？

(! When bù不 is used to negate an action, different from méi 没, the bù 不 structure displays a certain implicature, whereas the méi 没 sturcture doesn't convey such an implicature.)

Attitude ***He wouldn't go***. tā búqù。他不去。(! The speaker thinks he purposely didn't want to go.)

Attitude ***Why didn't you answer my question***? wèishénme nǐ bù huídá wǒ de wèntí? 为什么你不回答我的问题？ (! The speaker thinks you should answer the question or you don't intend to answer it.)

Phrase **not at all (used as a polite response to thanks)** **Formula** bú kèqì不客气:

A: '***Thank you !*** xièxiè nǐ! '谢谢你！'—B: '***Not at all***. bú kèqì。不客气。' **See INSERT on Giving and Receiving Thanks**

O

okay, (also **OK**)

◆ *adjective*

(**when asking or giving one's opinions**) kéyǐ 可以:

Is it OK for me not to work? wǒ bù gōngzuò kéyǐ ma？我不工作可以吗？// ***It is OK for you to learn Chinese today***. jīntiān nǐ kéyǐ xué hànyǔ。 今天你可以学汉语。

◆ *adverb*

(**indicating agreement**) **Formula** hǎo 好:

A: '***Can we have food in a restaurant?*** wǒmen kéyǐ zài fànguǎn chīfàn ma？我们可以在饭馆吃饭吗？'—B: '***OK***. hǎo。好。'

or *conjuntion*

(**When offering alternatives**) shì…háishì (是…)还是:

(! Generally speaking, when the addressee is senior in rank or age, the speaker may adopt the structure: shì…háishì是…还是, which shows the latter's respect by offering the former choice, thus more polite.)

Would you like tea or coffee? nǐ shì hē chá háishì kāfēi？你想喝茶还是咖啡？// ***Dad, you would you like to eat fish or mutton?*** bà，nǐ shì xiǎng chī yú (ne)，háishì xiǎng chī yángròu (ne)？ 爸，你是想吃鱼(呢)，还是想吃羊肉(呢)？

order *verb* (**to command**) jiào 叫:

A: '***Who asked you to go there?*** shuí jiào nǐ qù de？谁叫你去的？'—B: '***It is he who orders me to go there.*** shì tā jiào wǒ qù de。是他叫我去的。' (! As a spoken usage, jiào 叫 has strong pragmatic force. It is often used in the senior-to-junior context, in terms of age or rank. It is inappropriate for juniors to use this word towards seniors.) **See ask, let, please,**

P

person *noun* (**an individual human**) rén 人:

a good person yígè hǎorén 一个好人 // ***a person who sucks*** **Feeling** yígè huài dōngxi 一个坏东西 (! dōngxi 东西 is not usually used to refer to a person. If used, it usually implies the like or dislike towards somebody. Besides saying 'huài dōngxi 坏东西', if one is complaining about another person strongly, he can also say 'He is really a person who sucks. tā zhēn búshì dōngxi。他真不是东西。' At the same time, dōngxi 东西 can also be adopted to refer to somebody with affection.) **See creature, something, thing**

please *adverb* (**used as a polite way of asking for something or of asking a person to do something**) **Polite** qǐng 请:

Please come to work in our school. qǐng lái wǒmen xuéxiào shàngbān。请来我们学校上班。// A: '***Would you like a cup of water?*** nǐ xiǎng hē shuǐ ma？你想喝水吗？'—B: '***Yes, please***. 'hǎo de，qǐng gěi wǒ lái yìbēi。好的，请给我来一杯。'(! qǐng 请 *is often put at the beginning of a sentence to make a polite request in Chinese. At the same time, it can be used alone as a polite request for the hearer to carry out the implied action, which the context helps clarify.*)

See after, help

possible *adjective* (**able to be done, capable of happening or to be true**) kěnéng de 可能的:

It is possible that he went to travel. tā kěnéng qù lǚyóu le。 他可能去旅游了。// ***It is possible that he is at school***. tā kěnéng zài xuéxiào ba! 他可能在学校吧！// ***He didn't come. Is it possible that it has rained?*** 他没有来，别是下雨了吧？(! kěnéng…ba 可能…吧 *and* bié shì…ba 别是…吧 *can both be used to indicate what the speaker's expectation or prediction is. The former just indicates a kind of possibility, whereas the latter is used to show that something the speaker doesn't wish to happen may have appeared.*)

problem *noun* (**something causing trouble or difficulty**) wèntí 问题:

The study of my younger sister is a real problems. wǒ mèimei de xuéxí zhēn shì yíge wèntí. 我妹妹的学习真是一个问题。// ***The problem is that this room is too small***. **Pragmatic marker** wèntí shì，zhèjiān fángzi tài xiǎo le。问题是，这间房子太小了。// ***The problem is that his study isn't good at all***. wèntí shì，tā de xuéxí yìdiǎn bù hǎo。问题是，他的学习一点不好。(! wèntí shì 问题是 *is usually used to introduce a negative opinion or comment.*)

Phrase **no problem (used for saying that you are happy to do what others are asking you to do)** **Formula** méi (yǒu) wèn tí没（有）问题:

A: '***This newspaper is very good. Can I have a look***? zhèfen bàozhǐ hěn hǎo。wǒ kéyǐ kàn yíxià ma？这份报纸很好，我看一下，好吗？'—B: '***No problem. Here you are***! méi (yǒu) wèn tí。gěi nǐ。没（有）问题。给你。' (! méi (yǒu) wèntí没（有）问题 *is a typical strong affirmative answer to a request.*) **See INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

prostitute *noun* (**someone having sex with others as their job**) xiáojiě小姐:

(! In Chinese, prostitutes usually have another name. However, nowadays, people tend to refer to those involved in sexual business euphemistically as xiáojiě小姐 in Chinese, which sounds exactly the same as the equivalent of miss. Because of the negative connotations of xiáojiě小姐, some ladies may take offence at this address in public.) **See Miss**

R

really *adverb*

1 (very very much) **Emphasis** zhēn 真:

He is really happy today. tā jīntiān zhēn gāoxìng! 他今天真高兴！ **See how**

2 (for showing surprise or disbelief) **Feeling** zhēn de ma？真的吗？:

A: '***He didn't come to school.*** tā méiyǒu lái xuéxiào。他没有来学校。'—B: '***Really? I will give him a call now.*** zhēn de ma？wǒ xiànzài gěi tā dǎ diànhuà。真的吗？我现在给他打电话。'(! zhēn de ma 真的吗 is used when people have some doubts about what the other party is saying or to show their surprise.)

right

◆ *adjective* **(to be correct)** duì 对:

Your are right. nǐ shì duì de。你是对的。// A: '***Are you a student?*** nǐ shì xuéshēng ma? 你是学生吗？'—B: '***Right. I am a student learning Chinese.*** duì le，wǒ shì xué hànyǔ de xuéshēng. 对了，我是学汉语的学生。' **See way**

Phrase **that's right** **Pragmatic marker** duì 对, nǐ hái bié shuō 你还别说:

(! nǐ hái bié shuō 你还别说 can be used to affirm what the other party has said.)

A: '***He is good at study***. tā xuéxí hěn hǎo。他学习很好。'—B:'***That's right***. ***He is really good.*** nǐ hái bié shuō，tā xuéxí zhēn shì hǎo！你还别说，他学习真是好！') **See well**

◆ *noun* **(the side of your body that is toward the east when you are facing the north)** yòubiān 右边:

School is on your right. xuéxiào zài nǐ yòubiān。学校在你右边。

◆ *adverb*（**correctly**）duì对:

Have I done it right? wǒ zuò de duì ma? 我做的对吗？

S

say *verb* **(to utter something)** shuō 说:

say good morning shuō zǎoshang hǎo 说早上好 // ***He said sorry to his elder brother***. tā gěi gēge shuō le dubùqǐ。他给哥哥说了对不起。// ***He says his dad has made a phone call***. tā shuō tā bàba yǐjīng dǎ

diànhuà le。 他说他爸爸已经打电话了。

I already said it was going to rain today. You wouldn't listen to me. wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe，jīntiān yào xiàyǔ，nǐ bú tīng。我说什么来着，今天要下雨。你不听。(! **Pragmatic marker** wǒ shuō shénme lái zhe 我说什么来着 can be used for emphasis or reminding. Usually it carries the tone of criticism. It implies that the speaker has offered the hearer some advices or suggestions. However, the latter wouldn't take them. Now a negative result has appeared.)

It's said that he bought a new car. **Vagueness** tīngshuō tā mǎi le yíliàng xīn chē。听说他买了一辆新车。(! tīngshuō 听说 is a device to show the speaker's uncertainty.)

see *verb*

1 (to notice someone or something using your eyes) kànjiàn 看见:

He saw that teacher. tā kànjiàn le nàwèi lǎoshī。他看见了那位老师。[!The le 了 in this sentence is used to indicate a past event. Chinese language doesn't have an inflectional lexical form to indicate aspect. Therefore, it turns to lexical forms like le 了 to achieve this purpose.] **See no, INSERT on le 了** // ***Can't you see me?*** nǐ kàn bú jiàn wǒ ma？你看不见我吗？ [To negate kànjiàn 看见, the negative bú 不 needs to be put between kàn 看 and jiàn 见]

2 (to meet someone) jiànmiàn 见面 [3]:

Do you often see each other? nǐmen jīngcháng jiànmiàn ma？你们经常见面吗？

See you tomorrow! **Formula** míngtiān jiàn！明天见！ **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

3 (to visit someone) kàn 看:

go to see a doctor qù kàn yī sheng 去看医生

4 (to watch something like a movie) kàn 看:

see a movie/TV kàn diànyǐng/diànshì看电影/电视

Phrases **see sb out (to go with someone who is leaving to the door to say goodbye)** sòng…dào ménkǒu 送…到门口:

A: '***Let me see you out.*** ' wǒ sòng nǐ dào ménkǒu ba. 我送你到门口吧。'

—B: '***No need to see me out***. ' *informal* **Formula** bú sòng（wǒ）le。 不送了。

(! bú sòng le 不送了 is an informal way of saying goodbye in Chinese, used by the person who is leaving to the host or hostess.) **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

Phrase **I see (I understand)** *informal* **Pragmatic marker** wǒ shuō zěnme…我说怎么…, wǒ shuō ne 我说呢:

(! wǒ shuōzěnme…我说怎么…and wǒ shuō ne 我说呢 are polite responses to another person's answer to one's question or clarification of one's doubts. This also prepares the conversation to move on. If the question starts with zěnme 怎么, the questioner will respond by saying wǒ shuōne 我说呢, to indicate he or she has understood what is happening. However, it is not uncommon that foreign learners of Chinese repond to the questionee's answer with xièxiè谢谢, which makes the conversation break down.)

A: '***So many people are here. What has gone wrong?*** zhèlǐ rén zhēn duō a！chū le shénme shìqíng？这里人真多啊！出了什么事情？'—B: '***It is time to go to work.*** xiànzài shì qù shàngbān de shíjiān。现在是去上班的时间。' A: '***I see.*** wǒ shuō zěnme zhème duō rén。我说怎么这么多人。'

A: '***How come so many people are here?*** zhèlǐ zěnme zhème duō rén？这里怎么这么多人？'—B: '***It is time to go to work.*** xiànzài shì qù shàngbān de shíjiān。现在是去上班的时间。'A: '***I see.***' wǒ shuō ne！我说呢！'

sir *noun* (**used as a polite way of speaking to a man**) <*Address*> **Polite** xiānsheng 先生:

Sir, do you know how to go to the rail station? xiānsheng， nín zhīdào huǒchēzhàn zěnme zǒu ma？先生，您知道火车站怎么走吗？(! xiānsheng 先生 is a polite term to address a man in Chinese, usually used in formal situations or to a stranger.) **See gentleman, husband, mister, Mr.**

sister *noun* (**a girl or woman who has the same parents as you**) jiěmèi 姐妹:

She has six sisters and brothers. tā yǒu liùge xiōngdì jiěmèi。她有六个兄弟姐妹。// **elder sister** jiějie 姐姐， jiě 姐 (! In face-to-face communication, the younger siblings also address their elder sister by jiě 姐.) ***Here you are, elder sister***. <*Address*> jiě， gěi nǐ。姐，给你。// ***This is my eldest siter.*** zhè shì wǒ dà jiě。这是我大姐。

Eldest sister, take a seat, please. <*Address*> **Polite** dà jiě, qǐng zuò。大姐，请坐。(! dà jiě 大姐 can be used to address a female about one's own age)

(! Putting one's surname before jiě 姐 to address a lady who is slightly older oneself or about the same age as oneself indicates intimate relationship.) // ***Elder sister Wang, sit down and have a cup of tea***. <*Address*> **Polite** wáng jiě， zuò xiàlài hē （yì）bēi chá。王姐，坐下来喝（一）杯茶。) **See brother**

younger sister mèimei 妹妹 (*! This address term is usually not used by the older siblings to address their younger sister, since it goes against the self-denigration maxim in China. They often address them by given names or pet ones.*) **See brother**

slowly *adverb* (**not fast**) màn 慢:

He walked very slowly. tā zǒude hěn màn. 他走得很慢。// (*! Walk slowly (i.e. goodbye)!* **Formula** màn zǒu (a)！慢走（啊）*! is a polite expression used by Chinese to say goodbye to a visitor.* **See eat, INSERT on Saying Goodbye)**

so

◆ *adverb*

1 (**very**) fēicháng 非常, hěn 很:

He got up so early every day. tā měitiān hěn zǎo jiù qǐchuáng le。他每天很早就起床了。

2 (**to such an extent**) zhème 这么, nàme 那么, <spoken> dà…de 大…的:

He went to school so early! 他这么早就去上学了。

(*! dà … de 大 … 的 is a spoken usage, which implies that your behaviors at the time specified by the speaker are not expected or welcome. It shows the surprise, disapproval or criticism. The elliptical part is often time, like 'morning zǎoshang 早上', 'noon zhōngwǔ 中午', 'night wǎnshang 晚上', 'mid-night bànyè 半夜', or holidays.* **See night**)

(*! showing disapproval or criticism*) ***Why are you shouting loudly so early in the morning? Your daddy is working.*** dà zǎoshang de，nǐ jiào shénme？nǐ bàba zài gōngzuò。大早上的，你叫什么？你爸爸在工作。

(*! showing surprise*) **He hasn't got up at this late noon yet!** dà zhōngwǔ de, tā hái méiyǒu qǐ chuáng? 大中午的，他还没有起床？

3. (**other uses**): ***Who says so?*** shuí shuō de？谁说的？

◆ *conjunction*

suǒyǐ (**used for saying something happens because of what has been mentioned**) 所以，zhème shuō这么说:

He will attend a competition, so he studies very hard. tā yào cānjiā yíge bǐsài, suǒyǐ xuéxí fēicháng nǔlì. 他要参加一个比赛，所以学习非常努力。

A: 'I have something to do this morning. wǒ jīntiān zǎoshàng yǒu diǎn shìqíng. 我今天早上有点事情。'—B: '***So, you can't go to school with us, can you?'*** **Pragmatic marker** 'zhème shuō，nǐ bù néng hé

wǒmen qù xuéxiào le, shì ma？这么说，你不能和我们去学校了，是吗？’

A: ***‘I went to see a doctor this morning.*** wǒ jīntiān qù kàn dàifú le？我今天早上去看大夫了？**’—**B: ***‘So, you don’t feel well, do you?*** zhème shuō, nǐ de shēntǐ bú hǎo, shì bú shì? 这么说，你的身体不好，是不是？’

(! zhème shuō 这么说 *is used at the beginning of the response of the hearer to what the speaker has said. What follows it is his or her guess or conclusion, which often takes the form of questions and needs the speaker's confirmation. Because what* zhème shuō 这么说 *introduces is something the speaker doesn't know, so what comes after it usually conveys comparatively strong feelings, such as surprise, admiration, resignation, or joking.*)

something *noun*

1 (used to refer to a thing, idea, fact, etc. when you don’t know or do not say what exactly it is) dōngxi 东西；shìqíng 事情；wèntí 问题：

I have something delicious to give you. wǒ yǒu hǎochī de dōngxī gěi nǐ。我有好吃的东西给你。// ***You did something very good***. nǐ zuò le yījiàn fēicháng hǎo de shìqíng。你做了一件非常好的事情。// ***Taking your classmate’s mobile phone is something serious. You must give it back to him.*** ná nǐ tóngxué de shǒujī shì yīgè hěn dà de wèntí。nǐ dé bǎ tā huán gěi tā。 拿你同学的手机是一个很大的问题。你得把它还给他 。(! **Attitude** <*Criticising*> shì … wèntí 是 … 问 题 *shows the negative attitude of the speaker towards another person's behaviour. It is an indirect way of criticism.*) **See creature, person, thing, INSERT on Criticism**

son *noun* **(your male child)** érzi 儿子:

He has three sons. tā yǒu sāngè érzi。他有三个儿子。 (! érzi 儿子 *is not usually used by parents to address their son in Chinese, since this way of addressing goes against the self-denigration. They would often address their sons by using given names or pet ones. Besides, even if son can be used a familiar term of address by an older person to address a boy or young man in English, it is improper to address others by calling the same people in China using* érzi 儿子. *Instead,* háizi 孩子 *may be used to address them.* ***See child, children***)

sorry *adjective* (**when apologizing to someone**) **Formula** duìbùqǐ对不起:

I'm sorry. I'm wrong. duìbuqǐ，wǒ cuò le。对不起， 我错了。// ***Sorry, I can't sing.*** duìbuqǐ，wǒ bú huì chànggē。对不起，我不会唱歌。**See excuse me, INSERT on Apology**

speak *verb*

1 (**utter words**) shuōhuà 说话:

He is speaking to a friend. tā zài hé péngyou shuōhuà。他在和朋友说话。

He is good at speaking (i.e. paying lip service). tā hěn huì shuōhuà。他很会说话。(! **Attitude** huì shuōhuà会说话 *appears to be a praise for someone. However, this expression usually carries derogatory or satirizing sense in Chinese, implying a person only pays lip-service. Thus saying this will hurt other people.*)

2 (**utter**) shuō 说:

Do you speak Chinese? nǐ huì shuō hànyǔ ma？你会说汉语吗？**See can**

surname *noun* (**the part of your name that is your family name**) xìng 姓:

A: '***What's your surname***? nǐ xìng shénme？你姓什么？'—B: '***My surname is Wang.*** wǒ xìng wáng。我姓王。' (! *This way of asking one's surname is usually used when the two communicators are of the same age or social status. Or they deem there is no need to be very formal.*) **See name**

Pragmatic Note: (1) When Chinese people ask another person his or her surname, depending on the age, status or the distance between the speaker and the hearer, they may use different ways. Suppose two persons meet for the first time or the occasion is quite formal, the speaker may utter 'Your surname, please? nín guì xìng? 您贵姓？'. When the gap between the social status or the age of the communicators is large, the speaker, who has lower social status or is lower in age, will adopt this expression as well. Otherwise people may utter 'nǐ xìng shénme 你姓什么'. (2) When this expression is used, it is not uncommon for the hearer to tell the full name, instead of just the surname:

A: 'Your surname please? nín guì xìng? 您贵姓？'B: 'My surname is Wang and my full name is Wang Hong. wǒ xìng wáng，jiào wáng hóng。我姓王，叫王红。' (3) Upon first meeting, Chinese deem it more polite to ask the surname of the other party rather than his/her full name.

T

teacher *noun* lǎoshī 老师:

My father is a teacher. wǒ bàba shì yìmíng/wèi lǎoshī。我爸爸是一名/位老师。

Teacher, (i.e. Sir) good morning! *<Address>* **Polite** lǎoshī，zǎoshang hǎo！老师，早上好！

(! (1) lǎoshī老师 is a respectable address term in China, even if its equivalent can't be used in the same way in English. It is one of the few Chinese professional titles that conveys politeness. (2) Usually, to be more polite, a speaker puts the surname of a teacher before lǎoshī 老师 when addressing him or her, unless s/he doesn't know the surname of the teacher. (3) In educational institutions like schools, universities, people would address those who are not engaged in teaching, like those doing administrative work, lǎoshī老师 as well, as a sign of respect. Nowadays, today, it has become a widely used polite address for people in many other fields as well.) **See driver**

tell *verb*

1 (When giving information) gàosu 告诉:

I told my name to your mom. wǒ bǎ wǒ de míngzi gàosu le nǐ māma。我把我的名字告诉了你妈妈。// ***He told me his daughter was learning Chinese***. tā gàosu wǒ tā de nǚ'ér zài xué hànyǔ。 他告诉我他女儿在学汉语。

2 (when giving orders) jiào 叫:

Tell him to sit in the front. jiào tā zuò dào qiánmiɑn。**Order** 叫他坐到前面。**See ask，let，order**

3 (to know, to see) zhīdào 知道:

You can tell he is very happy. nǐ kéyǐ zhīdào tā hěn gāoxìng。你可以知道他很高兴。**See know**

thank *verb* xièxie 谢谢:

Thank you for your book! **Formula** xièxie nǐ！谢谢你!

(! In thanking a person for doing you a favour, helping you, and so on, Chinese people tend to focus on the addressee rather than mention the specific favour he or she has done, while western culture may mention the favour or the help. Only thanking others for the favor they have done to you will make addressees consider you impolite. Besides, in showing one's gratitude, the reduplication of xièxie 谢谢 is more polite.) **See INSERT on Giving and Receiving Thanks**

thing *noun*

1 (a material object) dōngxi 东西:

a thing yíjiàn dōngxi 一件东西 // ***There is a thing in the room***. fángjiān lǐ yǒu yíyàng dōngxi。房间里有一样东西。**See creature, person, something**

2 (a matter or event) shìqíng **事情**:

I have several things to ask your younger brother. wǒ yǒu jǐ jiàn shìqíng yào wèn yíxià nǐ dìdi。我有几件事情要问一下你弟弟。**See INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

think *verb* **(to have a particular opinion about someone or something)** juéde 觉得, xiǎng 想; *informal* kàn 看:

I think he will come. **Vagueness** wǒ juéde/kàn/xiǎng tā huì lái de。我觉得/看/想他会来的。(! Structures like wǒ juéde/kàn/xiǎng 我觉得/看/想 are devices which make the speaker less committed to the truthfulness of the propositional content he expresses. It is used before one expresses a personal opinion.) **See say**

A: ***What do you think of this book?*** nǐ kàn zhè běn shū zěnmeyàng？你看这本书怎么样？

—B: ***It is very good. I think you can buy this book.*** **Suggesting** tā fēcháng hǎo。wǒ kàn nǐ kěyǐ mǎi。它非常好。我看你可以买。**See INSERT on Suggestions**

this

◆ *determiner* **(used for referring to a person, thing, place that is near you)** zhè这, zhège 这个 [As a determiner or a pronoun, this is often translated as zhège 这个. ge 个 is a measure word that changes with the noun it modifies.]:

I want to eat this apple. wǒ xiàng chī zhège píngguǒ。我想吃这个苹果。// ***What do you think of this book?*** nǐ juéde zhèběn shū zěnmeyàng？你觉得这本书怎么样？// ***Do you like this movie?*** nǐ xǐhuān zhèbù diànyǐng ma？你喜欢这部电影吗？

Pragmatic Note: When nǐ 你 is used with determinder zhège 这个 before a noun, including address terms, or noun phrase to refer to someone (in front of you), where the use of zhège 这个 may seem to be redundant, it can convey displeasure, disagreement, criticism, etc. nǐ 你 can be omitted. This is especially true when the structure is used on its own. The pronoun nǐ 你 can be omitted. However, the tone of the expression is not changed. Therefore, when using this structure, you need to pay heed to the implied negative attitude in it. The measure word gè 个 can change with the noun zhège 这个 modifies. Eg.1: This student (i.e. excuse me)! What are you talking about? nǐ zhège xuéshēng a！nǐ zài shuō shénme ne？你这个学生啊！你在说什么呢？

Eg. 2: This doctor (i.e. excuse me), you can't stand in front of the gate. zhèwèi yīshēng！ nǐ bùnéng zhànzài mén qiánmian！这位医生，你不能站在门前面！)

◆ *pronoun* **(used for referring to a person, thing, place that is near you)** zhè这, zhège 这个:

What is this? zhè shì shénme？这是什么？// ***Why do you look at this?*** nǐ wéishénme kàn zhe zhège ？你为什么看这个？// ***Who is this?*** zhè shì shuí？这是谁？

time *noun*

1 (the quantity that is measured in minutes, hours, years, etc.) shíjiān 时间, shíhou 时候:

I don't have time to watch TV. wǒ méiyǒu shíjiān kàn diànshì。我没有时间看电视。// ***We haven't had tea for a long time***. wǒmen hěn cháng shíjiān méiyǒu hē chá le。我们很长时间没有喝茶了。

2 (When talking about specific time or hour) shíhou 时候, diǎn 点:

this time last year qùnián zhège shíhou 去年这个时候 // ***in two weeks' /months' time*** guò liǎngge xīngqī/yuè 过两个星期/月 // ***What time is it?*** jǐdiǎn le? 几点了? // ***What time does the movie start?*** diànyǐng jǐ diǎn kāishǐ? 电影几点开始? // ***At what time(i.e. When) did I phone ?*** wǒ shénme shíhou dǎ diànhuà de? 我什么时候打电话的?

'***I saw you making a call last night?*** wǒ kànjiàn nǐ zuótiān wǎnshang dǎ diànhuà le。我看见你昨天晚上打电话了。'—B: '***How come? What time***? wǒ shénme shíhou dǎ diànhuà le? 我什么时候打电话了? ' (***!*** shénme shíhou…de 什么时候…的 and shénme shíhou…le 什么时候…了 are different. The former one is used in a real question for asking the time of doing something. However, the latter, though appearing to be a question, is actually a way to negate a fact the other party has mentioned impolitely.) **See INSERT on le 了**)

3 (a period in the past) nà shí（hòu）那时（候）:

At that time, we didn't have computers. nà shíhou，wǒmen méiyǒu diànnǎo。那时候，我们没有电脑。

4 (an occasion) cì次:

one time yícì一次 // ***five/many times*** wǔ/hěn duō cì 五/很多次 // ***this /that/next time*** zhè/shàng/ xiàcì 这/上/下次 // ***Last time when he took an airplane, he was really very happy***. shàngcì zuò fēijī shí，tā zhēn de fēicháng gāoxìng。上次坐飞机时，他真的非常高兴。

token *noun* **(something you do or give as a way of showing your feelings towards someone)** biǎoshì表示:

This is a token of happiness. zhè shì gāoxìng de biǎoshì。这是高兴的表示。// ***This little gift is just a token of affection/gratitude/appreciation.*** **Polite** zhè shì wǒmen de yìdiǎn xiǎo yìsi！这是我们的一点小意思！ (*! Chinese people adhere to the principle of modesty. When they talk about things concerning or of themselves, or themselves, they tend to denigrate them. In presenting a gift to others, even if it is very expensive or precious, they may still downgrade its importance or value so that the hearer won't feel too obliged.*) **See INSERT on Chinese Politeness**

tomorrow

◆ *noun* **(the day after today)** míngtiān 明天:

Tomorrow is Sunday. 明天是星期天。

◆ *adverb* míngtiān 明天:

See you tomorrow! **Formula** míngtiān jiàn! 明天见！(**!** This is one way that Chinese say goodbye) **See INSERT on Saying Goodbye**

V

view

◆ *verb* (**to look at or watch something**) kàn 看:

view a film kàn diànyǐng 看电影

◆ *noun*

(**the action of looking at or watching**) kàn 看

have a view kàn 看

Phrase **in one's view** zài … kàn lái 在…看来:

In my view, Mr. Wang is a good teacher. Many students like him very much. zài wǒ kàn lái，wáng lǎoshī shì ge hǎo lǎoshī。 hěn duō xuésheng fēicháng xǐhuān tā。在我看来，王老师是个好老师。很多学生非常喜欢他。(**!** **Pragmatic marker** zài … kàn lái 在…看来 *is usually adopted by a speaker to make a personal comment, which distances him or her from the truthfulness of propositional content.*) **See say, think, INSERT on Suggestions**

visit

◆ *verb*

1 (**to go to see someone**) kàn 看:

I cam to visit you. wǒ lái kàn nǐ。 我来看你。/ wǒ lái kàn kan nǐ。我来看看你。(**!** *The two Chinese translations are the same except that the verb* kàn 看 *is reduplicated in the second one. However, in terms of tone, the second one is more relaxing. The repetition of verbs usually appears in imperatives, which makes a request more polite and the addressee feel more respected. This type of usage is mostly spoken. For example, 'Come in and have a seat!* jìnlái zuò 进来坐*' and '*jìnlái zuò zuò进来坐坐*'. The first one sounds like a direct request, while the second one a more polite invitation. In expressing a strong request, the verb should not be repeated.*)

2 (**to stay with**) zhù 住:

I visited my younger sister for a month. wǒ zài mèimei nàlǐ zhù le yíge yuè。 我在妹妹那里住了一个月。

W

waiter *noun* (**a person who brings food and drinks to you in a restaurant**) fúwùyuán 服务员:

He is a waiter in a restaurant. tā shì fàndiàn de fúwùyuán。 他是饭店的服务员。

(talking to a waiter). ***Waiter (i.e. Sir), can you pass us some water***? <*Address*> **Polite** fúwùyuán，nǐ néng bu néng gěi wǒmen yīxiē shuǐ？服务员，你能不能给我们一些水？(! fúwùyuán 服务员 can be used to address the waiters in hotels, restaurants, and so on. Its English equivalent only refers to those working in restaurant, thus narrower in denotation.) **See waitress**

waitress noun (**a woman who brings food and drinks to you in a restaurant**) nǚ fúwùyuán 女服务员:

The waitress is there. fú wù yuán zài nà lǐ.服务员在那里。

<*Address*> **Polite** ***Waitress (i.e. Ms.), can we sit here?*** fúwùyuán, wǒmen kěyǐ zuò zhè lǐ ma? 服务员，我们可以坐这里吗？

(! When nǚ fúwùyuán 女服务员 is used to address those working in restaurants, hotels and so on, the gender marker nǚ 女 is omitted. People just say fúwùyuán 服务员. Its English equivalent only refers to those working in restaurant, thus narrower in denotation.) **See waiter**

way *noun* (**a road or route**) lù 路:

on the way to Beijing qù běijīng de lùshang 去北京的路上 // ***on the way back (going back)*** zài huíqù de lùshang 在回去的路上 // ***on the way back (coming back)*** zài huílái de lùshang 在回来的路上 // ***Excuse me, is this the way to the train station***? qǐngwèn，zhè shì qù huǒchēzhàn de lù ma？ 请问，这是去火车站的路吗？// ***On the way back home, can you buy some eggs***? zài huíjiā de lùshang，nǐ néng bu néng mǎi xiē jīdàn？在回家的路上，你能不能买些鸡蛋？

Phrase **by the way** (**used for introducing a new or extra fact or comment into a conversation**) <spoken> **Pragmatic marker** duì le 对了:

(! duì le 对了 is used to switch a topic. **See right**) A: '***Did you make a call***? nǐ dǎ diànhuà le ma？你打电话了吗？'—B: '***Yes, I did. By the way, how is the child now***? dǎ le。duì le，nàge háizi xiànzài zěnmeyàng le？打了。对了，那个孩子现在怎么样了？'

welcome

◆ *verb* (**to greet someone politely and friendly when they arrive**) huānyíng 欢迎:

welcome new classmates huānyíng xīn tóngxué欢迎新同学 // ***Welcome you to China to learn Chinese!***

huānyíng nǐ lái zhōngguó xué hànyǔ！欢迎你来中国学汉语！

◆ *adjective*

(to feel happy because you are present) huānyíng 欢迎:

Welcome, welcome! **Polite** **Formula** huānyíng 欢迎，欢迎！(*!* huānyíng 欢迎 *is usually used on formal or diplomatic occasions. Among friends and relatives, people usually don't use it, lest it sounds too formal.*)

Phrase **you're welcome (used for replying to someone who has thanked you)** **Polite** **Formula** bú (yòng) kèqi 不(用)客气:

A: '***Thank you !*** xiè xiè nǐ ！谢谢你！'—B: '***You're welcome!*** bú (yòng) kèqi！不(用)客气！'

(*!* bú (yòng) kèqi 不(用)客气 *is a typical Chinese way of responding to the thanks politely. Other similar expressions include 'Don't mention it.* méi shénme！没什么！*', 'It is nothing.* bú (yòng) xiè！不(用)谢！*'. 'It doesn't matter.* méi guānxi。没关系。*', which is a typical expression for responding to another person' apology in Chinese, can also be used to acknowledge his or her gratitude.*) **See INSERT on Apology, INSERT on Giving and Receiving Thanks**

◆ *noun* **(an act of welcoming someone to a place)** huānyíng 欢迎:

The waiters gave us a welcome. fúwùyuán huānyíng le wǒmen！服务员欢迎了我们！

well

◆ *adverb*

1 (in a satisfactory way) hǎo 好:

He dances very well. tā wǔ tiào de hěn hǎo. 他舞跳得很好。

2 (very very much) hěn 很:

be well above my head bǐ wǒ de tóu gāo chū hěn duō比我的头高出很多

◆ *interjection*

(used for introducing a statement, especially one that you make as a reply) **Pragmatic marker** nǐ hái bié shuō 你还别说:

Well, it was like this... zhège, shìqíng shì zhèyàng de… 你还别说，事情是这样的…

A: '***He may not have attended the test.*** tā kěnéng méiyǒu qù kǎoshì。他可能没有去考试。'—B: '***Well, it was good for him not to go. Our teacher said the test was called off.*** nǐ hái bié shuō，tā méi qù cái hǎo ne！lǎoshī shuō bù kǎo shì le。你还别说，他没去才好呢！老师说不考试了。'(*!* nǐ hái bié shuō 你还别说 *can be used to emphasize the change of a view.*) **See can**

what

◆ *pronoun* (**used in quesitions**) shénme 什么:

What are you talking about? nǐ zài shuō shénme？你在说什么？// A: '***What do you want to have for dinner?*** nǐ wǎnfàn xiǎng chī shénme？你晚饭想吃什么？'—B: '***I want to have rice***. wǒ xiǎng chī mǐfàn。我想吃米饭。'

A: ***He came by plane.*** tā shì zuò fēijī lái de。他是坐飞机来的。—B: ***What is the point of taking a plane? It is so close.*** zuò shénme fēijī a! zhème jìn。坐什么飞机啊！这么近。 (! **Attitude** *verb* + shénme 什么 +noun *structure is used in Chinese to convey the speaker's negative attitude, implying disagreement, irritation, etc. The stress usually falls on the verbs.*) // ***What is the time?*** jǐ diǎn le？几点了？

◆ *determiner*

What jobs/books/schools do you like？nǐ xǐhuan shénme gōngzuò/shū/xuéxiào？你喜欢什么工作/书/学校？// ***What time is it?*** jǐ diǎn le？ 几点了？// ***What a beautiful cup!*** duó piàoliàng de bēizi a! 多漂亮的杯子啊！/ zhège bēizi zhēn piàoliàng！这个杯子真漂亮！**See how**

◆ *adverb*

What do you think of your new job? nǐ juéde nǐ de xīn gōngzuò zěnmeyàng？ 你觉得你的新工作怎么样？

where *adverb* (**used for asking what place someone or something is in or somebody go to**) nǎr 哪(儿):

A: '***Where are you going***? nǐ qù nǎr ya？你去哪儿呀？'—B: '***Just going out!***' chūqù yíxià. 出去一下。'(! *This conversation is a typical way for Chinese acquaintances to greet each other, with the questioner not sincerely interested in what the questionee says. The latter doesn't need to reveal his real destination and can be general in response. Both the question and the answer mainly serve phatic function.*) **See eat, INSERT on Greeting, INSERT on yíxià（r）一下（儿）**

Where are his books from? tā de shū cóng nǎr lái de? 他的书从哪儿来的？(! **Attitude** *If a person uses* …nǎr lái de …哪儿来的 *to ask where something is from, this shows the suspicion of the speaker.*)

wife *noun* (**the woman that a man is married to**) qīzi 妻子， àiren 爱人；（! more formal）fūrén 夫人[5]；tàitai 太太[6]:

His wife is a Chinese. 他妻子是中国人。(! *In face-to-face communication in Chinese mailand,*

qīzi 妻子 is usually not used when introducing or mentioning one's wife, in many cases àiren 爱人 is used. tàitai 太太 is more commonly used to in Hongkong, Taiwan, Macau, etc. to introduce one's wife.) **See husband**

wonder *verb*

1 (to think about something because you want to know more about it or you are worried)

xiǎng zhīdào 想知道:

I wonder how to learn Chinese well. wǒ xiǎng zhīdào zěnyàng xué hǎo hànyǔ。我想知道怎样学 好汉语。

2 (used in polite request):

I wonder if you can answer this question ? *<Request>* **Polite** bù zhīdào nǐ néng bu néng huídá zhège wèntí? 不知道你能不能回答这个问题?

Phrase **no wonder (used to show that you are not surprised by something)** **Pragmatic marker** wǒ shuō zěnme 我说怎么:

A: '***He went to buy books***. tā qù mǎi shū le。他去买书了。'—B: '***No wonder he didn't come to school***. wǒ shuō zěnme tā méiyǒu lái xuéxiào。我说怎么他没有来学校。' (! wǒ shuō zěnme…我说怎么…is a polite response to somebody's reply to your question, which also lays the foundation for the progress of the conversation.) **See see**

Y

you *pronoun* **1 (used to refer to people you are talking with or writing to)** (singular) nǐ 你, (honorific or polite) nín 您:

How are you! **Formula** nǐ hǎo! 你/您好!

(! (1) nǐ hǎo 你好 is usually used among people who are familiar with each other. People tend to avoid using it to address one's close friends so as not to sound too formal. This may make the addressee feel that you purposely want to keep the distance between you and them. The ways used to greet them may include given names, pet ones and others. (2) nǐ hǎo 你好 can be used at any time during a day, in the morning, in the afternoon, or in the evening. (3) nǐ hǎo 你好 is not a question. Thus the typical response to it is the same. As for nǐmen hǎo 你们好, it is often used to

address two or more people. Like nǐ hǎo 你好, it is usually not used among close friends, since the usage of such an expression may make people being greeted have the feeling that you are distancing yourself from him.) **See body, eat, health, where** // ***He will help you***. tā huì bāngzhù nǐ！ 他会帮助你！ // ***Mr. Wang, may I ask you a question?*** wáng xiānshēng，wǒ kěyǐ wèn nín yīge wèntí ma？王先生，我可以问您一个问题吗？

What are you saying? (i.e. You're flattering me.) **Formula** kàn nǐ/（nín）shuō de！ 看你（您）说的！(! This is a polite way to show disagreement with or disbelief in what others say, usually to show one's modesty. Depending on your relationship with the addressee or the formality of the occasion, you can choose to use either nǐ你 or nín 您 in this formulaic expression. At the same time, the expression can also be used for Criticism. Eg.: A: 'These apples should be very expensive. zhèxiē píngguǒ hěn guì ba！这些苹果很贵吧！' B: 'What are you saying (i.e. Are they? They are not expensive at all.) kàn nǐ shuō de，zhè guì shénme？看你说的，这贵什么？')

2 *(plural)* nǐmen 你们; nín 您：

Are you students? nǐmen shì xuéshēng ma？你们是学生吗？ // ***Welcome you to our restaurant!*** huānyíng nǐmen lái wǒmen fàn diàn！欢迎你们来我们饭店！[In a restaurant, café, etc. the waiter may ask a group of diners] // ***How many of you?*** nín jǐwèi？您几位？(! nín jǐwèi 您几位 is a polite way to ask how many diners or guests there are.) // ***What do you want to buy, sir?*** xiānshēng, nín yào shénme? 先生，您要什么？(! This is a polite expression for sales clerks to ask an adult customer what kind of thing he wants to purchase.)

3 (when used impersonally) nǐ你；rén (men) 人（们）：

You can buy anything here. (nǐ zài) zhèlǐ shénme dōu néng mǎi dào！（你在）这里什么都能买到！ **See INSERT on Chinese Politeness**

Appendix

I. Chinese Politeness

II. Pragmatics in Interaction

III. Particles in Chinese

IV. Topics You can Take up with Chinese

I. Politeness in Modern China

1 Introduction

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context. In many cases, the explanations for the same pragmatic phenomenon can be interwoven and it can be approached from different perspectives. Take for example, if the utterance of a speaker has some implicature, there could be various explanations for it, following different pragmatic theories. It is quite possible that the speaker utters in this way out of politeness.

Politeness is one important component to within the range of pragmatics. It, in its most abstract sense, may be a universal phenomenon. However, the polite behaviors, plus the values and norms attached to them, vary with langugages and cultures, and are in some cases culture-specific and language-specific. It will be helpful to foreign learners of Chinese if they have some basic ideas concerning Chinese politeness.

2 **Historical Evolution of Chinese Politeness**

Chinese culture distinguishes itself by maintaining a variety of polite values or norms, which are reflected in Chinese language. The abstract concept of politeness, the equivalent of Chinese *lǐmào* 礼貌, which literally means 'polite appearance', has had a long history in China and can be traced back to an ancient concept *lǐ* 礼. Reviewing the classic *lǐ*礼, formulated by Confucius over 2000 years ago, may help in understanding the modern notion *lǐmao*.

It takes two or three hundred years for the Confucius' *lǐ* to evolve into one that designates politeness. In Confucius's view, *lǐ*, which he adopts to refer to the hierarchy and order of slave system of the Zhou Dynasty (dating back to 1, 100 B.C.), an ideal model of any society, should be restored through various means. To achieve this goal, the speech must be used in a way appropriate to the user's status in the social hierarchy. Two or three hundred years after his death, the *lǐ* designating *lǐmào* seems to be well established.

The connection between *lǐ* (as social hierarchy and order) and *lǐ* (as politeness) is easy to see. The former gives rises to the latter while the latter expresses and helps maintain the former. Take for example, the use of self-denigrating terms, which is still a prevalent linguistic phenomenon nowadays, helps to maintain the social hierarchy in China.

With the founding of People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, new egalitarian social structures and social relations emerged, with little use for signalling hierarchical relations. These structures or relations mainly serve to enhance social harmony and defuse interpersonal conflict.

However, some essential elements of politeness, such as respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement, have been retained. These four elements consitute the Politeness Principle, which seems to underlie the Chinese concept of *lǐmào*. Chinese Respectfulness is one's appreciation of others concerning the latter's face, social status and so on. Modesty can be taken as another way of self-denigration. Attitudinal warmth demonstrates one's kindness, consideration and hospitality to others. Refinement implies that one's behaviors towards others meet certain standards. These four elements will be elaborated into four politeness maxims in the later part.

It needs to be pointed out that these four elements, respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement, don't need to co-occur to mark a polite behaviour. With one of them, it is already enough to make the utterance polite. Polite behaviors can be both verbal and nonverbal. Difference should be made between polite content and polite manners.

Apart from the principle of politeness, those of sincerity and balance also underlie the concept of *lǐmào*. Polite behaviors must be carried out sincerely and such bahaviors from self call for similar ones in return by others. The Principle of Sincerity helps takes politeness beyond sentential level into conversation. The Principle of Balance breaks down the boundary between here-and-now conversation, predetermining follow-up talk exchanges after the present conversation comes to an end.

3 Politeness in Chinese Culture

Generally speaking, in order to be polite, Chinese people tend to follow three principles: politeness, sincerity and balance, which are interconnected. Principles of Sincerity and Balance represent two socially sanctioned beliefs about observing the Politeness Principle. The three principles are part of the total politeness phenomena in Chinese culture.

3.1 Politeness Principle

The Politeness Principle consists of four maxims: Self-denigrating Maxim, the Address Maxim, The Tact Maxim and the Generosity Maxim, which constitute a sanctioned belief that one's behaviors should meet the expectatons of respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement. The Princple is regulative and subject to abuse and exploitattion.

3.1.1 Self-denigrating Maxim

As far as the Self-denigrating maxim is concerned, two submaxims, denigrating oneself and elevating others are involved. This is especially evident in various address terms. Self and others have very wide extensions, with physical conditions, mental states, properties, values,

attitudes, writing, family members, relatives, jobs, etc. all falling into these two spheres. Generally speaking, denigrative referring to others or things concerning others is regarded as rude or impolite, and self-elevating referring serves the same function. The distance between self-denigration and other-elevation used to be larger before the founding of PRC, which gave rise to various fixed lexical items to address such differences. Many neutral expressions, which don't show such differences, have come into use, particularly since 1949. Now, the denigrative and elevative ones tend to be formal while those neutral counterparts tend to be informal.

3.1.2 Address Maxim

When it comes to the Address Maxim, it implies addressing your interlocutor with an appropriate address term, which usually poses a challenge to the learners of Chinese as a foreign language. The address terms in China consist of governmental titles, occupational titles, proper names, kinship terms and those address terms marking politeness. Failure to address a person properly may be seen as rudeness. Addressing others may depend on various factors, such as kinship, political superiority, professional prestige, interpersonal familiarity, gender, age, formality of occasion, whether or not belonging to a family, in public or at home. The details concerning them, if they are related to specific lexical items, such as 'teacher lǎoshī 老师', 'little xiǎo 小' have been offered in the sample dictionary entries.

Three major differences between Chinese and English address terms may lead to cross-cultural communication failures. Firstly, contrary to English proper names arranged in given names + middle names + surnames, those Chinese counterparts are made up of surnames + middle names (optional) + given names, exactly in the reverse order. **See name** Suppose middle names do exist in Chinese, they can't be used alone and must co-occur with given names to make up an address term.

Chinese surnames are non-kin public address term, sometimes preceded by a prefix (literal translation) "old" lǎo 老 + surname or (literal translation) "little" xiǎo 小. At the same time, surnames can appear with professions, governmental titles or occupational titles. The combination of middle names and given ones or the latter ones alone are kin familial address terms. Family members of the same generation, like siblings, are entitled to use such combinations. The older generation (like parents, grandparents) can also address the younger generations in this way. The given names are usually reserved for lovers. They are also occasionally used by parents. Using the given names to address a person of the opposite sex may make people being addressed feel uncomfortably close.

Secondly, some Chinese kinship terms have extended and generalized usages, such as grandpa yéye 爷爷, grandma nǎinai 奶奶, uncle shūshū 叔叔, aunt āyí 阿姨. Adopting them to

address people outside one's family is perfectly polite in Chinese culture. However, it is not the case with the corresponding English address forms. Most occupational titles, for example, teacher lǎoshī 老师 (**See teacher**), can be used as address terms in Chinese culture.

Thirdly, when people are of unequal status, in terms of political power, profession, knowledge, age difference, kinship status, etc., meet each other, the inferior usually takes the first turn to address the superior. Whether purposely or unconsciously, failing to do so may leave the superior with a bad impression of the inferior being impolite. For the inferior, the formal address terms are often adopted to acknowledge the unequal status, while the superior may turn to informal address terms for solidarity.

Fourthly, the use of address terms also adheres to the Self-denigration Maxim, which is reflected in the downgraded use of kinship terms. For example, a person may adopt his child's perspective and call some of relatives accordingly. The vocative use of some kinship terms displays asymmetry in keeping with this maxim. For example, younger siblings can address older ones by the vocative use of address terms. However, the older ones usually don't use corresponding terms to address the younger generation. The younger brother dìd 弟弟 may address the elder brother as gēge 哥哥. However, the latter does not address the former as younger brother dìdi 弟弟, since this way of addressing contradicts the Self-denigration Maxim. **See brother, sister**

3.1.3 Maxims of Generosity and Tact

In Chinese culture, people also interact in line with the Maxims of Generosity and Tact, which are characterized by attitudinal warmth and refinement. In view of cost-benefit scale, in Chinese culture, these two maxims are complementary.

Chinese invitations are typical reflections of these two maxims. It is rare that a successful invitation is realized in one utterance. Such an invitation often takes several rounds of talk exchanges. Thus it is better not to regard it as a single speech act. It puts both the inviter' and the invitee's face at risk. Issuing an invitation shows that the inviter is observing the Generosity Maxim: maximizing the benefit to the invitee. Accepting it goes against the Tact Maxim, which requires the invitee to minimize the cost to the inviter. Thus the inviter may invite the latter several times and the invitee may use ritual refusals several times before finally accepting the invitation.

3.2 Principles of Sincerity and Balance

As has been mentioned above, to perform a polite behavior, one must be sincere. It takes politeness beyond the sentential boundary into dialogues in which the principle is duly

observed. The several rounds of talk exchanges invovled in a typical Chinese invitation to a dinner can well illustrate this principle. Despite the refusal or declining from the invitee out of politeness, the inviter usually persists in inviting him or her. If the invitee declines out of politeness concerns, usually over giving extra trouble to the inviter, no follow-up inviting expressions or acts from the latter will be seen as hypocritical.

Chinese people also follow the Principle of Balance, which includes notions like huánlǐ 还礼 (literal translation: return politeness) and qiàn rénqíng 欠人情 (literal translation: be indebted). The first notion, put it in another way, entails that if the speaker is polite to the hearer, say by self-denigration, the latter should also repay this kind of politeness by elevating the former. For the second one, invitation for a dinner can again be a case in point. Suppose a speaker invites a hearer for dinner. The hearer should find a chance to repay this kind of generosity. Acting in this way makes the politeness go beyond the boundary of one transaction as well as provides the link between different transactions. Thus, the principle of balance is not limited to the boundary of the present conversation, but determines in advance the follow-up talk exchanges long after the present conversation comes to an end.

II Pragmatics in Interaction

1	Apology
2	Criticism
3	Giving and Receiving Thanks
4	Greeting
5	Refusing
6	Request
7	Responses to Compliments
8	Saying Goodbye
9	Suggestions

1 Apology

You need to apologize for doing something wrong or causing inconveniences to others. Dedending on the severity of the mistake or error, the degree of such inconveniences, the gap in the social status between you and the hearer and your familarity with the hearer, the apology may vary in the degree of politeness. It is usually the case that as the severity of one's mistake, the degree of inconvenience or the gap in the social status increases, and the familarity between communicators decreases, the need for polite apologies increases.

	Making apologies	Accepting apologies
Neutral	Sorry duìbúqǐ对不起 Sorry duìbúqǐ对不起	That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 It's nothing méi shénme 没什么
Casual	I'm sorry bú hǎo yìsī 不好意思	It's nothing méi shì(r) 没事（儿）
Polite	Sorry bàoqiàn 抱歉 Sorry, I am wrong. wǒ bú duì我不对 Sorry, I am wrong. wǒ cuò le 我错了 Really sorry. zhēn de bú hǎo yìsī 真的不好意思 I am truly sorry. zhēn de duì bú qǐ 真的对不起 I am very sorry. fēicháng duì bú qǐ 非常对不起	That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 That's all right méi guānxi 没关系 It doesn't matter méi guānxi 没关系

2 Criticism

Criticism is complex in Chinese culture. Usually, criticisers try to avoid hurting the other party's face, as in many other cultures. Therefore, it is not unusual that direct criticisms are avoided. However, there are cases such direct criticisms are still adopted, especially by those senior in age, rank or social status. The following are just some examples of commonly used patterns of criticisms.

Criticism	patterms	Examples
Direct	（ ） … shouldn't/can't…(…) bù néng … (…) 不能… … is/are wrong shì bú duì de … 是不对的	You shouldn't sing during working hours. shàngbān shíjiān bù néng chànggē。上班时间不能唱歌。 It is wrong to do like this. zhèyàng zuò shì bú duì de。这样做是不对的。
Indirect	Look, … nǐ kàn nǐ （你）看你 …is somehting concerning……shì …wèntí。…是…问题。 I hope… wǒ xīwàng…我希望…	Look, how come you buy these books? nǐ kàn nǐ，zěnme mǎi le zhèxiē shū？你看你，怎么买了这些书？ This is not something concerning money. This is a big problem. zhè bú shì qián de wèntí，zhè shì yīge dà wèntí。这不是钱的问题，这是一个大问题。 I hope you won't do that again. wǒ xīwàng nǐ búyào zhèyàng zuò le。我希望你不要这样做了。

3 Giving and Receiving Thanks

When a person shows gratitude to another in Chinese, the following expressions can be useful for beginners. Generally speaking, Chinese usually don't thank a present given by others or a favor done to them. They tend to extend gratitude to the other party, not to the specific favor they have received. Otherwise it may sound impolite to the hearer.

The need for neutral, casual or polite thanks and the ways to receive them are decided by formality of the occasion, the familality between the communicators, the gap in social status or age. Generally speaking, the more informal the situation is, the smaller the gap in age or social rank is, and the more familiar the communicators are with each other, the less the need to use the polite way to express one's gratitude is. Otherwise more polite expressions will be needed.

	Giving thanks	Receiving thanks
Neutral	Thanks xièxie 谢谢 Thank you xièxie nǐ谢谢你	You're welcome bú yòng xiè 不（用）谢 It is nothing. méi guānxì 没关系 **See matter**
Casual	Many thanks (duō)xiè le 多谢 thanks xiè le 谢了	It is nothing. méi shìr) 没事(儿) It is nothing méi shénme 没什么
Polite	Thank you xièxie nín 谢谢您 Thank you so much tài xièxie nín le 太谢谢您了 I feel awfully sorry for inconveniencing you to invite me for food. zhēn de bú hǎo yìsī ràng nǐ qǐng wǒ chī fàn 真的不好意思让你请我吃饭。	You are welcome. bú (yòng) kèqì 不（用）客气 Same Same

4 Greeting

In the table below are some common ways that Chinese use to greet each other and the possible responses from the hearer. Chinese tend to greet each other by enquiring about the current status of affairs of the addressee. This is not a way to probe into people's privacy，but serves a phatic function, just like talkinging about weather in English conversations. They show great respect towards the elders. Usually the senior people who are present will initiate the greetings, and before greeting others, you should greet the oldest people first.

Polite	Hello nín hǎo 您好	Same
Neutral	How are you nǐ /nǐmen hǎo 你/你们好 **See <u>you</u>** Good morning zǎoshàng hǎo 早上好 Good afternoon xiàwǔ hǎo 下午好 Good evening wǎnshàng hǎo 晚上好	Same Same Same Same
casual	Moring zǎo a 早啊 Are you going out to buy something? nǐ yào qù mǎi dōngx ma？你要去买东西吗？ Whare are you going? nǐqù nǎr a？你去哪儿啊？ Have you finished your meal? nǐ chī le ma？你吃了吗？ **See <u>body</u>, <u>eat</u>, <u>health</u>, <u>where</u>**	Same Yeah duì对 Justing going out. chūqù yīxià。出去一下。 ***See INSERT* on yíxià（r）一下(儿)** I have. How about you? (wǒ) chī le，nǐ ne？吃了，你呢？

5 Refusing

In terms of refusal in Chinese, indirectness usually characterizes its style and expressions. No matter what you're refusing, an offer or a request, it is important to bear in mind that refusal is not easy. Before taking an offer, you may need to perform ritual refusals several times, depending on how much the offer inconveniences the offerer. Such ritual refusals are usually not performed among friends, but among strangers or acquaintances. In this way, you may be regarded as a person of good upbringing. In contrast, immediate acceptance of others' offer without even a ritual refusal may impress others as being greedy. At the same time, ritual refusal is also a way to know whether the offerer is sincere in performing the offer. If you really do not want to take an offer, you should be firm in attitude. Usually you will explain why you decline it, which is more polite for the occasion. Below is one of example of sincere offer. (between two acquaintances):

A: 'please stay for dinner at our place. zài wǒ jiā chī fàn ba! 在我家吃晚饭吧！'

B: 'No, no. That's too much trouble. bù le, bù le, tài máfán le。不了，不了，太麻烦了。'

A: 'No trouble at all. The food just needs to be warmed up. bù máfán, fàn rè yíxià jiù xíng le。不麻烦，饭热一下就行了。' ***See INSERT on* yíxià（r）一下(儿)**

B: 'Please don't.''búyòng le。' '不用了。'

A: 'There is really no trouble at all. zhēn de bù máfán。真的不麻烦。'

B: 'Ok, then I won't stand on ceremony. hǎo ba, nà wǒ jiù bú kèqì le。好吧，那我就不客气了。

As far as the refusal of requests is concerned, indirectness is generally characteristic of such refusal as well. For a person to refuse a request, the higher the power of the addressee, the more familiar the speaker with the addressee, the smaller the request, the more indirect the refusal will be. However, suppose the requests are put forth by strangers, or by other parties who are not in the position to put forth such a request or the requests are inappropriate, Chinese tend to refuse directly with a strong tone. To convey such a tone, Chinese usually adopt rherorical questions or direct refusal.The direct refusal may usually take the form of "bú 不+ verb", or indicate one doesn't want or can't agree to the request.

Eg.1: A: 'Do you want to go? nǐ qù ma？你去吗？'

B: 'I don't want to go with you. wǒ bú xiǎng hé nǐ qù。我不想和你去。'

Eg.2: A: 'Can you go to school with me? nǐ néng hé wǒ qù xuéxiào ma？你能和我去学校吗？ ' B: 'I can't go to school. （wǒ）bú néng（hé nǐ qù xuéxiào）。我不能 (和你去学校)。'

Because Chinese people tend to be indirect in refusing a request or offer, sometimes such refusals may make the addressees feel Chinese people are insincere，since they may hear no further actions or responses from the speaker. Actually this is just for the sake of avoiding giving a flat refusal, thus achieving the face-saving purpose.

Typical expressions they would use on these occasions may include:

Let's talk about this (later)! (yǐhòu) zài shuō ba！(以后)再说吧！'

Let me think about it (further) ！ràng wǒ (zài) zài xiǎng yi xiǎng！ 让我(再)想一想！

Let's consider it (further) ！ràng wǒ men (zài) kǎo lǜ kǎo lǜ！ 让我们(再)考虑考虑[4]！

Let's see how it goes! zài kàn/ shuō ba！ 再看/说吧！

6 Request

When you ask others to do things, in most cases, you may need to be polite by putting forth your request indirectly, except in situations where factors like power or status differences dominate. Usually the more unequal the status is, the more polite the expressions are. Meanwhile, the polite expression is also decided by the degree of imposition or the inconvenience that the request may cause the hearer, and the importance of the action to the speaker. Disfamiliarity with the hearers also requires more politeness in making a request. However, when undue politeness is adopted in the situations where such forms of request are not expected, it may convey sarcasm instead of politeness.

When Chinese are making requests, they comply with the principle of indirectness to be polite. Usually, between couples, members of the same family, close friends and relatives, direct requests are often made. However, among acquaintances, ordinary friends and strangers, indirect requests would be preferred. It is common for Chinese to beat about the bush by conducting several rounds of small talks before making a request. For the beginners of Chinese, the following forms of requests may prove helpful.

request	
Direct	Come in! jìnlái! 进来 Don't come in. bié jìnlái 别进来 **See do** (teacher to student) I want you to come to school right now. wǒ yào nǐ xiànzài lái xuéxiào 。我要你现在来学校。**See order** I order you to go. wǒ yào/jiào nǐ qù。 我要/叫你去。 You have to go. nǐ děi qù。 你得去。 Come in, please. jìn lái yīxià! 进来一下! **See INSERT on yīxià一下** Come in, please. jìnlái ba! 进来吧!
Indirect	I want you to go. wǒ xiǎng ràng nǐ qù。 我想让你去。 How about your going there? nǐ qù nàlǐ zěnmeyàng? 你去那里怎么样? Can you give me a hand? bāng wǒ yíxià, hǎoma/kěyǐ ma? 帮我一下，好吗/可以吗? **See can** Can you buy me something? nǐ néng bù néng gěi wǒ mǎi xiē dōngxī? 你能不能给我买些东西? I think you should go there. wǒ kàn/ juédé nǐ háishì qù yítàng nàlǐ ba! 我看/觉得你还是去一趟那里吧! I wonder if you can send me to the train station? bù zhīdào nǐ néng bù néng sòng wǒ qù huǒchēzhàn? 不知道你能不能送我去火车站?

Even the indirect requests above sometimes appear 'too direct' to Chinese. In China, an indirect request may take several rounds of talk exchanges. Usually Chinese tend to reveal their true purpose or intention at the end of these exchanges. Putting forth a request too directly is usually considered impolite in Chinese culture. The following is a simplified version of an indirect request. This doesn't imply that Chinese are hypocritical. This is just a part of Chinese culture.

A: 'Have you had your dinner? (wǎn) fàn chī le méiyǒu?（晚）饭吃了没有?'

B: 'Yes. chī le。吃了。'

A: 'What did you have? chī de shénme fàn? 吃的什么饭?'

B: 'Rice. mǐfàn。米饭。'

A: 'By the way, are you going out this evening? duì le, nǐmen wǎnshàng chūqù ma? 对了，你们晚上出去吗?

B: 'No, we are staying at home. bù, wǒmen zài jiā. 不，我们在家。'

A: 'Then you won't use your bicycle, will you? nà nǐmen bú yòng zìxíngchē ba? 那你们不用自行车吧?'

B: 'No, we won't. duì, wǒmen bú yòng. 对，我们不用。'

A: ' Can I use it? wǒ kěyǐ yòng yíxià ma? 我可以用一下吗?'

B: 'No problem. méi wèntí! 没问题!' **See problem**

7 Responses to Compliments

Owing to the cultural influences, Chinese tend to deny the compliments another person pays. This forms great contrast to many western cultures, in which people generally accept compliments by others with gratitude. Thus, learning to respond properly to compliments in Chinese culture, which is based on the principle of other-praising and self-denigration can be challenging to foreign learners of Chinese. A simple xièxiè 谢谢 in any situation to a compliment may make others think you are immodest. Generally speaking, expressions like '(*lit.*) Where, where? (i.e. You're flatteringme.) nail nǎli。 哪里哪里。', '(*lit.*) Look at what you say (i.e. That's not the case.) kàn nǐ/nín shuō de 看你/您说的' and 'I don't deserve it. bú gǎn dāng 不敢当' are often used to evade or reject others' praise. The negation will usually targeting others' praise of one's capability and performance.

However, recent empirical studies have shown that Chinese responses to compliments have been changing, with acceptance or acknowledgement of other people's compliments gradually becoming acceptable to Chinese, especially among young people in cities. Their positive response may take the form of xièxie 谢谢, or appear in other forms, such as question-forms like 'It can't be true. bú huì ba不会吧？', 'Is it so? shì ma 是吗？^really? zhēn de ma？真的吗',. On the surface, they still appear to be evading or rejecting the compliments, at least to some extent. Actually, they can be taken as partial acceptance of the compliments. These evading expressions may be accompanied by some negative views concerning what the compliment is targeting.

Eg.: A: 'Your clothes look beautiful. nǐ de yīfú hěn piàoliàng. 你的衣服很漂亮。'

B: ' It can't be true. I have bought them for five years. bù kěnéng ba! wǒ yǐjīng mǎi le wǔnián le. 不可能吧！我已经买了五年了。'

Evading and partial rejections of should be differentiated from those complete rejections intended to display modesty.

8 Saying Goodbye

Chinese people when taking leave or seeing someone off tend to use certain formulaic expressions, some of which may incorporate innate politeness values. The expressions in the table are commonly used, which can meet the needs of beginners.

	Leaving	Seeing off
Neutral	See you tomorrow míngtiān jiàn 明天见 See you next week xià xīngqī jiàn 下星期见 Goodbye zài jiàn 再见	Same Same Same
Polite	You can be busy with your work. nǐ/nín máng ba 您/你忙吧！ **See busy** You can be busy with your work. nǐ/nín máng ba 您/你忙吧!	Walk slowly(goodbye) 慢走 màn zǒu No seeing out bú sòng le 不送了 **See see, slowly**
casual	Got to go zǒu le 走了 Bye(-bye) bàibai 拜（拜）	Bye ei 欸 Same

9 Suggestions

While making suggestions, Chinese generally tend to be indirect. They may adopt different words or systactic structures to give suggestions. They in many cases avoid the direct suggestions and put them into questions, imperative sentences and soft suggestions, unless factors like the power of the speaker, the social distance between the speaker and the hearer and so on entitle the speaker to suggest directly. The different forms of suggestions for Chinese beginners are listed out as follows.

Direct suggestions	I think…. wǒ kàn…我看… I think it is good to do this way. wǒ kàn zhèyàng zuò hǎo。我看这样做好。 I think…我觉得… wǒ juedé…I think it is better to go there. wǒ juedé qù nàlǐ hǎo xiē。我觉得去那里好些。 I hope… wǒ xīwàng 我希望…I hope you won't go. wǒ xīwàng nǐ búyào qù。我希望你不要去。 I think… wǒ rènwéi…我认为… I think we should go there today. wǒ rènwéi wǒmen yīnggāi jīntiān qù。我认为我们应该今天去。 Please… qǐng…请… Please go there in the morning. qǐng zǎoshàng qù。请早上去。
Indirect suggestions	How about…?…… zěnmeyàng？…怎么样？ How about this one? zhè gè zěnmeyàng？这个怎么样？ How about…?… …hǎo ma？…好吗？ How about buying this? mǎi zhègè hǎo ma？ 买这个好吗？ Why…zěnme…怎么… Why don't you go? zěnme nǐ bú qù ne？你怎么不去呢？（！ **Feeling** *This can also show the speaker's surprise.*） Isn't …… shì bú shì…… …是不是… Isn't this one very good? zhège shì bú shì hěn hǎo？这个是不是很好？ …？ …ma? …吗？ Don't you go? nǐ bú qù ma？你不去吗？ …！ …ba! …吧！ Let's go. wǒmen qù ba！我们去吧！

III Particles

1	ba 吧
2	le 了
3	ma 吗
4	ne 呢
5	yíxià （ r ） 一 下 （儿）

Included in this part are four modal particles and one verbal particle. On the surface, the last one appears to be different from the former four. However, in terms of the pragmatic functions they have, they all can imply certain speaker's attitude or feelings. Thus they are collected under the same title.

1 ba 吧

ba 吧 is one of the most commonly used modal particles, which usually appears at the end of a sentence. It can be used to show various tones of speakers. It can also be adopted to help perform certain speech functions.

Firstly, it can be employed to indicate entreaty, suggestion, command, etc.

Eg.1: Let's go back home. wǒmen huíjiā ba！我们回家吧！

Eg.2: You may go to buy some fruits at noon. nǐ zhōngwǔ qù mǎi shuíguǒ ba！ 你中午去买水果吧！

Secondly, it can be used for indicating agreement or acknowledgment at the end of the sentence.

Eg.1: Ok, you can go to the shop. hǎo ba，nǐ kéyǐ qù shāngdiàn。好吧，你可以去商店。

Eg.2: Noon may do. zhōngwǔ kéyǐ ba！ 中午可以吧！

Lastly, it can be used to display the speaker's uncertainty.

Eg.1: He will come, won't he? tā huì lái ba？ 他会来吧?

Eg.2: Those fruits may be expensive. nà xiē shuíguǒ kěnéng hěn guì ba! 那些水果可能很贵吧!

2 le 了

le 了 is usually used as an aspect marker in Chinese, since Chinese doesn't have the equivalent syntactic and lexical means in English to indicate it. le 了 is usually placed at the end of the verb to refer to a past event. For example, I saw him. wǒ kànjiàn le tā。我看见了他。Meanwhile, it can also be used to refer to a completed action. For example, He finished reading. tā kàn wán le。他看完了。At the same time, le 了 is often used to indicate the change of the state. Eg.: It rained. xiàyǔ le。下雨了。 It has become cold. tiānqì lěng le。天气冷了。

Besides, le 了 can also be used as a modal particle to display certain tones, thus helping perform the corresponding speech functions, like stopping someone from doing something or hurrying somebody along. For the first usage, it often co-occurs with bié 别 and búyào 不要。 Stop talking! bié shuō le! 别说了！ búyào shuō le! 不要说了。 These two examples carry illocutionary force of stopping others from talking. In the meantime, it can also be used to hurry somebody along, which displays the speaker's impatience, displeasure, and so on. Eg.: Get going. zǒu le，zǒu le! 走了，走了！ Well, let's go. hǎo le，wǒmen zǒu ba。好了，我们走吧。 At the same time, le 了 can be used to soften the tone of rejection of an offer or invitation. **See no**

3 ma 吗

ma 吗 is a yes-no question marker in Chinese, used for turning a declarative sentence into a question. At the same time, it can also perform other functions, for which English doesn't have equivalents. These functions can be realized through lexical or grammatical means in English. Two examples can help illustrate their functions:

Eg.1: 'Didn't you go there yesterday? zuótiān nǐ bú shì qù nǎr le ma? 昨天你不是去哪儿了吗？'

Eg.2: 'Haven't you make a call to him? nǐ hái méiyǒu gěi tā dǎ diànhuà ma? 你还没有给他打电话吗？'

In these two examples, ma 吗 appears in rhetorical questions with bú shì 不是 and hái 还 for emphasis.

At the same time, ma 吗 can also be used within a sentence to mark a pause, so as to draw the addressee's attention:

Eg.1: 'As for your book, I haven't bought. nǐ de shū ma， wǒ hái méiyǒu mǎi ne！ 你的书吗，我还没有买呢！'

Eg.2: 'For me, I can understand your question. nǐ de wèntí ma，wǒ kéyǐ dǒng。 你的问题吗，我可以懂。' **See be**

4 ne 呢

ne 呢, which doesn't have an equivalent in English, is one of the most frequently used modal particles in Chinese，which may help to change the tone of a sentence. It can serve several functions.

Firstly, ne 呢 can be used to indicate questions for a subject already mentioned or picked up:

Eg.1: A: 'Have you had your meal yet? nǐ chī le méiyǒu？ 你吃了没有？'

B: Yes, I have. How about you? ' ''—'wǒ chī guò le。 nǐ ne？' ''—'我吃过了。你呢？'

Eg.2: He has gone to school. What about you？ tā qù shàngxué le。nǐ ne？ 他去上学了。你呢？

All the examples above with ne 呢 help point to the subject the speaker has mentioned.

Secondly, it can be used to indicate an action or state is continuing:

Eg.1: He is still singing. tā hái zài chànggē ne! 他还在唱歌呢！

Eg.2: That man is still having tea. nàge rén hái zài hē chá ne! 那个人还在喝茶呢！ **See be**

Thirdly, ne 呢 can be used to introduce a topic:

Eg.1: As for this question, you can ask your teacher. zhège wèntí ne，nǐ kéyǐ wèn lǎoshī。这个问题呢，你可以问老师。

Eg.2: With regard to the book you talked about, we have bought it. nǐ shuō de nàběn shū ne，wǒmen mǎi le。你说的那本书呢，我们买了。

Last, ne 呢 can be also used to mark emphasis or create suspense:

Eg.1: There is still one hour to go before I go to work. wǒ shàngbān háiyǒu yì xiǎoshí ne！ 我上班还有一小时呢！

Eg.2: The bicycle was only newly bought. zhè liàng zìxíngchē shì xīn mǎi de ne！这辆自行车是新买的呢！

5 yíxià（r）一下(儿)

yíxià（r）一下(儿) is a frequently used spoken expression that can appear after many verbs to indicate different meanings. Generally speaking, verb + yíxià（r）一下（儿） can be used with verbs to perform four speech acts, such as getting the hearer to do something, asserting something, committing the speaker to the future course of action or expressing the psychological state about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content.

Firstly, the use of yíxià（r）一下（儿）can help soften the tone of the utterance in directives and help make a request less direct. 'Come over! lái 来！' can be a very direct request, sounding impolite. However, when yíxià（r）一下（儿）is added to lái 来, the request becomes less indirect. It doesn't follow yī xià（r）一下（儿）necessarily implies that the degree intended by the speaker is low or the time to be consumed is short.

Secondly, in assertives, the speaker may imply a casual attitude towards the event expressed. In the view of the speaker, the event is not one of great importance. Eg.: A: 'You look well, are you jogging everyday? nǐ de shēntǐ hěn hǎo, tiāntiān pǎobù ma？你的身体很好，天天跑步吗？' B: 'If I have time, I will jog a bit. Yǒu shíjiān de huà, wǒ jiù qù pǎo yíxià bù. 有时间的话我就去跑一下步。'

Thirdly, in offers, yíxià（r）一下(儿) is intended to lower the value of something that a speaker offers to a hearer, even if in reality the speaker still needs to do his or her best. By downplaying its importance, the speaker can make the hearer feel less indebted. Eg.: I can make a little preparation. wǒ lái zhǔnbèi yíxià。我来准备一下。In reality, the speaker may spend hours, even days making preparations. However, he will still say in this way to be more polite.

Fourthly, when yíxià（r）一下（儿）occurs in blaming, it is intended for reducing the severity of the hearer's mistake. It can can soften the tone of criticism and be more polite. Eg.: Why you don't ask us? nǐ wèishénme bú wèn wǒmen yíxià ne？你为什么不问我们一下呢？If yíxià（r）一下（儿） is omitted form this sentence, the question may imply a strong criticism.

IV Topics You can Take Up with Chinese

1	Age
2	Children
3	Health
4	Hometown
5	Income
6	Job
7	Marital Status
8	Weight

People from English-speaking countries generally don't like others to probe into their privacy and so weather can make a good topic for a common conversation. However, Chinese usually don't talk about weather. Some topics the western-people take as their private matters may make good topics for Chinese. In conversations, Chinese tend to pick up topics like age, children, income, health, hometown, job, marital status, weight. These topics don't imply that Chinese people tend to nose into people's privacy, but rather show their concern for the interests of others. This is very common among acquaitances. Many Chinese consider sharing information of such kinds important for the progress of the conversation. They may also be important for strengthening the solidarity between people. The following are some simplified examples for illustration. For detailed information, one can turn to relevant specific entries.

Age

A: 'How old are you? ' nǐ duō dà le？你多大了？'

B:'I'm thirty one. 'wǒ sānshíyī le。我三十一了。' **See age**

Children

A: 'How many children do you have? nǐ yǒu jǐ ge háizǐ？你有几个孩子？'

B: 'Three. sānge。三个。'

A: 'Are they boys or girls? tāmen shì nánhái háishì nǚhái？他们是男孩还是女孩？ '

B: 'One girl, two boys. yīge nǚhái，liǎngge nánhái 。一个女孩，两个男孩。'

Health

A: 'How are you? nǐ shēntǐ zěnmeyàng？你身体怎么样？'

B: 'Just so-so. háixíng。还行。

'You don't look well. '

—'Yeah, I have some headache and can't sleep. '

'nǐ kàn zhe shēntǐ bú tài hǎo。'

—' jiù shì，wǒ de tóu yǒuxiē téng，shuì bú zhao jiào。'

'你看着身体不太好。'

—'就是，我的头有些疼，睡不着觉。' **See body, health, well**

Hometown

A: 'Where are you from? nǐ cóng nǎlǐ lái a？你从哪里来啊？ '

B: 'I'm from Gansu. wǒ cóng Gānsù lái。我从甘肃来。'

A: 'Which part of Gansu? Gānsù shénme dìfāng a？甘肃什么地方啊？'

B: 'Baiyin. Báiyín。白银。'

Income

A: 'How much can you make per month? nǐ yíge yuè zhèng duōshǎo qián？你一个月挣多少钱？'

B: 'A bit more than 2, 000 Yuan. liǎngqiān （yuán）duō yīdiǎn。两千（元）多一点。'

Job

A: 'What is your job? nǐ gàn shénme gōngzuò a？你干什么工作啊？'

B: 'I'm a teacher. wǒ shì lǎoshī。我是老师。'

Marital Status

A: 'Are you married? nǐ jiéhūn le méiyǒu？你结婚了没有？ '

B: 'No yet. I'm only twenty five. hái méiyǒu， wǒ cái èrshíwǔ suì。还没有，我才二十五岁。'

Weight

A: 'How many kilos do you weigh now? You seem to have gained weight. nǐ xiànzài duō zhòng a？nǐ hǎoxiàng zhǎng pàng le。你现在多重啊？（你）好像长胖了。'

B: 'Already 75 kilos. I should do some running every day. yǐjīng 75 gōngjīn le。 wǒ yīnggāi měitiān qù pǎobù le。已经 75 公斤了。我应该每天去跑步了。'

Appendix 18: Pragmatics Test 1

xìng míng

姓　名(Name):_____

Your reasons for learning Chinese (Please tick in the box before an answer. You can choose more than one.)

☐ To be equipped for the future

☐ To communicate with Chinese family members, friends or relatives

☐ Fascinated by Chinese language and/or culture

☐ To travel in China

☐ Others (please specify)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Instructions: Please read the following questions, choose the best answer and fill it into the table at the end of the test.

1. While talking with Chinese, there are some topics that you can speak on.

   Among the four topics below, which one Chinese acquaintance usually will **not** discuss with you?

   tǐzhòng　　tiānqì　niánlíng　　shōurù

   A. 体 重（weight）　B. 天气　C. 年 龄 （age）　D. 收 入（income）

2. You are an overseas student learning Chinese in China. One day, you need to go to Department of Teaching Affairs and consult a male clerk there about the selection of an elective course. How would you address him politely?

   xiānshēng　lǎoshī　wèi　tā de míngzì

   A．先 生　B. 老 师　C. 喂　D. 他的 名 字

3. One day, you went to buy some apples and overheard the apple seller talk to a customer, “nǐ mǎi bu mǎi you buy not buy 你 买 不买? ”. What attitude does his way of talking reveal?

   bú nàifán　rèqíng

   A. 不耐烦(impatience)　B. 热 情(hospitality)

   kèqì　lěngmò

   C. 客气 (politeness)　D. 冷 漠 (indifference)

4. You friend didn’t come to school yesterday. When he comes to school today, how would you ask him politely about the reason why he didn’t attend class?

   nǐ wèishénme zuótiān bù lái shàng kè

A．你 为什么　　昨 天 不 来 上　　课？

nǐ wèishénme zuótiān méi lái shàng kè

B. 你 为 什 么 昨 天 没 来 上　　课？

nǐ zuótiān bù lái shàng kè ba

C. 你 昨 天 不 来上　课　吧？

nǐ zuótiān bù lái shàng kè ma

D. 你 昨　天不 来 上　课　吗？

5. One day, you heard a driver talk to a passenger, “nǐ kàn nǐ you look you 你看你”. What will he do to the customer next?

bāngzhù　　zànyáng

A. 帮 助　　B. 赞 扬（praise）

pīpíng　　huānyíng

C. 批 评（criticize）　D. 欢 迎 (welcome)

6. One day, a friend comes to visit you. You two chat for a while. Then he says to you: “nǐ máng you busy 你 忙”. What does he mean?

nǐ zhēn máng　　nǐ tài máng le

A 你 真　忙　　B. 你太　忙　了

shuō zàijiàn　　nǐ yīnggāi　　xiūxí yíxià

C. 说　再 见　　D. 你 应 该 (should) 休 息一下（rest a bit）

7. A friend invites you to lunch one day. You have to attend class in the afternoon. So what should you say to him?

bù le　bù le　yīnwéi　　wǒ búqù yīnwéi

A. 不 了，不了，因 为(because)…　B. 我 不去，因 为(because)…

bù　yīnwéi　　búqù　yīnwéi

C. 不，因为(because)…　　D. 不 去，因 为(because)…

8. You need to consult a dictionary. One of your classmates has one, which he is not using at the moment. He lends it to you. How should you express your gratitude?

xiè xiè nǐ de cídiǎn　　xiè xiè nín de cídiǎn

A. 谢　谢你 的词 典　B. 谢 谢　您　的 词 典

xiè xiè　　zhēn de xiè xiè nín

C. 谢 谢　　D.　真　的 谢 谢 您

9. On the way home, you meet a friend whom you haven’t seen for quite some time. You want to invite him home for a visit. What should you say to your friend?

qù wǒ jiā zuò　　qù wǒ jiā　zuò zuò

A. 去 我 家 坐　　B. 去 我 家　坐　坐

lái wǒ jiā zuò　　qù wǒ jiā

C. 来 我 家 坐　　D. 去 我 家

10. You are a university teacher. One day you stand near the door of the library. You hear the librarian say to you: “zhè wèi lǎoshī this teacher 这位老师”. What will he say later?

biǎo yáng　　shuō zàijiàn

A.表 扬（praise）　B. 说　再 见

pīpíng　　dǎ zhāohū

C. 批 评（criticize）D. 打招 呼（greet）

Question	1	2	3	4	5
Answer					
Question	6	7	8	9	10
Answer					

Appendix 19: Pragmatics Test 2

xìng míng

姓　名(Name):_____

Instructions: Please read the following questions, choose the best answer and fill it into the table at the end of the test.

1. Your brother's school is going to have a sports meet tomorrow. The next day, early in the morning, he hears someone saying something about umbrella. He murmurs to himself: "bié shì xià yǔ le ba？ Not be raining? 别是下雨了吧？". What does he mean by this expression?

tā gǎndào　　fènnù　　tā gǎndào yìwài

A. 他感到 (feel)　愤怒 (angry)　　B. 他 感到　意外 (surprised)

tā gǎndào shīwàng　　tā gǎndào bú quèdìng

C. 他 感到　失望 (disappointed)　　D. 他 感到　不 确 定 (uncertain)

2. While talking with Chinese, there are some topics that you can speak on. Among the four topics below, which one Chinese acquaintances usually will **NOT** discuss with you?

tǐzhòng　　tiānqì

A. 体 重（weight）　　B. 天气

niánlíng　　shōurù

C. 年 龄 （age）　　D. 收 入（income）

3. Your and your younger sister are waiting for the visit of your friend.

Your sister: "tā huì lái ma? Will he come? 他会来吗？"

—You: "tā huì lái ba? Will he come? 他会来吧？"

What do you imply by saying this?

jiànyì　　bú quèdìng

A. 建议 (suggesting)　　B. 不 确定 (showing uncertainty)

tóngyì　　zhìyí

C. 同意 (agreeing)　　D. 质疑 (doubting)

4. You are an overseas student learning Chinese in China. One day, you need to go to Department of Teaching Affairs and consult a male clerk there about the selection of an elective course. How would you address him politely?

xiānshēng　　lǎoshī

A．先 生　　B. 老 师

wèi　　tā de míngzì

C.　喂　　D.　他的 名　字

5. One night, you prepared for the exam until after midnight. Your mom woke up to find you working and said to you: “dà wǎnshàng de, nǐ zài gàn shénme? Big night, you are doing what? 大晚上的，你在干什么？”. What kind of feeling does this imply?

gāoxìng　　jīdòng

A. 高兴　　B. 激动 (excitement)

bùān　　bùmǎn

C. 不安 (uneasiness)　　D. 不满 (dissatisfaction)

6. On the way home, you meet a friend whom you haven’t seen for quite some time. You want to invite him home for a visit. What should you say to your friend?

qù wǒ jiā zuò　　qù wǒ jiā　zuò zuò

A. 去 我 家　坐　　B. 去 我 家　坐　坐

lái wǒ jiā zuò　　qù wǒ jiā

C. 来 我　家　坐　　D. 去 我　家

7. If you overhear someone talking to another person about Li Ming: “(lǐ Míng hěn huì shuō huà。Li Ming very can speaking. 李明很会说话。”). By saying this, what is the speaker actually doing?

biǎoyáng　　pīpíng

A. 表扬 (praising)　　B. 批评 (criticizing)

fěngcì　　gǎnxiè

C. 讽刺 (satirizing)　　D. 感谢 (thanking)

8. One day, you heard a driver talk to a passenger, “nǐ kàn nǐ　you look you 你看你”. What kind of utterance does the passenger expect next?

bāngzhù　　zànyáng

A. 帮 助　　B. 赞 扬（praise）

pīpíng　　huānyíng

C. 批 评（criticism）　　D. 欢　迎　(welcome)

9. After having studied in Australia for two years, your Chinese friend is leaving for China for good. While giving him an expensive gift, you decide to say something in accordance with Chinese politeness:

zhè shì zhēnguì　　de　lǐwù

A. 这 是　珍贵 (valuable)　的 礼物。

xīwàng　nǐ xǐhuān zhè jiàn lǐwù 。

B. 希望　你 喜欢　这　件　礼物。

zhè shì (wǒ de)　yīdiǎn xiǎo yìsī 。

C. 这　是（我 的）　一点　小　意思。

zhè jiàn lǐwù　hěn zhēnguì

D. 这 件 礼物 很 珍贵。

10. One day, a friend comes to visit you. You two chat for a while. Then he says to you: “nǐ máng you busy 你 忙”. What does he mean?

nǐ zhēn máng　　nǐ tài máng le

A. 你 真 忙　　B. 你太 忙 了

shuō zàijiàn　　nǐ yīnggāi　　xiūxí yíxià

C. 说 再 见　　D. 你 应 该 (should) 休 息一下（rest a bit）

The frequency of using sample E-C dictionary entries

☐ Almost daily

☐ Several times per week

☐ Occasionally

☐ Scarcely

Suggestions for improving the pragmatic information in the sample E-C dictionary entries.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Question	1	2	3	4	5
Answer					
Question	6	7	8	9	10
Answer					

Appendix 20 (Ethics Approval) of this thesis has been removed as it may contain sensitive/confidential content