History and Current Trends of Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language: Investigating approaches to teaching and learning Cantonese

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## History and Current Trends of Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language: Investigating approaches to teaching and learning Cantonese

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1. Introduction

Research and literature about teaching English as a Second/Foreign language are abundant in the language teaching field. However, until today there is limited research on the teaching of Cantonese, a language variety used in Hong Kong and southern China, as a foreign language. As reported in the UCLA language materials project, there are now approximately 64 million speakers of Cantonese in the world (UCLA 2001). There are about 46 million speakers in Guangdong (Kwangtung) Province and over 6 million in Hong Kong. Cantonese speakers can also be found in southern China, Malaysia, Vietnam, Macao, Singapore, Indonesia and among Chinese immigrants all over the world. According to the population census done by the Hong Kong government, 89.2% of the Hong Kong population\(^1\) use Cantonese as their "usual language" (Hong Kong Government 2001). There are also sizable Cantonese speaking communities in Canada, the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and some other European countries. Nowadays, some universities and institutions in Asia (The Chinese University of Hong Kong, University of Hong Kong, University of Science and Technology in Hong Kong, Tokyo University and Tokyo University of Foreign Studies), in the United Kingdom (SOAS of London University) and in the United States (for example, Foreign Service Institute, Harvard, New York, Cornell, Brigham Young, and Indiana Universities) are offering Cantonese courses. Although the number of learners of Cantonese is not as big as that of learners of English as a Second/Foreign language, as a Cantonese teacher, I think its history and its important economic and cultural role make it worth studying. This thesis appears to be the first systematic study of the history and teaching methodologies in the field of Teaching Cantonese.

\(^1\) Hong Kong has a population of over 6.5 million (Hong Kong Government 2001)
Teaching and learning of Cantonese as a foreign language was started systematically in the 16th century in Macao, Canton and Hong Kong. The learners were European and American missionaries, traders and expatriate government officials. These learners not only played a significant role in contemporary Chinese history and in cultural exchange between East and West, but also made significant contributions to the establishment of sinology as an academic discipline and to the development of the teaching and learning of Chinese (Mandarin and other dialects spoken in China) as a foreign language. After the Opium Wars and the colonization of Hong Kong, Hong Kong became an active international port, where East met West. Western ideas and concepts had profound influence upon the Chinese community. Learning of Cantonese continued and was developed further in Hong Kong by missionaries, traders and government officials, who also had vital influence in the social and economic development of the area. With this historical background, Hong Kong played and still plays an important role in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language.

TCFL is an interesting field. However in the field there is a lack of systematic research for teachers, curriculum designers, materials developers, administrators, teacher trainers and researchers to follow. Some scholars (Li & Richards 1995) complain that systematic research in the field of TCFL is not adequate. They even claim that most language courses available in Hong Kong appear to be deficient in many aspects. Being a teacher as well as a curriculum designer, materials developer, and teacher trainer in an institution teaching Cantonese as a foreign language, I plan to do a systematic research on the development of TCFL and the teaching approaches
adopted. The major aim of this thesis is to investigate the teaching approaches adopted in teaching and learning Cantonese as a foreign language from the past to the present. This thesis attempts to depict the history of teaching Cantonese as a foreign language, to discuss teaching approaches used in TCFL and to look at learners' needs at the "New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center", a center that has taught Cantonese for over 40 years in Hong Kong and a center where I work. The needs analysis focuses on current learners' reasons of learning Cantonese, their learning difficulties and their specific needs. Discussions are provided on how well current textbooks and approaches meet learners' expectations. This thesis can provide information for Cantonese teachers, curriculum designers, materials developers, researchers interested in the field and even the learners. The thesis attempts to look for answers to the following questions,

1. How did the teaching of Cantonese develop?
2. Who were the learners in the past and who are they now? Were there changes in learners' profiles throughout the history of TCFL? What are the reasons for learning the language?
3. What were the difficulties of the learners when learning Cantonese?
4. What kinds of textbooks were published?
5. What were the approaches used in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language?
6. Do the textbooks available and teaching approaches used match the needs of the current learners? Is there any mismatch between the expectations and learning habits of the learners and the teaching approaches? If yes, what are the recommendations?
This thesis appears to be the first attempt to study systematically the history, teaching approaches, textbooks and learners in the teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language. In terms of research methodology, this thesis used both historical and empirical research tools to look at textbooks and learners of Cantonese as a foreign language. In order to achieve the major aims, two major sets of research data were collected. The first is documentary data including memoirs, books, articles, manuscripts and other relevant documents showing evidence of how early scholars and recent learners learnt Cantonese. This set of data is collected from archives and libraries. One objective of the thesis is to compare and contrast some major textbooks published in English for TCFL in order to look at the development of teaching approaches. Regarding the data on textbooks, major textbooks were collected and techniques in documentary research were used for analysis. Documentary analysis is adopted for analyzing the data. Another objective is to look at learners’ needs, learning habits and difficulties as well as their views about teaching methods and the quality of published textbooks. It was hundreds of years ago that Cantonese had its first foreign learner. Needless to say, there were no audio recording techniques at that period and it was neither possible to observe any activity nor to interview any of the teachers, learners and people involved at that period about the way they learnt and about their attitude toward the language. The only method to adopt is to analyze memoirs, the learning manuals used, the articles the early scholars wrote and any relevant testimony by using documentary analysis techniques. Further Discussion on historical research and documentary analysis in this thesis is presented in Chapter 3.

The second set is data from empirical studies done in an institution that has been teaching Cantonese as a foreign language for over 40 years in Hong Kong, named the
"New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center" at the Chinese University of Hong Kong, in order to study current learners' needs and to analyze developmental trends. A multi-method approach is adopted to collect data. Empirical research methodologies, including questionnaire surveys, interviews and diary studies, are used to look at current learners' needs, their difficulties and their methods of learning Cantonese. Documents, such as student records, brochures of Cantonese courses of the "New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center" (CLC) of the Chinese University of Hong Kong and minutes of teacher's meetings are also collected to triangulate and to check against the data collected by questionnaires, interviews and diary research. For the current learners' needs, data is extracted by using questionnaires, interviews and diaries because the researcher can keep contact with the learners and teachers to send out questionnaires and to arrange interviews. Detailed discussion on data collection of the empirical data is presented in Chapter 5.

There are seven chapters in this thesis. Chapter 2 presents a brief description and discussion of the "Chinese language", its dialects and the status of Cantonese. Chapter 3 presents a study about the history and development of TCFL. The first part of the chapter discusses historical and documentary research. Description about collection of documents of this thesis will be given. It also discusses the use of documentary analysis and the importance of "authenticity", "credibility", "representativeness", "meaning" and "relevancy" in historical research. The second part of the chapter depicts the historical background about teaching Cantonese as a foreign language. By looking at some early scholars, who were mainly European and American missionaries as well as traders, an historical account is provided to describe their paths of learning the language and their contributions to teaching Cantonese as a foreign language. The third part discusses some characteristics of
the early scholars. Part four discusses Cantonese learning in colonial Hong Kong. Part five presents some early learning materials of the Cantonese language. The last part of the chapter, a brief history of the New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center and its relationship with the Yale-in-China project, one of the early missions of promoting the learning of the Chinese languages for non-Chinese speakers, is given. Students' profiles of the CLC over the past 40 years are also provided.

Chapter 4 presents the textbooks published for TCFL and discusses the teaching approaches used in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language and the development of the different teaching approaches. It traces the development of the teaching approaches, which started from early scholars' phrasebooks or dictionaries and developed towards a situational-cultural syllabus, by using evidence in published textbooks and supporting documents.

Chapter 5 investigates current Cantonese learners' needs. It is divided into three parts. The first part introduces some earlier research about learners' needs. The second part discusses the research methodology adopted and data collection process in this thesis. Questionnaire surveys, semi-structured interviews, and diary studies are used as major research tools. The research procedure and the actual data collection process are discussed. The third part presents the data of the needs analysis. It discusses the needs of current learners, reasons of learning, learning habits, and learning difficulties.

Chapter 6 provides discussions about current approaches to teaching and learning Cantonese. It discusses how well the textbooks and approaches available
match current learners' needs. "Teaching content" and "teaching methods" in TCFL are discussed and elaborated. This chapter also compares teachers' visions and learners' expectations in CLC. In addition, "teachers' and learners' role" in TCFL are also discussed. Recommendations are made about teaching approaches, curriculum design and teaching materials preparation. Chapter 7 is a concluding chapter. It summarizes the findings and discussions. It also discusses some limitations of the research and makes suggestions for future research.
2. The "Canton Dialect" and "Cantonese"

Before looking at the history of teaching Cantonese as a foreign language, it is necessary to discuss the terms "Chinese", "the Canton Dialect" and "Cantonese" since these terms are used in most literature or textbooks found. Early sinologists and missionaries used the term "Chinese" in various ways. "Chinese" can be used with a generic reference, which referred to "the Chinese language and its dialects". Bridgeman (1841) in the introduction of his *Chinese Chrestomathy* stated that the objective of the book was "to aid foreigners in learning the Chinese" (p.i). He further explained that "Chinese" had branched into various local dialects and his *Chinese Chrestomathy* was a teaching manual in the language used in Canton. However, in the latter part of the introduction, he used the term "Chinese Language" to refer to "mandarin or court dialect" (p.i). These quotations suggest that "Chinese" was sometimes used in a generic sense and sometimes referred to "Mandarin" or the "Court dialect" in the early literature. Bridgeman (1841) believed that dialectal differences were chiefly in speaking, and all dialects shared the same writing system.

The language should be viewed as a whole. The dialectical diversities are chiefly in speaking, not in writing. [...] These diversities, however numerous they may be, do not very materially affect the language of the country, properly so called. (Bridgeman 1841, p.x)

Therefore in his introduction, he claimed that even though the *Chinese Chrestomathy* "follows most closely the Canton local dialect, it will probably be
intelligible to every educated Chinese who reads them in any part of the country” (p.xi). This notion was and still is controversial because many linguists have believed that dialects in China are not mutually intelligible with one another (Li 1937, Kratochvil 1968, Ramsey 1987, Matthews & Yip 1994).

Although learning of the “Canton dialect” started in the 16th century, scientific classification of the languages in China into different regional dialects was relatively recent. The first classification of various dialects in China was made by Li Fang-kuei in 1937. He published an article, “Languages and Dialects” in the Chinese Yearbook in 1937, later republished in the Journal of Chinese Linguistics in 1973. He stated that “languages in China not only do not possess records of their own, but are known to us very fragmentarily” (Li 1937, p.59). His tentative classification divided the Chinese dialects into seven groups, mainly based on phonological criteria. The seven groups were

(1) the Northern Mandarin group,
(2) the Eastern Mandarin group,
(3) the Southwestern Mandarin group,
(4) the Wu group,
(5) the Kan-Hakka group,
(6) the Min group and
(7) the Cantonese group/Yue group.

Li (1937) defined “Cantonese” as a language variety, “spoken in the provinces of Kwantung and Kwansi”. Cantonese is “characterized by the preservation of the final consonants -m, -p, -t, -k. It presents a system of eight, nine or more tones.
The distinction of long and short vowels as in Cantonese is also a special feature.”
(Li 1937, p.61)

2.1 The Canton dialect – dialect versus language

The term “Canton Dialect” was first used by Robert Morrison to name his dictionaries, *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect*, published in 1827 on the language variety spoken in Canton, Macao and Hong Kong. After his dictionaries had been published, more studies were done about the language variety. The term “Canton Dialect” was used by the pioneer scholars in sinology and in the studies of the language (Robert Morrison, Elijah Coleman Bridgeman, Samuel Wells Williams, S. W. Booney). E. J. Eitel used “Cantonese dialect” to refer to the language variety in his *Chinese Dictionary in the Cantonese Dialect* published in 1877. “Cantonese” was later used in the linguistic field by R. Y. Chao (1947), a famous Chinese linguist.

According to contemporary sociolinguists (Hudson 1980, Ramsey 1987, Norman 1988), the definition of the terms “language” and “dialects” derives from some “extralinguistic factors” such as political, social and cultural issues. Contemporary linguists agree that the spoken Chinese “dialects” are as mutually unintelligible as French and Italian, which were once also regarded as “dialects” but later as independent “languages”. They suggest that the Chinese dialects are really more like a family of languages and they are not mutually intelligible. Norman (1988) claimed that a northern dialect speaker could no more understand a speaker of Cantonese than an Englishman could understand an Austrian, even though a Cantonese speaker felt a closer cultural affinity to the northern native than an Englishman did to an Austrian. Kratochvil (1968) made similar notes about the
terms “language” and “dialects”. He suggested the term “language” was defined sometimes using other factors other than the linguistic one, such as socio-cultural and political considerations. This notion resembled Li’s (1937) idea.

As time goes on, this parent speech splits into various dialects and through successive evolutions will develop into such different languages as English, Russian, and Bengali. (Li 1937, p.59)

Controversies do not end by dropping the word “dialect” when naming the language variety. There were two arguments. One that “Cantonese” was a language, the other that “Cantonese” was one of the dialects spoken in the southern part of China. Ball (1883) preferred to describe “Cantonese” as a language and refused to use “dialect” to describe it. He claimed in his introduction that “Cantonese is more nearly akin to the ancient language of China, spoken about 3,000 years ago, than the speech of other parts of China” (p.i). He went on to state that,

Cantonese has its ‘real dialects’, some of which are spoken by tens of thousands, or hundreds of thousands of natives, [...] These ‘subordinate dialects’ of the Cantonese are again subdivided into many little divisions spoken in different cities or towns, or groups of cities, towns and villages where peculiar colloquialisms prevail. (Ball 1883, p.xiv-xv)

This research does not go deeply into detailed linguistic descriptions of the various “sub-dialects” of Cantonese. The concept “language variety” suggested by Hudson (1980) seems to be appropriate in this thesis. Sociolinguists agree that
whether a language variety could be classified as a “language” or “dialect” is mainly due to extralinguistic reasons rather than linguistic reasons. In this thesis, the terms “Cantonese language” or “Cantonese variety” are used to describe the language variety used in the southern part of China as described by most linguists (Chao 1947, Ramsey 1987 and Matthews & Yip 1994), and within the Chinese communities in Singapore, Malaysia, North America, Australia, Canada and elsewhere as a result of emigration from the Guangdong area and from Hong Kong.

2.2 Cantonese in contemporary China

Following Li's (1937) classification, Chao (1947) used the term “Cantonese” to refer to “the dialect of the Canton City” and also used it in the wider sense covering the western half of Kwangtung (Guangdong) province and the southern half of Kwansi (Guangxi) province. He also argued that there were various sub-dialects of Cantonese.

[T]he dialect of Canton City has considerable cultural prestige and is regarded more or less as the standard form of Cantonese foreigners or Chinese from other provinces would expect to learn. It may be noted that, while the form of Cantonese changes more and more as one travels south from Canton down the Canton-Kowloon Railway, the dialect in Kowloon and Hongkong is nearer to that of metropolitan Canton than to those of the neighboring districts. (Chao 1947, p.6)

He further suggested that the detailed study of Cantonese was important because
of the large number of overseas Cantonese speakers. He and some contemporary linguists (Li 1937, Ramsey 1987, Matthews & Yip 1994) classified Cantonese as belonging to the Yue group of dialects, which were “spoken primarily in the southern Chinese provinces of Guangdong and Guangxi, and in the neighbouring territories of Hongkong and Macao.” (Matthews & Yip 1994, p.2) Ramsey (1987) claimed that “the dialect of Canton has enjoyed prestige for centuries, at least since the Ming dynasty [1368-1644], by which time the Pearl River delta had become the most important economic and cultural center in the Deep South” (Ramsey 1987, p.99).

Both Guangdong province and Hong Kong have television and radio programmes in Cantonese now, but only in Hong Kong most television and radio programmes are in Cantonese. Hong Kong’s important and popular film industry is also in Cantonese. Cantonese is also the medium of instruction in Chinese-medium primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. However, the effect that unification will have on the language is uncertain. In Guangdong province, Cantonese is used alongside Mandarin, while in Hong Kong it is used officially alongside English and Mandarin according to the “Two written languages and three spoken languages” (文三語 Liǎng wén sān yǔ) policy after 1997. In Hong Kong, Cantonese is the language of choice for official government functions, in contrast to Guangzhou where Mandarin functions officially. It was because of Mainland China language policies initiated in 1949 and articulated through the National Language Standardization Conference (October 1955) that most people in China today are fluent in Mandarin (the National Language Standardization Conference renamed Mandarin as “Putonghua”, the term is widely use in China nowadays). As a consequence, bilingualism is increasing in Cantonese speaking provinces and other dialect areas (Li and Thompson 1979). The dialect of Guangzhou (Canton) is a
prestige variant and the model for the rest of Guangdong province. It is uncertain whether Cantonese is losing ground among speakers in favor of Mandarin in China. Although used extensively by native speakers in a casual setting, Cantonese is not the medium of education in Guangdong. Nor is it the language used on official occasions in the Peoples' Republic of China because Mandarin is the official language. However, Cantonese is one of the major dialects spoken in China and among Chinese immigrants all over the world.

Cantonese now enjoys national and international prestige as a result of the economic power of Hong Kong and the rapid economic development of southern China led by Guangdong province. In recent years, the influence of Cantonese and its culture on the northern Chinese varieties has increased due to the popularity of films, television programs and pop songs produced in Hong Kong. More and more lexical items are being "imported" into northern varieties. 出租車 "chūzūche" (literally means "car for rent") is used in Mandarin to refer to "taxi" but there is an increased number of Mandarin speakers using "dīshī" (transliteration of "taxi" in Cantonese from English) to refer to this kind of vehicle now. To the speakers of Cantonese, the language is part of their culture and has been the principal means of communication for thousands of years. Mandarin is often considered to be just an additional tool in Hong Kong. Not every Cantonese person in Hong Kong can communicate in Mandarin and, even if he or she can, may not want to develop anything beyond a superficial relationship with a non-southerner who speaks Mandarin. Students in major cities in China and overseas continue to learn Cantonese in order to do business in Guangdong and Hong Kong.

Linguistically, as agreed by most scholars researching Cantonese grammar...
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(Ramsey 1987, Matthews & Yip 1994, Luke & Nancarrow 1998), Cantonese is primarily a spoken language. A standard written Chinese script serves as a symbol of cultural unity for the Chinese people. Norman (1988) claimed that the standard script was independent of any particular phonetic manifestation of the Chinese languages (p.1). Sydney Lau, a renowned Cantonese trainer in the Hong Kong government, also emphasized that Cantonese is one of the many spoken dialects in China and written Cantonese has never been used in official papers or in correspondence between the educated Cantonese (Lau 1972a, p.ix). In spite of the fact that Cantonese is primarily a spoken language, Cantonese has a substantial literature, including songs, magazines, movie scripts and novels (Chin 1997). However, the written Cantonese vocabulary items are not normally considered acceptable in standard written Chinese (Lau 1972a, Matthews & Yip 1994, Luke & Nancarrow 1998). Despite this fact, Cantonese has gained the attention of linguists and researchers in recent decades. Contemporary linguists like Matthews & Yip (1994) further claimed that the role of Cantonese was increasing in the 20th century because of the rapid economic development of the southern coastal districts led by Guangdong province. There is also an increasing number of students coming from all major cities of China to learn Cantonese (Matthews & Yip 1994). Most of the research (Li & Richards 1995, Matthews & Yip 1994, Boyle 1997) notes that there have been some westerners in Hong Kong and abroad who have attempted to learn Cantonese. This coincided with Ball (1883), who stated two hundred years ago that people living in Hong Kong would attempt to learn Cantonese instead of Mandarin Chinese.

It may be stated that it is as absurd for any one who intends to reside in Hongkong, Canton, or Macao, and who wishes to learn
Chinese to take up the study of Mandarin, as it would be for a
German, who was about to settle in London, to learn French in
order to be able to converse with the English.
(Ball 1883, p.xiv)

2.3 Major research in learning and teaching Cantonese as a
foreign language

After the outstanding early scholars (Morrison 1827, Bridgman 1841, Ball 1883,
Li 1937, Chao 1947) started to study the Cantonese language and made important
contributions to the field, the study of the Cantonese language increased its
importance among Chinese linguists. Studies can be found from phonetics to lexis,
from syntax to semantics. However there are still very few studies on approaches to
Learning and Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language. Yang F. M. (1981)
published A Selected and Classified Bibliography in Chinese Dialectology. He
provides a comprehensive account on books written about the dialects in China.
The Bibliography covers publications from 16th century to 1979. There is a
complete section on the “Yueh dialects” (the Cantonese dialects), and there are over
300 items about the dialects spoken in Canton and the surrounding area on various
topics, such as historical studies, socio-cultural studies, phonetics & phonology,
vocabulary, grammar as well as textbooks and dictionaries. These materials were
made by both Chinese linguists and western scholars. Discussions of the significant
scholars, Cantonese textbooks and learning materials will be expanded in Chapters 3
and 4 of this thesis. Looking at Yang’s list of Cantonese textbooks and teaching
materials, there were about 100 textbooks and about 20 dictionaries published for the
purposes of foreign language teaching during that period. However, Yang (1981)
only provided a bibliographical list and there were no headings or sub-headings to classify these materials regarding approaches to teaching Cantonese as a foreign language. There are about 60 entries published in English, and among these entries about 50 were published in Hong Kong and Canton. Others were published in Macao, the United States, Japan, Malaysia, Thailand, Vietnam and other parts of China. There were a few dictionaries and research pieces published in French for "La Société des Missions-étrangères" and some were in Portuguese for the missionaries in Macao.

In Yang's (1981) *Bibliography*, there is very little reference to teaching Cantonese as a foreign language. This is a major reason to plan the current study. A search in the literature of TCFL found a few studies about textbooks and learners of TCFL. Li & Richards (1995) is a pioneer study on learners and major textbooks used in Cantonese courses offered in Hong Kong. They researched expatriate adult Cantonese learners in Hong Kong and analyzed the vocabulary and grammatical content of five Cantonese textbooks\(^2\). By sending 400 questionnaires (178 returned) all over Hong Kong, they surveyed expatriate residents in Hong Kong, including Americans, Canadians, British, Japanese and Singaporeans, etc. They studied the learners' needs, their views on Cantonese courses, learning preferences and attitudes to Cantonese. In the conclusion, they discuss learners' complaints about textbooks and learning materials. They conclude that there were deficiencies in syllabus design and materials development, which lowered the motivation of the learners and led to a high drop-out rate on most Cantonese courses. They also concluded that systematic studies on curriculum development,

\(^2\) The five textbooks include, Boyle (1970), Huang & Kok (1972b), Lau (1975), Chik (1980) and Tong & James (1994).
syllabus design, and materials development have received very little attention.

Many of the problems encountered in language syllabus design have consequently not yet been seriously addressed, and the published materials available reveal the need for a more principled approach to the development of teaching materials. (Li & Richards 1995, p.22)

Smith (1997) did a small study on contemporary textbooks and dictionaries suitable for self-learning. Basically his study was mainly a list and commentary on 28 books, rather than detailed evaluation. The list included textbooks for spoken Cantonese, dictionaries, materials for written Chinese, and even research on Cantonese grammar and on learners' needs. However, his study was mainly book critiques rather than profound discussions based on foreign language teaching theories. In the literature of TCFL, there was also a study about reasons for the success and failure of learners learning Cantonese (Boyle 1997). However, Boyle's (1997) study was limited to a presentation of interview data. The literature in TCFL shows that although studies on TCFL receive some attention from researchers in the field, there is a lack of systematic studies on teaching approaches, on curriculum planning and on teaching materials development.

There is no doubt that Cantonese has a considerable number of speakers (64 million reported by the UCLA language material project) living in areas of economic and political importance around the world. With the important economic and cultural role of Cantonese and with its significant number of speakers in the world, people from overseas and from Mainland China were and still are eager to learn
(Matthews & Yip 1994). However, some recent news in Hong Kong newspapers (Yap 2003, Liam 2003) raises several issues about the status of Cantonese and the worries about the future of TCFL. Some reporters (Yap 2003, Liam 2003) wrote that there was a drop of the number of Cantonese learners and raised the issue about the future of teaching Cantonese as a foreign language. Although they stated the fact about the drop in number of learners, it is difficult to agree that the drop is a result of the status of Cantonese. Linguists (Luke & Richards 1982) thought that Cantonese marks Hong Kong people's identity. Liam (2003) said, "a threat to Cantonese is a threat to Hong Kong's sense of difference". When one walks along the street, one can easily find people speaking the language everywhere. Cantonese is still a lingua franca of the local Hong Kong people and according to the Basic Law3, there is no drastic change in language policy in Hong Kong imposed by the Chinese government after 1997. If the drop in the number of Cantonese learners is not a result of a change in the official status of Cantonese, then what are the reasons for the drop? Being a teacher teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language, I think a systematic review in teaching approaches, a study on current learners' needs and discussions on how well the teaching approaches match the learning needs can throw some light on the question. This is one of the major reasons to start this study. I think systematic studies of Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) is beneficial to teachers, curriculum planners, materials developers and administrators of Cantonese training centers. A description of the history of TCFL presented in the next chapter tries to show the long history, the significance and the development of TCFL.

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3 The Basic Law is the law applied in Hong Kong after 1997. It was jointly drafted as a result of the Sino-British Joint Declaration in by the British government and the Chinese government in 1984.
3. History of Learning and Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language

A thorough search of the literature revealed that there were very few accounts of the learning and teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language. This chapter gives an historical account of the learning and teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language by looking at the historical background of learning Cantonese as a foreign language under seven sub-headings. The first part discusses the use of documentary analysis and historical research methodology in this thesis. In the second part, the historical sources about missionaries and traders learning Cantonese in Macao and Canton during the period 1500-1900 are presented. The third part discusses some characteristics of the early scholars who learnt Cantonese as a foreign language. The fourth part gives information on British government officials and missionaries who continued to learn Cantonese in Hong Kong after 1901. The fifth part presents a list and description of early materials and learning manuals for the teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language. The sixth part shows some historical facts about the development of Chinese and Cantonese courses at college and university level by introducing the historical background of the Yale-in-China project, the New Asia–Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center (CLC) and some other Cantonese training centres. The seventh part presents the students' profiles of CLC over the past 40 years. This chapter attempts to address the first three research questions,

1. How did the teaching of Cantonese develop?

2. Who were the learners in the past and who are they now? Were there changes in learners' profiles throughout the history of TCFL? What are the reasons for learning the language?
3. What were the difficulties of the learners when learning Cantonese?

3.1 Documentary analysis and historical research method

Before looking at the history of TCFL, it is necessary to discuss the method of historical research used in this thesis. Historical research in this thesis involves analysis of data from the early sinologists and from early learning/teaching materials in order to depict learners' learning habits, and understand their needs or difficulties in learning Cantonese as a foreign language, as well as look at the development of TCFL textbooks. A historical research is carried out. Historical research is defined by scholars on research methodology (Borg & Gall 1963, Cohen & Manion 1994, Cohen et al. 2000) as the “systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of evidence in order to establish facts and draw conclusions about past events. It is an act of reconstruction undertaken in a spirit of critical enquiry designed to achieve a faithful representation of a previous age” (Cohen & Manion 1994, p.45). Historical research in this thesis uses data from memoirs, biographies and also from manuscripts and other records.

Collection of documents

The documents collected in this research can be grouped into two main types. The first type is data related to early sinologists. Cantonese learning started a few hundred years ago, and some of the data were kept in archives. Attempts have been made to search in Hong Kong Government Public Archives, library collections in Hong Kong’s universities, as well as libraries in London in order to collect historical documents and learning manuals. In the searching phase, the researcher asked permission to photocopy whenever it was necessary. However, some materials
were difficult to get access to. With limited time and funding, it was not possible to collect all relevant historical documents, but the major ones were collected for analysis. Documents collected include memoirs of early scholars, early dictionaries, early learning manuals, articles and papers written by early scholars and teachers, as well as various relevant documents about learning Cantonese.

Another set of documents are those collected in the New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center (CLC) about learners over the past forty years. These include students' files, application forms, minutes of periodic teachers' meetings, textbooks used, pamphlets and brochures. Relevant textbooks available in the market were also collected for analysis and comparison. Since some information contains personal information about learners and teachers, permission to use such information was sought and given by the Director of CLC, and the researcher promised to use the data for academic purposes and not to disclose any personal information in any form. This set of data is mainly used for analyzing students' profiles and exploring issues on teaching methods.

Authenticity, Credibility, Representativeness, Meaning and Relevancy

Documentary research is a deductive method useful in its own right and also an invaluable part of triangulation (MacDonald 2001). MacDonald (2001) and Gillham (2000b) suggested that documentary research is similar to the detective work of field research which traces the evidence for making a complete story. When using documents in this thesis, it is important to consider a few issues, namely "authenticity", "credibility", "representativeness" and "meaning" (Scott 1994.

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4 Minutes of monthly teachers meeting were scanned or typed into computer; computers were used to help in content analysis when analyzing the data.
“Authenticity” concerns whether the documents are authentic in the sense that no one had tried to falsify them for any reason. It is possible that the records produced or facts recorded might be falsified by the authors’ own purpose for different reasons. Stated below are the questions proposed by Platt (1981) for researchers to think of when doing documentary research. A careful check on authenticity according to Platt’s (1981) proposal was done when the documents were collected.

1. Does the document make sense or does it contain glaring errors?
2. Are there different versions of the original document available?
3. Is there consistency of literary style, handwriting or typeface?
4. Has the document been transcribed by many copyists?
5. Has the document been circulated via someone with a material or intellectual interest in passing off the version given as the correct one?
6. Does the version available derive from a reliable source?
(Platt 1981, quoted in MacDonald 2001, p.204)

Similar to “authenticity”, “credibility” relates to the truthfulness of the documents. It refers to whether the document is “free from error or distortion” (MacDonald 2001, p.204). MacDonald (2001) suggests distortion might occur when the document had passed through several hands or when the author produced certain work to please the readers because of his own interest. He suggests that researchers should ask who produced the documents, why, when, in what context and for whom the documents were produced. Another major issue, “representativeness”, relates to the question of whether the data is a representative sample in the topic. Researchers should make sure no key pieces are missing or has been destroyed for
any reason before drawing conclusions. This is most important in historical research. Sometimes, conclusions or even the hypothesis need to be revised when fresh evidence is discovered.

In the analyzing phase, understanding the "meaning" of the documents is placed in an important position. There are at least two levels of meaning, one is the surface meaning of the text, and the other is the deep meaning (MacDonald 2001). Authors of the documents might have certain degrees of subjectivity. Researchers might also have a subjective view on certain issues and subjectivity might create bias in the analyzing phase. Scientific methods like textual analysis and content analysis can help minimize the subjectivity problem.

Apart from the above four issues, "relevancy" of the documents to the topic under research is also a vital concern for the researcher. "Relevancy" concerns whether the documents collected were relevant to the topic (Johnson 1993). Johnson (1993) noted that documents are likely to be prepared with a different purpose in mind from the purpose of the researchers using them. Due to the fact that a single source of data might to some extent be dubious, Johnson (1993) tried to find other sources as well as combine his research with interview data to increase validity of the research.

In this thesis, cross-checking between the documents was done in the analyzing phase. Concerning the issues of "credibility", "representativeness", "meaning" and "relevancy", frequent discussions and advice (Bolton 2002, Pfister 2003b) were sought from a sociolinguist, Kingsley Bolton, who studies pidgin English as well as intercultural exchange which happened in 17th – 19th century China (Bolton 2001a,
2001b, 2003) and a philosopher, Lauren Pfister, who is a scholar of 17th - 19th century missionary activities in China (Pfister 2003a, 2004).

The current research looks for documents from possible reachable sources, such as public archives, libraries, archives from different universities in Hong Kong and in London as well as documents from the New Asia—Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center. Data includes early learning materials, early journal articles published about difficulties and suggestions for Cantonese learning, scholars’ memoirs, government documents, correspondence, students’ files, meeting minutes and brochures of Cantonese programmes. In addition to these primary sources, secondary sources like biographies and comments from other authors, were also consulted. In order to consider the above-mentioned five points, to accurately depict the history and to minimize subjective judgment, advice was also sought from an experienced Cantonese teacher (Ling 2003).

3.2 Learning of “The Canton Dialect” in Macao and Canton during 1500-1900

Looking at the historical data, the learning and teaching of Cantonese as a Foreign Language can be traced back to the mid-16th century. Holden (1964) studies the history of east-west cultural exchange and notes that “[c]ontact with western civilization was first brought to China by Christian missionaries in the sixteenth century and much extended a century later through the merchant traders of Europe” (Holden 1964, p.25). At the beginning, the learning of Cantonese was inseparable from the adventures of non-Asian traders and the missionary activities in China. Starting from the mid-16th century, European missionaries and traders first
came to China and had contact with the "Chinese language" and its dialects. In the first stage, only the coastal area of China started to experience the impact of east-west cultural exchange. According to Holden (1964), peoples of the inland cities were largely untouched by western thought and western ways before the twentieth century. Liu (1994), a historian studying east-west exchange in Macao, records that Portuguese traders arrived in the coastal area of South China around 1550. According to the law set by the Imperial Chinese government, the Portuguese were the first foreigners to be allowed to do trade in China at that period and they were allowed to stay only inside Macao. In the 1500s, missionaries were sent to China. Franciscus Xaverius (1506-1552) was sent during the Ming Dynasty. Following him, it was an Italian Jesuit missionary, Matteo Ricci (1552-1610) who was also a famous early learner of Chinese and its dialects, who was sent to China. Ricci's journal was compiled and translated by his missionary partner, Nicolau Trigault (1577-1628) in 1615. They were the first recorded group of missionaries who entered China in modern history and started learning the local dialects in China and teaching it to their followers. The Jesuits had the aim of proselytizing the Chinese people. They attempted to accommodate western learning to the Chinese cultural scene and facilitate a Confucian-Christian synthesis. This policy encouraged the missionaries to learn about Chinese culture and the language varieties of China. According to Liu's (1994) study, around 1565 the Jesuit missionaries in Macao established their first college (later named as "Colégio São Paulo"), where Cantonese was the lingua franca. Liu (1994) records that the Chinese languages were included in the syllabus and all students and teachers were required to learn them. A famous sinologist, Júlio Aleni, was a good illustration of this fact. He was on the graduation lists, having studied some Chinese, but he was at the same time teaching Mathematics in the college. This fact showed that these European
missionaries did their missionary work and learned the local language at the same time. There are very few records describing how these people learnt the language. The earliest western dictionary, named *Portuguese-Chinese Dictionary*, was published in 1584 by Matteo Ricci and Michele Ruggieri. In the dictionary, they used roman alphabet to transcribe the Chinese dialects used in Canton and Macao (Chang 1983). Appendix I shows a sample page included in Liu (1994). Matteo Ricci’s success in China encouraged European scholars to explore more about China. Quite a number of scholastic works were published. Famous works included, Juan Gonzalez de Mendoza’s *Historia del Gran Reino de la China* (1585), P. Martinus Martini’s *the New Maps of China* (1665), A. Kircher’s *Illustrated History of China* (1667), Bayer’s *the Stories of Natural Sciences of China* (1730) and J.B.D. Halde’s *Description de la Chine* (1736).

During 1755-57, the Chinese Imperial government⁵ decreed that foreigners were only allowed in Macao and Canton (Guangzhou). Morales (1983) and Hsu (2000) record that the Qing court imposed “Eight Regulations” on foreign trade. The “Regulations” restricted foreign activities in Guangzhou. It could be summarized in a few major points:

1. River pilots and compradors (agents) employed by the foreigners had to be registered with the Chinese authorities in Macao;
2. Foreigners could not hire Chinese servants;
3. No Chinese, except interpreters, could enter the foreigners’ factories;
4. No Chinese could teach his language to the foreigners;

⁵ In 1757, the Emperor Qianlong (1736-1795) became suspicious of the foreigners’ intentions, therefore he issued a decree confining trade to Guangzhou and Macao.
5. Foreigners could only communicate with the Chinese officials through a specific group of merchants called the Co-hong (公行 gonghang). Foreigners could only trade with the Co-hong. All business transactions were to be done in cash. The co-hong merchants had the responsibility of restraining and protecting the foreign traders they dealt with;

6. Foreigners could stay in their factories at Guangzhou only during the trading season (roughly from October to January). They were denied access to the city except on three specified days a month and should be escorted by interpreters. During the summer time (non-trading season), they should reside in Macao or go home. (Morales 1983, Hsu 2000)

From items 2 to 6, it was very clear that learning and teaching of Cantonese was prohibited by the government and even the chance to expose to a local people was very limited. Item 4 even stated explicitly that the teaching of Chinese was strictly prohibited. Foreign traders were discouraged or more accurately “prohibited” from learning the language.

After the “Regulations” had been promulgated, Canton acted as a centre for Sino-western contact and quickly became an important trading port of tea, silk and other trade items. The East India Company from Britain and traders from other countries at that time started their Canton trade. According to the “Regulations”, all foreign traders needed to negotiate through the Co-hongs when they pursued their trading. According to Bolton (2002), there were Chinese interpreters in the co-hongs, named “linguists”, who used pidgin English to communicate with the Englishman at that time. It was because the Co-hongs held a monopoly position as interpreters and middleman; that they charged high fees for their services and
consequently caused various disputes. The East India Company saw the need for some members of the Company to learn the languages spoken in China. Stifler (1938) reported that James Flint, an orphan in Captain Ribgy's ship within the Company, took the initial step in learning Mandarin Chinese.

The boy seems to have applied himself diligently and had made some progress, ... Four years of study gave him a good command of the Mandarin tongue. (Stifler 1938, p.48)

According to Hsu (2000) and Bolton (2002), the East India Company asked Lord Macartney to lead an Embassy to China. In Lord Macartney's embassy to China in 1792, Macartney's Secretary, George Leonard Staunton (1737-1801) brought his young son, George Thomas Staunton (1781-1859), along with him during the embassy journey, allowing him to serve as a page boy to Macartney. On the voyage out to China, the young George T. Staunton studied Chinese languages under the tutorship of the embassy's two Chinese interpreters on board. When the embassy arrived at the Chinese court, and Lord Macartney was presented to the Qianlong Emperor, the emperor enquired whether any foreigners could speak Mandarin Chinese, and on being informed that the page boy had gained some proficiency in the language, young Staunton was called forward for an interview with the emperor. He was the first who could speak Chinese languages among all the people in the ship on arrival (Stifler 1938, Bolton 2002). The emperor was so pleased with the young man, that he took a yellow embroidered purse from his girdle and a green jade scepter (which is now in the Victoria and Albert Museum in U.K.), and gave it to him as a token of his favour. The young Staunton completed his education at Trinity College of Cambridge, and then went to work for the East India
Company in Canton, and later become a famous scholar of the Chinese legal code (Bolton 2002, Pfister 2003b). These historical facts showed the Chinese Emperor, at that time, was restricting the learning of Chinese languages on the one hand, but on the other hand, also appreciated foreigners who could speak one.

Encouraged by George Thomas Staunton, Robert Morrison (1728-1834), the first Chinese missionary of the London Missionary Society, became the pioneer of British sinology and the author of the first western dictionary of the "Canton Dialect". After a long journey from London to New York, boarding an American ship, he finally landed at Macao on 4 September 1807. Later he moved to Canton. The reason that Morrison was sent to China, according to Ride (1957), was "not to teach and preach but to acquire the language and to translate the Bible into Chinese" (p.3). He had a Chinese tutor, named Yong Sam-tak, in London before his departure to China. Morrison's hard-working attitude and his talent for learning Chinese languages made him succeed even during his early stage of studying Chinese.

At both writing and reading Chinese he made such rapid progress that he was soon able to begin transcribing Chinese manuscripts in the British Museum and such had been his diligence and such the economic use of his time that when he finally left England for China he had already mastered the translation of a book of extracts of the New Testament written by Roman Catholic missionaries and had become well acquainted with those Chinese dictionaries that were available. (Ride 1957, p.3)

According to Morrison's co-worker, William Milnes (1827-1889), who wrote
notes based on a manuscript written by Morrison himself, he described that Morrison adopted Cantonese dress, ate in the Chinese manner and dined with the person who taught him the language, after arriving in Canton (Broomhall 1924, p.55). Morrison learnt the language in Canton in spite of the stipulation in the Imperial law that Chinese were prohibited from teaching the language under penalty of death (Broomhall 1924, p.52). As a result of this, it was extremely difficult to find someone to teach him Chinese.

Morrison secured two men, ... One man was a local scholar with a Chinese Arts degree, and the other a native of Shansi, ... Both of these men lived in fear of detection and torture, and one at least, if not both of them, carried poison so that life might rather be ended than the pains of a Chinese prison suffered. (Broomhall 1924, p.55)

Morrison himself admitted in his diary that his crime was wishing to learn the language (Broomhall 1924, p. 56). At the same time, a prohibition against missionaries was announced by the Imperial government. Sir George Staunton reminded Morrison that foreigners were forbidden to stay inside China unless for trade purposes. Morrison could only live inside the foreign factories in Canton. Morrison recorded in his diary, "I have been full of anxiety" (Broomhall 1924, p. 52). Not to mention that Morrison later suffered from illness, the suppression from the Chinese Imperial government, his poor living conditions and the social restricted environment made his work very stressful. It was Morrison's long-lasting endeavour and his devotion to the language that made him succeed.

By not applying to my studies my mind is uncomfortable; so desirous
am I to acquire the language. (quoted in Broomhall 1924, p.60)

Morrison’s contribution was manifold and one important aspect of his contribution was of course in the field of studying and teaching of Mandarin and Cantonese, as he named it, “the Canton Dialect”. His famous publications regarding Mandarin Chinese and the Canton Dialect, included,

1. *A Grammar of the Chinese Language* (1815), 
2. *A Dictionary of the Chinese Language* (1815-1823), and 

The *Grammar* and the *Dictionary* were on Mandarin Chinese (called “the Court Language”). The *Dictionary* was actually a set of dictionaries contained in three parts. The first two parts were Chinese-English dictionaries. In part one, words were arranged according to the Chinese radicals. In part two words were arranged alphabetically according to the romanized transcriptions of the Chinese phrases. Part three was an English-Chinese dictionary. As shown in Morrison’s *Memoirs* written by his wife, Morrison acknowledged in 1810 the considerable success with which his efforts had been rewarded in studying the language, and also reported to the London Missionary Society that his Chinese Grammar was ready for the press and his dictionary was almost finished.

The third set of books, *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect*, was a wordlist on the “Canton Dialect”. The *Vocabulary* consisted of three parts. The first part was a translation of phrases from English to Chinese, whereas the second part was from
Chinese to English. Part three contained useful words and phrases of the Canton Dialect, mainly involving trade terms, items for trade, etc. The printing of the *Vocabulary* was financially supported by the East India Company. On the cover page (Appendix II), it was explained that the work was “printed at the Honorable East India Company's Press”. It was part of the evidence showing the study of the “Canton Dialect” by missionaries was financially supported by European traders. It was also a proof that Morrison had mastered both Mandarin and Cantonese under such a poor learning environment.

He slaved away at both Mandarin and Cantonese, but his teachers were poor and his living conditions bad. (Ride 1957, p.10)

Apart from publishing dictionaries, Morrison had also systematically promoted the learning of Chinese and Cantonese. He also had a strong influence on the educational system of China and established a school to convey western knowledge to the Chinese people and at the same time to train missionaries in the Chinese language and culture. Initiated by Morrison and supported by Rev. William Milne, the Anglo-Chinese College (英華書院 Yīng Hua Shūyuàn) was started in Malacca in 1818, with Milne as the first Headmaster. The college later moved to Hong Kong and Rev. James Legge was appointed as the first Headmaster in 1843. The objective of the college was to provide reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature and the diffusion of Christianity. The establishment of the Anglo-Chinese College provided a school setting to teach Chinese languages to European missionaries. Apart from its work as an academic centre, the Anglo-Chinese College also trained evangelists and pastors, including the famous Mr. Leang Fah (also known as Leang A Fah or Leung Faat), the helper of Robert
Morrison, and Rev. Ho Tsun-sheen⁶ (何進善 何進善), the helper of James Legge. Rev. Ho was among the first Chinese who preached the Gospel and he also went on to contribute significantly to the education and the economy of Hong Kong.

Robert Morrison continued to work with sinological issues in the 1830s. He worked with two American missionaries, Samuel Wells Williams (1812-1884), author of the famous *The Middle Kingdom* (1882), and Elijah Coleman Bridgman (1801-1861). Morrison suggested starting a print house and journals to promote the study of sinology and exchange ideas. One of the major works of the print house was the 20-volume bimonthly journal entitled the *Chinese Repository* (1832-1852), having the same name as the print house "Chinese Repository". Morrison and his son, John Robert Morrison, contributed a lot of articles to the *Chinese Repository*. The *Chinese Repository* contained articles dealing with hundreds of topics concerning China and its surrounding areas. Bridgman and Williams published a *General Index of the subjects contained in the twenty volumes of the Chinese Repository* in 1851 near the last printing of the *Chinese Repository*. They grouped the articles in the *Chinese Repository* under 30 headings, which included geography, Chinese government and politics, Chinese people, Chinese history, Travels, Language and Literature, Trade and Commerce, Shipping, Opium, Canton Foreign Factories, Education Societies, and Religion. It covered the socio-cultural and geographical aspects of China, Japan, Korea and other Asian nations of the period as well as their relationship with Britain and America. Under the heading of

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⁶ The first Chinese pastor. He was the father of Ho Kai 何啟 (1859-1917). Ho Kai was an active member of the legislative council in Hong Kong and was the teacher of Dr. Sun Yat Sen 孫逸仙 (also known as Sun Chung-shan 孫中山 and Sun Wen 孫文)(1866-1925), who is called "Father of Modern China" by many historians. Ho Kai founded the Alice Memorial Hospital, Hong Kong College of Medicine (later renamed as The University of Hong Kong), and Po Leung Kuk (one of the biggest charity groups in Hong Kong). He also contributed on the building of Hong Kong Kai Tak Airport.
“Language and Literature”, there were about 95 articles. Among these articles, the majority discussed Chinese language and its dialects, offering opinions, research and learning suggestions from the learners of the period.

During and after the Opium War I (1839-42), Elijah Bridgeman and Samuel Wells Williams continued to work on the Canton dialect’s teaching manuals, dictionaries and the Chinese Repository. Bridgeman had published the Chinese Chrestomathy in the Canton Dialect (1841) in Macao (Appendix III shows the covering page). The Chinese Chrestomathy was one of the early learning manuals for the Canton dialect. Samuel Wells Williams published a two-volume dictionary named A Tonal dictionary of the Chinese language (英華分韻撮要 Ying Huá Fēnyùn Cuòyào) in 1856 (Appendix IV shows the covering page) and A Syllabic Dictionary of the Chinese Language in 1874. These were important early materials in studying and learning the Canton dialect.

After Morrison, Bridgman and Williams, more European scholars became interested in the Chinese language, such as Rev. James Legge, D.D. (1815-1897). Wong (1996) recorded that Legge joined the London Missionary Society to start his mission in China and later became the first professor of Chinese at the University of Oxford. He received inspiration from his predecessors and teachers, like Robert Morrison, William Milne and Samuel Kidd (1804-1843). Legge took his language training at the University College, the University of London. It was Robert Morrison who enthusiastically promoted the study of Chinese language and its dialects in missionary bodies and universities like Oxford, Cambridge and University of London. Samuel Kidd, Professor of Chinese in the University of London, was
Legge's language teacher. Kidd was a missionary working in Penang, Malacca and Singapore. He had experience in teaching Chinese language and culture at the Anglo-Chinese College since 1827. With strong religious commitments and knowledge of the language, Kidd took up the task of teaching Chinese language for China missionaries of the London Missionary Society.

3.3 Characteristics and learning difficulties of the early scholars

The discussions on the historical background of TCFL introduced some early scholars who learned Cantonese. The early scholars were mainly missionaries and traders, who learnt the language because of practical reasons and who had learnt the language so well that later became well-known scholars in sinology. According to available historical records, Robert Morrison was one of the first scholars who studied Cantonese as a foreign language. The memoir written by his widow, Elizabeth Morrison, clearly showed that learning Chinese and its dialects was one of the main objectives of coming to China. A letter in his memoirs stated clearly this objective.

Perfection in the Chinese language, or as near perfection as possible, is my object. To this I have not yet reached. (Morrison E. 1839, p.284)

He worked day-after-day to achieve this objective. However, the difficulties of learning Cantonese at that time were beyond the imagination of the learners
nowadays. The surrounding political climate and language policy of the Chinese government made his work extremely difficult. As stated in his memoirs, "[t]he Chinese government is averse to my learning the language; my final object is, I believe, unknown" (Morrison E. 1839, p.285). At the first stage of learning the language, Morrison felt the pressure of uncertainty from the socio-political situation at that period. Morrison mentioned in his diary that "[l]earning their language, the Chinese do not allow. Hence our difficulty." (Morrison E. 1839, p.289) When Morrison continued to learn the language, though he had a clear objective he was facing a difficult learning environment with limited learning manuals available, with strong prohibition from the Imperial government, and with difficulties in finding qualified teachers.

Even worse, apart from the fact that learning the Chinese languages was strongly suppressed, the Chinese government at that time also prohibited religious activities. This was shown in Morrison's letter to his brother,

There has lately been an edict from the Emperor, prohibiting the propagation of Christianity in the empire; and four Roman Catholic missionaries have been sent from Peking. (Morrison E. 1839, p.298)

Being a missionary, it was obvious that he was not in circumstances similar to other foreign traders at Canton. With all those difficulties, Morrison's motivation to learn the language still did not die. Morrison had "laboured night and day" to study the language. He tried to observe the people living around him, imitate the sounds, to analyze the patterns of Cantonese and then to study very hard by himself. The
records also showed that because of the prohibition of teaching and learning the language, it was very difficult to find a teacher. Eventually he had found some, but it was very expensive, so most of the time, Morrison studied on his own. He tried to understand the vocabulary items from exposure to the local native speakers and to analyze the grammar with his analytical mind.

After the opening up of China, the learning of Cantonese and other Chinese languages also opened up to foreigners. With the help of Morrison and his co-workers, more foreign scholars could follow "Morrison’s method" to learn Cantonese. A quote from a learner’s essay in the Chinese Repository revealed how they learnt the language,

I would, if practicable, procure the assistance of some person, who could speak my own language and the Chinese, for two or three weeks. ... I would sit down with him, pen in hand, how I should say "What is this?" in Chinese; and on his pronouncing the Chinese words, I would repeat them after him, and bid him pronounce them again and again, till I could pronounce them well myself,... In this way I would continue to learn new words and phrases, to repeat and write them; and in the absence of my teacher, I would spend as much time as I could study with advantage, in reviewing them. (Tracy 1840, p.339)

The major method was to repeat the newly learnt lexical items after a native speaker of the target language. After acquiring a certain amount of vocabulary
items, as Tracy (1840) remarked, the "best way" at that period was to practice on the street and just "talk, talk, and talk, like a child" (Tracy 1840, p.339).

At that time, most learners were missionaries and foreign government officials and they all learnt for a practical reason, to engage in religious work in China, Macao or Hong Kong. However, the learners were not without any problem. A letter to the editors of the Chinese Repository from an anonymous reader stated that there was an increasing number of learners. However there were urgent needs for finding the "best" methods. He asked several questions related to learning.

What is the best way to acquire the spoken language? Should we go among the people and learn it from them; or employ a teacher, or both? If both, then what proportion of time should be given to each, and what means should be used to facilitate one's progress?

What aids in the study of the language have been found or made — such as books, manuscripts, and collections of words and phrases, etc.?

What have you found to be the best course to pursue in respect to the tones? ... (Anon 1839, p.205)

John Robert Morrison (Robert Morrison's son) replied that these questions had been addressed to them but they found it difficult to reply (Morrison J. 1839). These correspondences showed that there were limited printed materials available and a lack of learning and teaching methods. There were also no trained teachers of
the language. All of these made learning difficult at an early stage.

There were some common features characterizing the learning process of Chinese for the early scholars. First, there were very limited grammar, dictionaries and textbooks available for them to use. Secondly, they learnt the language by exposure to “tutors”, who were educated native speakers of the Chinese languages. Although there were very few records of these “tutors”, it is quite likely that their professional training on foreign language teaching was limited. Educated native speakers of Chinese, not to mention teachers trained to teach Cantonese as a foreign language who had clear teaching methods and organized teaching tools, were rarely found because of the restrictions imposed by the Chinese government. For that period, there is no record or detailed description of any formal school being established or course developed in China especially for teaching Mandarin Chinese and Cantonese to expatriates. However, successful learners wrote their own dictionaries, grammar books and learning manuals, which became the very early learning materials of the language. This remained the way Westerners learnt Chinese language for a long time. Thirdly, most of them learnt the language so well that they became specialists in sinology and they studied the language from a linguistic perspective too. These facts throw some light on how the early missionaries and traders learnt the language. It is clear that at that period there was no formally trained teacher and it is thus difficult to depict the teaching methods used. The learners learnt the language by their own effort through communicating with locals, living together with indigenous people and through their own hard-work in analyzing the language. To sum up, the first set of teaching manuals and dictionaries for TCFL were prepared by the missionaries, with the aid of local native people, and were financially supported by the traders.
3.4 Learning of Cantonese in contemporary Hong Kong

One major result of the Opium Wars, the First Opium War (1839-42) and the Second Opium War (1852-58), was the establishment of Hong Kong as a British colony in the 19th century. With its systems of law and order as well as its academic, economic and religious freedom, European and American politicians started to develop Hong Kong, businesspersons started to trade there, and missionaries began preaching in Hong Kong. All these activities created an environment for people to learn Cantonese in Hong Kong.

James Legge received great help from his friends, William Charles Milne (Rev. William Milne’s son), Walter Henry Medhusrt (a fellow LMS China missionary), his student-turned-helpers, Ho Tsun-sheen (何連善 Hé Jìn Shàn also named 何瑜堂 Hé Fú Táng) and Wong Tao (王滔 Wáng Taō) in his pursuit of the Chinese languages before moving to Hong Kong. When Legge did his translation project with Chinese Classics, he worked closely with Ho. Working with Ho, Legge felt that Ho’s English had improved while Legge’s own mastery of Chinese had also improved (Wong 1996, Pfister 2003b). Legge was later appointed as the headmaster of the Anglo-Chinese College when the college was moved to Hong Kong7. When Legge returned to England, he became the first professor of Chinese at Oxford University.

It is a pity that there is a limited written record about how Legge learnt Chinese and Cantonese (Pfister 2003b), but Wong (1996) recorded the contributions of Legge.

7 It was later renamed “Yinghua College”, and then “Queen’s college”, the name it retains to the present day.
History and Current Trends of Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language 42

to teaching Cantonese as a foreign language in Hong Kong. He recorded that Legge served the Cadet System in Hong Kong for three years. The Cadet System started from the need for correct interpretation and translation in Hong Kong’s British run Government and courts. The Cadet System provided a group of officials working in Hong Kong with competence in spoken and written Chinese. After language training, Cadets would be transferred and be promoted to other positions. Some became Governors and Commissioners. Being a well-known sinologist in that period, Legge was invited to offer Chinese language training and to draft the first examination paper for them. The examination questions were mainly translation tasks and open questions. Appendix V shows the set of questions drafted by Legge (Wong 1996).

The Hong Kong Government Gazette and records of correspondence in the Hong Kong Public Archive show that the official examination was named “Examination in Cantonese”. The Examination was held in Hong Kong for testing the Cantonese ability of the Government Cadets after they had been trained. The examination was later named the “Examination of Chinese” or “Examination of Cantonese”. The Final Examination of Cantonese (for the Cadet System) had been changed several times. It was also recorded when Thomas A. O’Melia published the book “First Year Cantonese” in 1938, this book was widely used by the Hong Kong government as an official text and used as the syllabus for the Final Examination in Cantonese organized by the Board of Examiners. There is not much description about the format and context of the examination in archives or in other records, but there are records of the examinees who passed the final stage of the examination. During the period 1900-1920, there were thirteen candidates who passed the examination (Table 1).
Table 1. Candidates who passed the final Cantonese Examination during 1900-1920

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year passed</th>
<th>Name of Candidates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>E. D. C. Wolfe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R. F. Johnston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>A. E. Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J. D. Lloyd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>M. Breen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R. E. Lindsell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S. B. B. McElderry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>W. Schofield</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R. A. C. North</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. G. Perdue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. W. Hamilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P. Burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>W. J. Carrie</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was difficult to trace the life and the career path of all the Cadets. However, among these names, Reginald Fleming Johnston (R. F. Johnston), who passed the examination in 1901, was famous in his later work. R. F. Johnston joined the Colonial Office and was posted to Hong Kong, becoming a District Officer in China in 1898. Appendix VI contains a contract of R. F. Johnston undertaking to follow Cantonese courses during his period of service thereafter to serve as an interpreter.

After working in Hong Kong, he went to Peking (Beijing) and became the English tutor of the last Chinese imperial Emperor Puiyi (溥儀 Pùiyì). R. F. Johnston had great influence on the young Emperor (Simamora 2002). Later he was forced to flee because of the downfall of Puiyi, and returned to Britain and became the Professor of Chinese in SOAS.
3.5 Early learning materials of the Cantonese language

From the mid-19th to the early 20th century, there were various materials published for learners of Cantonese as a foreign language. As recorded in McNeur’s (1959) book, Life of Leung Faat and in Fok’s (1990) historical account of East-west cultural exchange, authors of Cantonese learning materials in the 19th century were missionaries or medical doctors who came to Canton, Macao and Hong Kong for their missions (Table 2). Samuel W. Bonney published his Vocabulary with Colloquial phrases of the Canton dialect in 1854 (Appendix VII shows the covering page). Rev. Lobscheid, a German missionary, came to Hong Kong to take up an appointment as Inspector of Schools. He found an urgent need to publish a good grammar book to assist the foreign student in the acquisition of written and spoken Chinese. He claimed there was not yet a work published in the Cantonese dialect to serve as a guidebook for studying the language (Fok 1990). In 1864, Lobscheid published Select Phrases and reading lessons in the Canton dialect (Appendix VIII shows the covering page). Another missionary, Rev. Thomas T. Devan published The Beginner’s First Book/ vocabulary of the Canton Dialect in 1858 (Appendix IX shows the covering page). Towards the end of the 19th century, there were some major publications in the field including, John G Kerr’s, a surgical doctor, Selected phrases in the Canton Dialect (1879).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1782 5th January</td>
<td>Robert Morrison was born in England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1807 7th September</td>
<td>Morrison arrived Canton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1813 4th July</td>
<td>Milne arrived Macao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1814</td>
<td>Morrison baptized the first Chinese Christian, Mr. Choi Kao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1816</td>
<td>Milne baptized Leung Faat in Malacca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1819</td>
<td>Morrison and Milne finished translating the Holy Bible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>The first American missionary, E. Bridgeman arrived Canton.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td>Morrison died in China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1836</td>
<td>The first American Baptist missionary arrived Macao.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1844</td>
<td>The American Presbyterian Church (長老會 Zhāng Lǎo Hùi) missionary, Happer arrived Macao.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1845</td>
<td>Baptist Church (浸信會 Jin Xìn Hùi) Dr. T. T. Devan started a clinic in Macao.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1846</td>
<td>Ho Tsun-sheen (何進善 Hé Jìn Shàn) was assigned as the pastor of the London Missionary Society Chapel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1847</td>
<td>The Congregationalist (公理會 Gōng Lǐ Huì) Dyer Ball arrived in Canton, started clinic and school (until 1853) from Singapore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>The Congregationalist, Vrooman traveled to Canton.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1857</td>
<td>The Congregationalist, Ms. Bonney started a Girls' school in Canton.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1858</td>
<td>Presbyterian Church, Dr. J.G Kerr moved to Canton and started a hospital and used his home to preach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1860</td>
<td>Bonney started to preach in a small Chapel.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cantonese teaching materials were also published by Hong Kong civil servants. Being an inspector of schools in Hong Kong, E.J. Eitel published *Chinese Dictionary in the Cantonese Dialect* in 1877. Appendix X shows the covering page of Eitel (1877) and Appendix XI shows the advertisement of the dictionary in the Hong Kong Government Gazette 1891. J. Chalmers also published his *English and Cantonese Dictionary* in the same year. Another key figure in TCFL, James Dyer Ball, who worked for the Hong Kong government, published a series of Cantonese learning materials. He not only published materials on Cantonese, such as *Cantonese Made Easy* (1883) (Appendix XII shows the covering page), *An English-Cantonese*
Pocket Vocabulary (1886), The Cantonese Made Easy Vocabulary (1886), How to Speak Cantonese (1889) and Select Phrases in the Canton Dialect (1890), but also produced works on other Chinese dialects, such as Hakka.

Apart from European and American scholars and learners, teaching Cantonese also attracted the attention of scholars from other parts of China when the famous Chinese linguist, Chao Yuen Ren published the Cantonese Primer. The Cantonese Primer was developed from a twelve-week summer Cantonese course given in Harvard University in 1942. Being a non-native speaker (Chao was a northerner) and using his subsequent knowledge acquired during his survey of Kwangtung (Guangdong) and Kwangsi (Guangxi) dialects under the auspices of Academia Sinica with the help of Cantonese informants, Chao published the Primer in 1947. In Appendix XIII, major textbooks and dictionaries for TCFL are arranged in chronological order.

3.6 Developing Chinese and Cantonese courses at tertiary level

The above sections have discussed successful early individual scholars and their achievement in learning Chinese and Cantonese with no help from formally established schools. This section discusses Chinese and Cantonese courses which were rooted as early as 1900 on the Chinese mainland and continued until the present time in Hong Kong. The whole story was initiated by a Christian mission, a group of American young missionaries who viewed learning the culture and language as one of the most important tasks.
A group of learners of the Chinese languages from New Haven arrived in China in the early twentieth century. They shouldered the mission of preaching Christianity in inland China by means of establishing educational and medical centers. Their mission was first named, “Yale Mission” in the beginning phase and later “Yale-in-China” and now “Yale-China”. Holden (1964) recorded that the first plans for Yale-in-China were formulated in 1901. The concept of “Yale’s Overseas Missions” originated from a book of essays, entitled “Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yale”, and appeared in connection with the bi-centennial celebrations of Yale University. The initial objectives were to carry out missionary activities outside America and to study the language of the area. The Yale Foreign Missionary Society was formed and tried to establish a center in China. China was selected for the mission because of the long-term relationship with Chinese graduates since the first Chinese student, Yung Wing (容閔 Róng Hóng), graduated in Yale from 1854. The Society believed China was therefore the most suitable location in the world for the “mission” (Chapman 2001). The Yale Mission aimed at building a “central station in a provincial capital which is a student center and that capital will be in such a locality as to make it a strategic center of Christian influence in the new China” (Holden 1964, p.24).

The committee members of the “Mission” thought that the coastal areas and trading ports of China experienced different degrees of western culture because of trade and missionary work. The inland provinces and cities were largely untouched. Hunan in south central China was such an area.

Hunan Province, the size of the state of New York, with a population of twenty-one million people, known as the last stronghold of
"heathenism" in China, offered a special challenge to Christian missionary workers... The story of the early efforts to evangelize Hunan is amongst the most heroic chapters in the history of missions in this country – or perhaps in any land. (Holden 1964, p.25-26).

Among the early missionaries from Yale, Josiah Cox was the one who made the first missionary trip to Hunan. Mr. Dick, according to Holden (1964), was the first missionary who could enter Changsha, the main city of Hunan. There were some followers afterwards, and they started to sell books and preach inside the city. It was the first time that men wearing western dress engaged in Christian work in the city. Holden (1964) recorded that after Rev. William J. Hail, one of the English-speaking teachers, had arrived Changsha in 1906 and worked closely with Edward H. Hume, a missionary school at Changsha was opened for Chinese students. It was later named the Yali Middle School. Subjects taught included Chinese history and literature, American and European history, English, mathematics, geography, physics, biology, chemistry and physical training. The Bible was taught as literature. Since none of the members of the Mission and English-speaking teachers had any previous experience of Chinese, "language study became all the more important" to the committee (Holden 1964, p.45). The Executive Committee of the Yale-in-China mission planned a long stay in Changsha because of the long-term religious and education target, and thus they suggested that people of the mission "must know the language" (Holden 1964, p.46). At that time, members sat in the classroom for language studies. They also wandered around talking to native people, and picking up colloquialisms in order to make their speech easier for the natives to understand.
The Yali Middle School was not without problems. The committee had faced many problems when it was first established, like getting funding, finding suitable accommodation, buying furniture, etc. As the school started, disciplinary problems also arose because of the cultural differences between the Chinese students and the American educators. Several disputes and unsatisfactory feelings formed among the Chinese students. Eventually those incidents could be solved. In the spring of 1910, the school faced a serious problem when a series of riots occurred in Changsha as a result of unrest created by the doubling of the price of rice because of crop failure everywhere in China. Anti-foreign sentiment was soon formed, as a result of which the Americans started to pack and planned for a quick departure as they were warned that the situation was dangerous. With the protection by the government, the school reopened in May and the term was completed successfully. After these incidents, the school viewed living harmoniously with the local people by learning the language and culture as one of the most important tasks. The school then witnessed the overthrow of the Imperial Chinese government, the 1911 revolution and the establishment of the Nationalists' government. The middle school continued and had the chance to expand its mission, building a college with a dormitory. The College Department was inaugurated in 1914 and a hospital was built next to the school campus in 1917. The school was the largest in the province and the hospital had the best equipment and was the largest building in central China. A steady stream of young men came each year from Yale to teach in the school in Changsha. They were called the “Yale Bachelors” or the “Yali Bachelors” who continued with the mission of teaching in China and equally important, living harmoniously with the locals as well as learning the language. It was the first recorded Chinese language training at tertiary level.
Later the Yale Foreign Missionary Society was formally renamed as "Yale-in-China Association". Because of these hard working and enthusiastic "Bachelors", the Middle School (a preparatory school for college, equivalent to an American high school) continued to expand, and built a new library and athletic fields. The hospital was able to handle more and more patients each year. The School of Nursing was organized in 1913 because of increasing needs for training nurses. The College of Yale-in-China (the College was formed in 1914 and was known in its various names, the College Department, the College of Arts and Sciences) was empowered to grant degrees in 1919, and later the Medical College was formed. These five major "Yale Missions" were later renamed as the Yali Union Middle School, the Hsiang-ya Hospital, the College of Yale-in-China, the Hsiang-ya Medical College and the Hsiang-ya School of Nursing. Although the staff in Changsha was getting more and more engaged in the expanding education and medical institutions, language studies remained as one of the most important missions. A quotation from Holden's (1964) descriptions of the Governing Board of Yale-in-China illustrates this.

Membership in the Governing Board was open only to those of the staff personnel who had fulfilled specified requirements of language study and residence at Changsha... One rewarding decision was that of requiring permanent staff members to attend language school in China long enough to become well acquainted with Chinese before taking up any teaching duties. (Holden 1964, p.98-108)

The Yale-in-China establishments in Changsha later faced difficult times due to various historical incidents, such as the invasion of Japan, strikes in Changsha, the
Civil War between Nationalists (Kuomingtang) and Communists and the Sino-Japanese War. “Yale-in-China” has experienced a series of ups and downs, closing and reopening on a number of occasions. The association ended its missions in China in 1951 and migrated to Hong Kong. Around 1953, the Yale-in-China Association cooperated with the New Asia College, which later became a major college of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. The New Asia College was founded in 1949 by a famous Chinese scholar, historian and educator, Ch’ien Mu (錢穆 Qián Mü) (1895-1990). The New Asia College aimed at providing higher education for students from Hong Kong and Macao. The majority of the students’ mother tongue was Cantonese. “Bachelors” continued to be sent for educational purposes and continued with their language pursuits. After the inauguration of the Chinese University of Hong Kong in 1963, Yale-in-China continued its efforts to internationalize the University by promoting the development of the “New Asia College-Yale-In-China Chinese Language Center”, later renamed as “New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center”, as an important resource for students of Cantonese and Mandarin and by developing an “International Asian Studies Program”. The Chinese Language Center provided opportunities for the “Yale Bachelors” to learn both Mandarin and Cantonese.

The “New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center at the Chinese University of Hong Kong” (CLC) became a center offering Cantonese and Mandarin courses. The training included both writing and speaking skills. The center has over 40 years history of teaching Chinese as a foreign language since 1960.

The historical documents of the Center show that the Center was founded in the autumn of 1961 by Mrs. Jennie Ling, who had taught Cantonese at the Yale Institute
of Far Eastern Languages. A quote from the Center’s documents and Mrs. Ling’s speech at the 40th anniversary of the Center shows how the Center began.

In response to pleas from missionaries who could find no adequate instruction in Cantonese in Hong Kong, Ms. Ling began teaching in her home. The project rapidly grew to a fully-fledged school.

(Internal document of New Asia–Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center)

It was a coincidence. It all started at our home. I met students who found no place to learn Cantonese and we had experience teaching Chinese in the States. We both wanted to make this Cantonese teaching and learning happen. We compromised a place to teach, that was inside my home. At that time there were no well-established curriculum and textbooks to use, so we made our own. Some teachers and I made the teaching materials the night before and put into use the next day. (Ling 2003)

In 1963, Preston Schoyer, a representative in Hong Kong of the Yale-in-China Association, arranged for the Center to be sponsored jointly by the New Asia College and Yale-in-China Association and to be housed at New Asia College. With this joint effort, the center was formally established with the name “New Asia–Yale-in China Chinese Language Center”.

In the 1970s, “the Language Center [taught] Mandarin or Cantonese to over two hundred students each year, and [had] a staff of over thirty teachers.” (Yale-in-China Association 1971, p.9) Agreements were later made to make the Center part of a
University programme and it subsequently received partial support from the University. Being part of the University programme, the Center increased its status and reputation, as shown in some comments in the Yale-in-China’s Annual Report. “The Chinese Language Center has been one of Yale-in-China’s most successful developments. It now has over 150 students, most of them are external students whose ranks are increasing and more and more foreign consulates use it to train their personnel.” (Yale-in-China Association 1974, p.4)

During 1975-76, the number of enrollments increased to 245. The International Asian Studies Program, initiated by Edmund Worthy, a Yale-in-China representative, was also established. It was a programme giving opportunities to non-Chinese students from all over the world to study the Mandarin and Cantonese language as core subjects at both the undergraduate and postgraduate level. The Center’s enrollment further increased after the start of this project. In its early establishment, there were no more than seven students allowed in each class (later increased to eight and to nine nowadays). After two years’ study, students were expected to be able to converse, read and even give talks in Cantonese and Mandarin.

Paker Huang, an instructor in Chinese at Yale, was appointed as the Director of the Center during 1963-64. During his service in the Center, he published a set of Cantonese teaching materials called *Speak Cantonese* which was an important set of textbooks for the Cantonese curriculum in the Center and in America. The series had three volumes. There were supplementary exercises, quizzes and tests used alongside the textbook. With continuous updates and revisions, it was used as a standard textbook for the Center for more than thirty years. After him, Richard F. Chang, also an instructor at Yale, was appointed for another two years. Liu Ming,
for eight years teaching at the United States Foreign Service Chinese Language School in Taiwan, and later John C. Jamieson, a sinologist, became the Director. With the efforts of these people and the instructors, a wide range of teaching materials were produced by the Center, including materials for spoken Cantonese, texts for teaching Chinese medical, religious and social work terms (mainly targeted at missionaries and professionals) and a set of study aids, such as flash cards for learning Cantonese and Mandarin. The Chinese Language Center was a “unique adventure for Yale-in-China” (Chapman 2001). The Yale-in-China’s tradition of sending American “Yale bachelors” to China to teach English did not stop. The Center acted as a partner in hiring Chinese to teach Chinese to foreigners, who were going to work with Chinese people in medicine, teaching, social work, diplomacy, business and other professions. During 1968-69, the Center had an enrollment of 100 students, 65% learning Cantonese and 35% Mandarin, with about 70% American students.

Apart from the CLC in the Chinese University of Hong Kong, the University of Hong Kong also offers Cantonese courses for expatriates in Hong Kong. The University of Hong Kong offers a two-year certificate programme in Cantonese training. The average number of Cantonese students is about twenty in the past two years. University of Science and Technology offers an online Cantonese course. Apart from the universities, the Hong Kong Government Language School, later renamed as “the Chinese Language Training Section” and listed under the Government Training Division, is another institutional establishment teaching Cantonese in Hong Kong. According to Lee Ming Kwong (1972), it was established in 1963 with its aim to provide systematic full-time Cantonese training to expatriate government officers. There are three types of courses, named “11-week
full time course”, “extended 22-week course” and “1-year part-time voluntary course”. Language training was one of the requirements for confirmation and promotion in the officers’ service. Lee (1972) continued to record that there were 6-20 students in each class and the textbooks used were *Elementary Cantonese* and *Intermediate Cantonese* written by Sidney Lau, who was the organizer of the Chinese Language Training Section. All the courses are conducted only for Hong Kong civil servants and were very few members of the public ever joined.

3.7 Students at New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center (CLC) during 1963-2003

CLC nowadays offers a two-year certificate programme in both Cantonese and Mandarin training. Fulfilling the examination requirement, a certificate could be obtained. There are also some short term intensive programmes and courses for different expatriate professionals in Hong Kong. The Center now has over 100 Cantonese students each semester. They come from all over the world, for example, Japan, India, the Philippines, Korea, Europe, Latin America, United States, Australia, Russia and Africa. Some students are professionals, such as missionaries, diplomats, doctors, accountants, and businesspersons. Some are the wives of these professionals and others are university exchange students joining the International Asian Studies Program and other exchange programmes of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. From the above description, it is not difficult to see that the students’ ages, professions, educational backgrounds, cultures, mother tongues, learning expectations, learning styles, and learning needs vary significantly.

When looking at students in CLC, the reasons for learning are more diverse
since they come from many places of the world and for different professional fields. Lee (2002, 2004a) described these characteristics of contemporary learners’ backgrounds at CLC. This part looks at documents found in CLC and describes the students’ profiles (with quantitative analysis), their reasons for learning and some of the difficulties the students came across when learning Cantonese. Chapter 5 will take a closer look at the learners’ needs in CLC.

A total of 3,651 student files were collected and entered into a database. Descriptive statistical analysis was adopted to look at profiles of students who had studied at the Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center in the last 40 years.

Nationality

In general, there is an increasing trend in the number of learners at CLC. Students of the Center come from more than 40 different countries. In the early years following the establishment (1963-72) of the center, the majority of the students came from America (59%). United Kingdom (12%) and other European countries (14%) had the second and third highest proportion. The situation was the same during 1973-82, when American students (46.5%) were the major group of learners. British and Europeans were the next. During 1983-92, although Americans were the highest (33%), Japanese learners became the second highest (24%), Europeans and British followed. During 1993-2002, the number of Japanese learners (40%) out-numbered American (26%) and British learners (6%). The data is summarized in Table 3 (raw data is presented in Appendix XIV), and Fig. 1 shows the trend of the changes.
Table 3. Number of students of CLC and percentage of students from different parts of the world (the highest two percentages of each time slot are highlighted)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>46.5%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other European</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other countries</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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|                | 510       | 806       | 964       | 1371      |
|                | 100%      | 100%      | 100%      | 100%      |

Fig. 1. Percentage of American, British, European and Japanese students in CLC

The data shows that English speakers were and still are the major group of students (Americans, British, Canadians, Australians and New Zealanders). Fig. 1 shows that the increase in Japanese learners is another trend. Since there is a mixture of students' language background, the Center makes a decision of reducing
the use of English as the medium of instruction in intermediate and advanced classes and promotes the use of Direct Method in classroom teaching.

Professions

Looking at the professional background of the learners, missionaries consisted of the highest proportion (35%) during 1963-1972 (shown in Table 4). Students from the educational field, working as educators, teachers, instructors and tutors of secondary and tertiary institution were the second highest (34%). The third highest group consisted of retired and unemployed people (15%). Shown in Fig. 2, the situation was similar during 1973-1982 and 1983-1992. Missionaries and people from the educational field were always two major groups. However, there was a gradual percentage drop of the two groups. Between 1983-1992 and 1993-2002, there was a bigger decrease in numbers of missionary learners (10%).

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<tr>
<td>Missionary</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>101</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>26%</td>
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<td>7%</td>
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<td>Education</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>214</td>
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<td></td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>16%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Retired &amp; unemployed</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>248</td>
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<td></td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>18%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>212</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>15%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diplomatic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<td>Exchange students</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>367</td>
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<td>1.4%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>27%</td>
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<tr>
<td>University Staff</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>133</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>10%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>7%</td>
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<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>806</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>1371</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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On the other hand, as shown in Fig. 3, retired and unemployed students remained steady in the last forty years (15%-18%). Diplomatic and other government officials also grew steadily with a sudden increase during 1993-2002. This might be because of an increased number of diplomats who needed to learn Cantonese around 1997 because they worked in relation to the Hong Kong handover issue. There was also a sudden growth of students from business sectors after 1982, with an increase from 6% (1973-1982) to 15% (1983-1992). The number of university staff and students on the exchange programme offered by the Chinese University of Hong Kong, named International and Asian Studies Program (IASP/IAS), has grown steadily over the last forty years. This was as a result of the policy advocated by the Vice Chancellors of The Chinese University of Hong Kong in order to develop exchange programmes with overseas universities and to encourage academic exchange.
Age of the students

Fig. 4 shows the percentage and number of students of different age groups over the last 40 years. The age of the students ranged from 14 to 76. Over half of the population (61.5%) was aged 21 to 40. The 21-30 group has the highest percentage (43%) and 31-40 age group is the second highest (18.5%). This shows that the learners were mainly adults and all study the language for practical reasons or for personal interest.
Reasons for learning

The center's brochures and newsletters\(^8\) of the recent five years were collected in order to analyze for reasons of learning the language. The data was analyzed and it shows some reasons of learning as well as some of the difficulties students came across. The data shows that learners at CLC did not have one simple reason of learning, but showed a mixed cultural background and a complex combination of needs. Five types of learner in CLC are shown below.

**Learner A** is an American Chinese. The reason for learning was that he believed an ethnic Chinese should know how to speak and write his own language. He made friends with a few salespersons in various shops. Everyday when he passed their shops, he would talk with them. It was a good chance to learn

\(^8\) Quarterly newsletters of CLC, named "Language Matters", publish students' work includes scripts of their speeches, compositions and also invite students to submit their articles about learning Cantonese.
Cantonese. This action not only could solve some of the problems he had when he studied his textbooks, but was also able to learn some useful slang, taboo and swear words. This helped him to understand more about television programmes. Apart from the problems in pronunciation, another difficult aspect was how to write Chinese characters. Knowledge of Cantonese gave him honour and helped him understand more about being Chinese.

Learner B is a Government Official who learnt Cantonese part-time. He thought life in Hong Kong without some knowledge of the language missed a vital dimension. He mentioned that learners of Cantonese should possess thick skin and a mental attitude of a marathon runner because it would be a life-time learning experience. The main difficulty was tones. He said, "I had absorbed quite a lot of vocabulary and was happy to experiment with it, tones were absolutely hopeless". Learning Cantonese did not link to previous linguistic experience for non-Asian learners. He suggested approaching Cantonese like a baby, which meant "not to think or to analyze too much, just absorb it and accept it". Learners should also immerse themselves in its sounds, watch TV, especially modern soap operas and game shows for the situational dialogue and the latest slang.

Learner C is an American Missionary. The reason of learning was obviously practical, which was that she needed to work in Hong Kong. She found the sounds of Cantonese words strange and there were clumsy moments of embarrassment. She confessed that she was still struggling with speaking and often was frustrated. However, her instructors and classmates at the language Center have provided the
"context" and language environment for her learning.

Learner D is a working Japanese. He was learning Cantonese for working purposes. His attitude towards Cantonese was positive. He said "it sounds good, like music." He also mentioned that successful learning requires thick skin. He mainly used audio-tapes and recited passages when he learnt the language. Teachers also helped him by correcting errors in pronunciation.

Learner E is an American exchange student. He learnt Cantonese because he saw a big population speaking the language. He realized the task of learning Chinese was not an easy one right from the beginning. He devoted many hours to practice tones, to learn the vocabulary items and to remember grammatical structures. He thought the natural part of the learning was to make mistakes no matter whether the learner was at beginner or advanced level. However, living abroad provided a good exposure and environment for learners.

Learner F is a female Japanese student. She learnt Cantonese because firstly she was interested in Hong Kong movies as well as culture and secondly she aimed at finding a job in Hong Kong or related to Hong Kong after she had finished her Cantonese studies. She thought that pronunciation was the most difficult aspect of learning Cantonese. She had Hong Kong friends and had chances to speak Cantonese outside the classroom. Since she was interested in Hong Kong movies, and she frequently watched movies and attended singing concerts.

If a comparison is made between the characteristics of early scholars and recent
learners, there are some differences in their reasons for learning Cantonese. One characteristic of early scholars was that they needed to learn the language for practical reasons, for example, they needed to preach, they had their own academic pursuit or educational inspiration, or they needed to practice trade and commercial activities, or they held a major position in Hong Kong government. However, looking at the documentary data collected in CLC, students are coming from different cultural and linguistic background and they learn Cantonese for different reasons. Some students learn for practical reasons and some for cultural reasons. To sum up, it is clear that students’ cultural backgrounds as well as their reasons for learning Cantonese changes and have varied in the past 40 years.

3.8 Conclusion

After looking at the historical background of learning and teaching Cantonese as a foreign language, the first few research questions can be addressed or partly addressed.

1. How did the teaching of Cantonese develop?
2. Who were the learners in the past and who are they now? Were there changes in learners’ profiles throughout the history of TCFL? What are the reasons for learning the language?
3. What are the difficulties of the learners when learning Cantonese?

Historical data shows that early European scholars’ interests in the Chinese Languages started from the 16th century. These scholars mostly had a relationship with missionary work or had a tie with trade related activities. After Hong Kong
was opened to trade, government officials also became major learners. The initial purpose of these people to learn the language was due to practical reasons. They needed to work in the area, either to preach, to translate Chinese works, to teach, to cure patients or to work for the government. The history indicated that their major difficulties were lack of teaching materials and textbooks, lack of trained foreign language teachers (especially in Morrison's period), lack of exposure to the locals (because of restrictions and several historical incidents that provoked anti-foreign sentiments) and also lack of facilities. Eventually many of these difficulties were overcome and these scholars published the early works in TCFL and became specialists in the area. These pioneer scholars stimulated more subsequent works. As time went by, with the development of Chinese centers, teaching materials were accumulating and teaching approaches were evolving. The next chapter (Chapter 4) takes an in-depth look at the textbooks and the different approaches used in TCFL.

The historical data also shows that learning of Cantonese started by missionaries as early as in the 16th century and then learning and teaching of Cantonese at tertiary level was started by the Yale missionaries. They had developed the New Asia--Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center (CLC) which is affiliated to the Chinese University of Hong Kong. The documentary data gathered at CLC shows that there were changes in learners' backgrounds over the past 40 years (1963-2003). The major features of the changes were the increasing number of learners from Asian countries, especially from Japan, and an increasing number of businesspersons, retired and unemployed people, although English-speaking learners were dominant in the Center and missionary learners formed a major proportion of students. Nowadays, learners' backgrounds and needs are complex and complicated. From the documentary evidence, current learners are learning Cantonese with
heterogeneous backgrounds while most early scholars learnt the language because of some practical reasons. Since the 17th century, learners studied Cantonese for practical reasons. They learnt the language to do missionary work, to preach, to work in the educational field and to work as government officials. However, during 1963-1990, the majority of the learners still learnt Cantonese for job-related purposes, for example for carrying out missionary and diplomatic work. During 1993-2003, the highest percentage groups were exchange students and retired and unemployed students. These groups of learners learnt Cantonese for cultural or heritage reasons. The reasons of learning Cantonese vary among the different groups of learners. The profiles of learners have continued to change in recent years, as have their reasons of learning and the learning difficulties they have. In order to take a closer look at the current learners and discuss what kind of textbooks and teaching approaches are appropriate for learners nowadays, a needs analysis was carried out. Chapter 5 further investigates and discusses learners' needs at the CLC. It also describes the needs of the current learners by analyzing the data collected from the needs analysis. Chapter 6 discusses whether the textbooks available and the teaching approaches adopted (discussed in Chapter 4) can match current learners' needs.
4. Development of Approaches to Teaching Cantonese as a Foreign Language

This chapter discusses the development of TCFL by looking at learning manuals and textbooks used. Special attention is paid to changes in teaching approaches, and teaching methods presented in contemporary textbooks. This chapter addresses two research questions,

4. What kinds of textbooks were published?
5. What were the approaches used in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language?

This chapter provides an analysis of Cantonese textbooks. It looks at the development of textbooks in terms of pedagogical methods. A diachronic comparison shows how teaching methods have developed. It demonstrates how Cantonese learning materials develop from early phrasebook to contemporary textbooks which have a variety of language situations and cultural elements presented.

4.1 Early phrasebooks and dictionaries

The first major sets of learning materials were provided by missionary scholars. They started to collect vocabulary items from their surrounding environments and arranged them into dictionaries and phrasebooks.

As discussed in Chapter 3, Robert Morrison was one of the pioneers who had
successfully learnt Cantonese as a foreign language. His memoir showed his purposes of learning the language, his struggle in Canton, the difficulties he came across, and his far-reaching achievements. His learning progress was full of frustrated feelings. He was depressed when he found the learning environment so bad and he was overjoyed when he finished his dictionary – *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect* - in 1827. *Vocabulary* is one of the oldest materials for learning Cantonese as a foreign language. A Letter from George T. Staunton expressed his support to Morrison and how happy he was that he had completed this pioneer work – the *Vocabulary*.

I am happy to congratulate you on a work which will prove, both in regard to its plan and its execution, a most valuable acquisition to the student of the Chinese language. ... In the study of a language so peculiar and so difficult of access as the Chinese, the student cannot have too much assistance. (Morrison E., p.291-300)

Morrison himself, George Staunton and other learners, such as T. T. Devan, William Lobscheid and Dyer Ball, discovered that there were insufficient materials for learning the language. Devan (1858) wrote,

When the compiler of this work first arrived in China, he found no book sufficiently simple and at the same time so easy of access, as to meet his first wants in the study of the Canton Dialect. (Devan 1858, p.iii)
This kind of statement could be easily found in most early work (Lobscheid 1864, Ball 1883). This became the reason why most early scholars needed to compile their own phrasebooks, dictionaries or learning manuals.

At this stage, it was difficult to talk about teaching method. Moreover, it was extraordinarily difficult to find any individual to teach the language because of the prohibition of the Chinese Imperial government and the social tension between Chinese and expatriates in that period. It is not accurate to talk about how "Cantonese teachers" taught the language; rather it is more interesting to look at how these scholars learnt the language. However, there are also very few records that mention how they learnt. There are some hints in William Milne's description based on Morrison's manuscript, and quoted in Broomhall (1924), about how Morrison learnt the language. Milne wrote that Morrison "ate in the Chinese manner, and dined with the person who taught him the language." (Broomhall 1924, p.55)

It was logical and reasonable to speculate that the approach Morrison took was by observing the people living around him, imitating and transcribing the sounds, remembering the phrases and sentences and studying documents available to him, and then he wrote them down and arranged them in a logical manner. After years of work, he tried to compile the words and phrases into a phrase book, which was the *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect*. With the financial support of the East India Company, one of the major aims of the *Vocabulary* was to provide a language aid to the traders in the company. There was a paragraph in his introduction of Part one
explaining some limitations of the *Vocabulary*.

The names of foreign articles of commerce in Canton are very irregularly and variously written among different shopmen and dealers. [...] are known only to the respective manufacturers and dealers. To enquire among them and settle their nomenclature was a task for which the writer was by no means qualified. He requested assistance from European dealers and received some, but it was scanty and defective. (Morrison 1828, p.i)

After Morrison had finished his *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect*, more phrasebooks were published by various scholars. They all based their framework on Morrison's *Vocabulary*. J. F. Davis (1824), at a similar time, published *A Commercial Vocabulary* at the East India Company Press. He stated very clearly in the preface of the book that, “For the sake of uniformity, the compiler has made use of the system of Orthography adopted in the Dictionary of Dr. Morrison” (Davis 1824, p.i). The *Commercial Vocabulary* contained words and phrases peculiar to the trade of Canton and Macao, for example, names of the trade items, 瑪瑙石 (agate), 海螺石 (beaver skins), and 硫黃 (brimstone), etc. It also provided titles and addresses of all the officers of government and “hong” merchants. For example, 水師提督 (Admiral), and 船主 (Captain, or Master of a Merchant ship) The phrasebook provided practical trading terms for the traders in Canton and Macao. It not only provided the surface meaning of the terms, but also some cultural considerations and important points for interaction with the China government when doing business at that moment in the area. Looking at the explanation of the term
S. W. Bonney (1854) also published a similar phrasebook called, *A Vocabulary with Colloquial Phrases of the Canton Dialect*. Although using a similar name as Davis (1824) and Morrison (1827), Bonney had some innovations in his phrasebook. He presented example sentences and showed how the phrases could be used. For example, under the entry of “anxious”, he gave an example sentence,

你思慮太過點成能事 How can you accomplish the business while you are so anxious and worried? (Bonney 1854, p.6)

The concept of introducing sample sentences to learners along with vocabulary items was further expanded by another missionary learner, T. T. Devan. Devan’s (1858) *The Beginner’s First Book* suggested that remembering words or phrases was the first step of learning a foreign language. However, how to make grammatical sentences was the next. Devan believed a good learning manual should be able to help learners not only “to acquire the knowledge of words”, but also the rules to make sentences.

Similar to other phrasebooks, in the “Beginner’s Book” there were vocabulary
items grouped into categories like, "Number", "Time", "Occupations", "Personal necessities of life". One of the aims of the book was to meet the wants of the physician as well as that of the missionary, as a result about 1000 items were arranged in the medicine list. In the second edition of the book, he added further entries to extend the use of the book to the traveler and for household use. In the Preface to the second edition, he wrote, "other new sentences [were added] which were thought would prove of great use to the traveler or the student, the work has been enlarged by more than one-third of its former volume, and may now safely be termed the 'Traveler's or Household Companion,' as well as the 'Student's First Assistant'.” (Devan 1858, p.vii)

What made Devan's (1858) book different from a phrasebook in that period was that some vocabulary items were also arranged according to their grammatical categories, such as "Nouns", "Adjectives", "Verbs", "Adverbs & Propositions", "Particles", and "Phrases". He believed,

The beginner being thus in possession of the names of the more immediately useful objects, is introduced in some-what of a grammatical order to a knowledge of those words which are in daily use in ordinary conversation. (Devan 1858, p.iii)

He also provided grammatical explanations at the beginning of each section, such as explanatory notes on "nouns", "verbs" and "particles". He wrote about Chinese verbs that they "express the idea only, and undergo no change or inflection on account of Tense or Mode... The difference of Time or Mode is signified by the
context, or by additional words" (Devan 1858, p.57). Grammatical rules can be commonly found in Cantonese teaching manuals today, but they were first seen in Devan's book. He also stated that the use and the social functions of language were as important as the grammatical rules.

The sole object in view has been to furnish the beginner with a Primer of the Canton Vernacular Dialect, to facilitate his daily intercourse, not with books, but with people. (Devan 1858, p.iv)

He also explicitly pointed out the major difficulty of learning Cantonese was to grasp the tonal system of the language. He thought that "no system of orthography is capable of expressing exactly the sounds given by the Chinese to their words... The greatest difficulty in the Vernacular is the tones... Pronouncing the tones of the words incorrectly, the learners would make an unintelligible sound or convey an idea totally distinct from what was intended by the speaker" (Devan 1858, p.iv-v).

4.2 Phrases with grammatical rules (Lobscheid 1864 and Ball 1883)

Both Lobscheid (1864) and Ball (1883) complain about the insufficiency of phrasebooks and try to emphasize the importance of learning vocabulary items within context. Lobscheid's (1864) book claims to include "some useful and interesting Reading Lessons and presents the work to the students and an indulgent public with the hope of facilitating the friendly intercourse with the people among whom they sojourn." (Lobscheid 1864, p.i).
Ball’s (1883) *Cantonese Made Easy* points out explicitly in the preface of his course book that “he is embarrassed by the multiplicity of renderings for one word” (p.i). He also complains that there was no distinction made in phrasebooks between the colloquial (spoken) and book (written) language and learning just from phrasebooks learners would sound bookish when they spoke. He points out the fact that existing phrasebooks did not make a clear distinction between formal speech and colloquial usage. He suggests that vocabulary items or phrases should be put in “context”; by this he means “grammatical context” rather than “situational” or “functional” contexts. He presents his book in 15 lessons containing different grammatical points. Under the heading of “reflexives”, after he has introduced Cantonese reflexive pronoun 自己 jìngéi (–self), he has the following demonstration of the use of this reflexive pronoun in different syntactic “contexts”.

我自己 ngóh jìngéi (I myself)
你自己 néih jìngéi (you yourself)
他自己 kéuih jìngéi (he himself or she herself or it itself)
係自己做嘅 haih jìngéi jouh ge (I did it myself)
一個人自己 yātgo yānh jìngéi (a man’s own self)

(Adopted from Ball 1883, p.82)

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9 Examples from Cantonese are presented in Romanization and English translation. Cantonese pronunciation is present with the Yale-Romanization system, which is one of the most commonly use Romanization system in TCFL.
Ball (1883) points out the importance of presenting vocabulary items and grammatical structures in situational contexts. In his book, he tries to embody his experience gained from "daily intercourse for nearly a quarter of a century with all classes of Chinese in their daily life, and years of contact with all grades of Chinese in the course of his official duties" (p.iii). In terms of grammar, Ball (1883) emphasizes grammatical points by providing explanation and elaboration of the rules. He thinks that providing grammatical explanations could enable learners to avoid "egregious errors" (p.v), and thus an important stage in learning and teaching the language. He tries to enable beginners to form a "conception of the mode in which English grammatical forms may be rendered in Chinese, a language which at first sight appears to be devoid of all grammar" (p.v).

He focuses closely on two very distinct grammatical features of Cantonese. These are the classifiers and sentence-end particles. Cantonese is extremely rich in these two items, and they are lacking in most European languages. By using an approach similar to comparative linguistic study, Ball (1883) comments about final particles that it was a pity that early dictionaries did not contain all that are in use. He points out that sentence-end particles contained aspect and emotional elements. However, at the same time, he recognizes the complexity of the Cantonese particles, he claims that the grammatical points provided in his book about sentence particles are "hints" but not grammatical theories on the sentence particles.

the hint may be of use if taken advantage of, for there are a great many more shades of meaning to be expressed by a proper use of these little words than most European have ever dreamt of. (Ball 1883, p.vi)
In the second edition published in 1887, he adds entries on classifiers, and listed the idiomatic use of verbs. He started to find some discrepancies between Cantonese grammatical points and European grammatical concepts. He made an important point that it is "a waste of time to draw up a Chinese Grammar on the same lines as an English Grammar" (Ball 1887, p.x). As a result, he reminded the readers that learners should be trained to be able to compare between Cantonese grammatical points and that of their mother tongue. He suggested that learners should know the similarities and differences between Cantonese and their mother tongue and they should focus on the differences while learning the new language.

In the 3rd edition published in 1907, he further developed his theory of learning and teaching of Cantonese. He also focused on language use in addition to grammatical rules during the learning process and suggested learners should "constantly" practice the language otherwise it was impossible to speak it (Ball 1907, p.xii). Another suggestion of Ball (1883) was to emphasize practicing tones, and he commented that tones were of secondary importance in early phrasebooks. In his 3rd edition he further added 22 pages in the introduction (total 39 pages) talking about tones.

4.3 From sentence level to contextual level (O'Melia 1938)

As mentioned in Chapter 3, O'Melia's First Year Cantonese was used as a standard textbook for the official examination set by the Hong Kong Government for Cantonese students. There are three parts in his book. Part one consists of
grammatical explanation and practice. There are topics like, "the indirect object", "Comparison of adjectives", and "relative clauses", etc. In each lesson, example sentences are provided and followed by grammatical points. Part two is mainly on contextual usage of vocabulary items. New words are given and followed by stories made up by the new words introduced. O'Melia (1938) suggests in the preliminary note of Part II that this “will also test our appreciation of the grammar and, where necessary, will give occasion to review it.” (O'Melia 1938) In doing so, he suggests that new vocabulary items and idiomatic expressions needed to be controlled when preparing a textbook. Part III of his course book consisted of story-like conversations. His aim is to cultivate a smoother control and more fluent use of ordinary colloquial language. He states in the note to Part III, the book “aims at welding the materials of Parts One and Two into a cohesive whole through abundant repetition. The dialogues are samples of everyday speech, chosen from actual conversations between Chinese” (O'Melia 1938).

Similar to Ball (1883), O'Melia further explains the difficulties of grasping Cantonese sounds and tones. He makes comments like,

Only the Chinese do not mean the same thing by the same sound as we do! [...] Though nothing to be frightened of, tones must be diligently practiced. A wrong tone means a wrong word. (O'Melia 1938, p.xiii-xviii)

However, he moves one step further and says “if we are too self-conscious as to the tone of a word or too fearful least we be wrong, we become painfully halting and
hesitant” (p.xxi). O’Melia (1938) suggests the method of learning would be through imitation and repetition. This led the way to the audio-lingual method and repetition drilling technique of teaching Cantonese, which was developed further by some contemporary teachers (Chao 1947, Whitaker 1954, Lung 1965, Lee 1950, Lau 1972a, 1972b, Huang & Kok 1973a, 1973b, Chan & Hung 1994 and Chik 1980).

We can ensure the acquisition of all by careful listening and spirited imitation. At first the process must of necessity be deliberate and slow. Frequent repetition brings speed. Practice makes perfect.

(O’Melia 1938, p.xxi)

4.4 Grammar-translation and the “Echo” method (Chao 1947)

Chao’s (1947) Cantonese Primer is the first Cantonese textbook formally published by a Chinese linguist and used at university level. The Primer was developed from an off-shore course in the United States. It was developed from a twelve-week summer course in Cantonese at Harvard University in 1942. Chao (1947) has a different assumption and target from the learning materials used by missionaries and government officials. He makes it clear in his introduction that the priority of the training was mainly a linguistic one.

In many cases, the student of Chinese probably does not expect to go to China or to have much occasion to converse in Chinese, but wishes to acquire a reading knowledge of the language. (Chao 1947, p.58-59)
He suggests that for students it is “not necessary to aim at a perfect accent” (p. 58). On one hand, he is sympathetic about the learning of Cantonese sounds and tones. He talks about the long and short vowel as in sām (heart) and sāam (three) in Cantonese and makes some comparisons between Cantonese sounds and similar sounds in English words as in some and psalm.

If the vowels in sam “heart” and saam “three” can be learned exactly, well and good. If not, it will be quite all right to use the vowel in some for sam and the vowel in psalm for saam. (Chao 1947, p. 58)

On the other hand he suggests that the process of learning the language should develop gradually. Learners should learn pronunciation first, then words, then sentences. He calls the learning of “pronunciation and words” the foundation work and learning of sentence the development work. He also emphasizes “precision in the foundation work will influence the development work” (p. 59) and successful learning in foundation work would definitely cut down the number of years of learning.

He admires the grammar-translation method more than the direct method. He suggests to his students to focus on the “study of vocabulary, analysis of the grammatical construction and idioms in the text, and translation of the text into the student’s own language” (p. 60). The reason for not using the direct method is that “the teacher can always explain phonetic and grammatical points more efficiently in
the student's own language. "Direct method should be suspended the moment it interferes with the direct understanding of a focal point." (p.60) However, he does not suggest "translation" as the main tool of learning, but it was an aid to understand the texts presented in the book. He believes the texts presented passive knowledge, but practice and exercises (written and oral) showed active knowledge, which was the knowledge to use the language. As a result he points out some defects of using translation as the only method.

Too much concern with translation as a formal task at an early stage usually results in creating a strange kind of "translatese" in one's own language rather than in learning the foreign language. (Chao 1947, p.64)

In addition, he suggests although some students' final aims of learning the foreign language were for translation purpose, the learning itself should not focus only on translation exercises. It should be achieved by other means. "One of the chief purposes of knowing a foreign language is, in fact, to be able to translate it into one's own language, which can best be acquired by means other than translation." (p.64)

Chao (1947) depicts the teaching method quite explicitly. He suggests that repetition and sentence drills were the predominant tools for practicing and learning. "After the student reads aloud a phrase or sentence, he should immediately repeat it as an echo without looking at the book. Then he may check the echo by the text and finally repeat the corrected echo" (p.60). He calls it the "Echo method".
suggests teachers and learners “try with short phrases first, then with larger units up
to complete sentences extending over two or three lines” (p.60) and teachers should
not let any sentence pass until the learners can do it perfectly from beginning to end.

4.5 Drilling exercises and “Conversational approach”

After the famous scholars (Morrison 1827, Ball 1883, Chao 1947) had put forth
the basic methods and highlighted the difficulties in learning Cantonese, many
materials were developed during 1950-1980. One outstanding trend during
1950-1980 was the emphasis on “drills”, which followed the idea of Chao’s (1947)
“Echo method”, and textbooks were developed based on a “Grammatical syllabus”.
Textbooks like Whitaker (1954), Lung (1965), Lau (1972) and Lee (1972) use
“drills” to a large extent in the Cantonese training courses. More drill techniques
are developed in these textbooks (Whitaker 1954, Lung 1965, Lau 1972 and Lee
“pyramid drill”, “transformation drill”, “substitution drill”, “Cue-word drill” and
“response drill or question and answer drill”.

“Sounds & tones drill”, “vocabulary drill”, “sentence drill” are self-explanatory.
Teachers practicing “transformation drill” ask students to change the provided
statements to negative forms or interrogative forms and vice versa. “Substitution
drill” requires students to find substitution from a grammatical category of words, for
example, 我有書 Ngöh móuh syū (I don’t have books) changed to 王先生有書
Wôhng sänsäang móuh syū (Mr. Wong doesn’t have books). By “cue-word drill”,
Lee (1972) suggests that when “the teacher judges by the student’s accurate
responses that the pattern has been thoroughly assimilated, he provides a word from
the drill or a new word and students are required to produce the entire pattern" (Lee 1972, p.25). "Response drill" requires the students to answer the questions posed both positively and negatively. To put it into simple words, all the drills were repetitions. Teachers produce the sounds and students repeat the words. This method is quite far-reaching and it has affected even some newly developed teaching materials (Chan & Hung 1994).

"Drilling exercises" and "Mimic exercises" are also used in some TESOL and TEFL textbooks. However recent scholars comment on this type of teaching methods. Stevick (1982) thinks that the "drilling method" adopted a behaviourist's approach. Learners would "learn better if they are immediately rewarded for each correct response to the teachers' stimuli" (Stevick 1982, p.95). He suggests that teachers could combine classroom activities, like "substitution drill" and "transformation drill", with other oral activities, like "question and answer" activities. Wilkins (1976) also comments that the "grammatical syllabus" of foreign language teaching was mechanical and sometimes deviated from the actual language use. He suggests using "situational syllabuses" and "notional approaches" and emphasizes the "communicative value" in language teaching.

According to this view language always occurs in a social context and it should not be divorced from its context when it is being taught... This suggests that it is possible for people to concentrate learning upon the forms of language that are most appropriate to their needs. This creates the possibility of a learner-based syllabus to replace the subject-based grammatical syllabus... Predictions of the situations in
which the learner is likely to operate through the foreign language.

Learning units no longer have grammatical label but situational labels.

(Wilkins 1976, p.83)

At that period, another trend of TCFL was to change to be more “situational” by introducing or trying to put “conversations” into the Cantonese textbooks. Chan Yeung Kwong’s (1951) *Everybody’s Cantonese* uses a “Grammatical-conversational approach”. He suggests learners should not try to learn the language by learning its grammar alone but to learn how the language was used in actual life. However in his book, he focuses on the “grammatical” part rather than the “conversational” part. This point can be shown in the topics of the lessons. Topics like “Questions asking ‘whether or not’” (Lesson 1), “classifier” (Lesson 2), and “interrogative final” (Lesson 3) can be found on the table of contents. Although he adds some situational topics, such as “traveling, telephoning”, “Marriage and Funerals” in the latter part of the book, the structure of the lessons is similar to that of the early grammatically based materials. New words are introduced and then followed by example sentences. Some sentences contain questions and answers, but it is still far from examples of conversations. The term “conversational” actually is used by him to contrast to “written” and “formal”. In other words, it should be better rephrased his “grammatical-conversational approach” to “learning words and sentence patterns through oral practice” and learning the colloquial forms rather than the formal written forms in his textbook. He states in the book that it was necessary to learn Chinese characters when one was learning conversational Cantonese and the major aims of Cantonese learners were to learn colloquial Cantonese, and not Chinese literature. Yuen’s (1962) *A Guide to Cantonese* is another textbook of a similar type.
4.6 Situational syllabuses

At the same time, there was a developmental trend towards true "conversational" or "situational-based" teaching materials. Advocated by the Postmaster General L. C. Saville at that time, Lee S. K. (1950) published Cantonese Simplified as an adjunct to radio lessons for learners of Cantonese. The radio Cantonese learning programme was a weekly Radio Hong Kong broadcast, one of the radio broadcasting channels. The aim was "to dispel the idea that the Cantonese language is difficult to acquire, and that proficiency in it is a matter of laborious study" (Lee 1950, p. i). Each lesson contains a list of new words and a combination of new words, idioms or general expressions and the "application" of them, which are either conversations or stories demonstrating the use of these items.

4.7 Combining drills and language situations

Lau (1972a, 1972b, 1975) and Huang & Kok (1973a, 1973b) are two sets of textbooks used by the government training office and the Chinese University of Hong Kong. There are two similarities between these two sets. They both provide contextual situations for the use of the vocabulary items and a massive use of drilling exercises.

Sidney Lau, being the organizer of the Government Cantonese Training section, started to write a set of textbooks for this training programme in the early 70s. He published Elementary Cantonese and Intermediate Cantonese in 1972 and Advanced Cantonese in 1975. For elementary and intermediate level, he suggests use of the
Audio-lingual method.

The aim of the courses is to give students the ability to understand and speak Cantonese in the shortest possible time. [...] It is generally accepted that the most effective way of attaining this ability is the use of the audio-lingual method, not the traditional method relying mainly on teacher’s “chalk-and-talk”. (Lau 1972a, p.v)

Similar to Lee (1950), Lau’s Elementary and Intermediate Cantonese course book is based on a “Cantonese-by-Radio” programme. There are 20 lessons for each level and finishing them would lead to the First and Second Cantonese Certificate Examination organized by the Hong Kong Government. One of the main features is to use dialogues and short stories to introduce the use of vocabulary items and grammatical structures. He bases his textbooks on a grammatical syllabus by introducing different grammatical patterns of Cantonese. He emphasizes that his “vocabulary list” was only for reference, especially the list of supplementary vocabulary which contained professional terms and terms for specialized fields. The use of “explanatory notes” in his books is mainly to “explain the structural feature of every sentence pattern” and “sometimes discuss the semantic as well as the cultural aspects of the Cantonese dialect” (Lau 1972a, p.vii).

Although he gives explanations of grammatical structures, he does not believe teaching grammar alone is sufficient for adult learners learning Cantonese.

[o]f course knowledge of sentence structure does not automatically imply the ability to understand and speak a language, but contrastive
analysis with illustrative examples will help an adult student consolidate and re-inforce the sentence patterns he has come across.

(Lau 1972a, p.vii)

He suggests that new vocabulary items and sentence patterns should be controlled so that “a student of even moderate aptitude can manage to learn and remember most” (Lau 1972a, p.v-vi). Reminders are given to indicate words or expressions that have already appeared, but with a different meaning in a previous lesson.

In order to achieve the purpose of reinforcement, pattern substitution drill exercises are given in each lesson. The amount of “drill exercises” provided is about three times greater than that of the new vocabulary and sentence structure in each lesson so as to reinforce aural comprehension and oral practice. These “drill exercises” are systematically presented based on a grammatical syllabus. He believes that the “drill” method was the best way to teach Cantonese and other foreign languages.

Repetitious drills like this seem boring and monotonous to some impatient students who are anxious to learn more sentence patterns and vocabulary, but it is the best way of molding automatic and unconscious habits which will help a student master a foreign language. (Lau 1972a, p.vii)
In his *Advanced Cantonese* published in 1975, he takes a slightly different approach. He tries to lead his learners to go beyond the vocabulary and sentence level. His *Advanced Cantonese* focuses on the actual use of the language in everyday life and on a situational and functional approach in language teaching. A few sentences in the introductory chapter of the *Advanced* book shows this view clearly.

A suitable sub-title for the present book might be "Cantonese in Everyday Situations", because an attempt has been made in each lesson to adopt a "functional approach" and allow students to see how local Cantonese speakers express themselves in their day-to-day contacts with one another. (Lau 1975, p.vii).

He tries to introduce a mixed approach to learn Cantonese. He thinks "students should give themselves more latitude, using the drill exercises which they consider most appropriate, and generally adopting a "multi-dimensional" approach with suitable additions of their own choice" (Lau 1975, p.vii). Students should also make use of the surrounding environment, for example to seek help from local friends outside school and "try to imagine themselves as no longer in the classroom or language laboratory but rather as moving freely among the rank and file of local Cantonese people, observing their reactions in times of elation or disappointment, and sharing some of their unique problems" (Lau 1975, p.vii).

In the preface of *Advanced Cantonese*, Hugh Baker, a well-known sinologist in SOAS, comments that the book took the learners away from the "grammar book"
The need for suitable teaching material to take students beyond the stage of "Elementary Cantonese" and "Intermediate Cantonese" has been felt for some time. Like every other living language, Cantonese does not consist of lists of words and rules of grammar. Indeed the real language is not to be found in textbooks at all, but rather on the lips of those who use it as their normal means of communication with one another in everyday life. (Lau 1975, p.v)

Huang & Kok (1973a) also emphasizes sentence drills as the crucial exercise for students. In the introduction to their book, there are suggestions for students about how to learn and for teachers about how to teach. Phrases like "repeat it" and "mimic the teacher" occur frequently. They suggest that memorization of sample sentences and the learning of new words in context was an important process in learning the language. Teachers should avoid introducing new words before students have familiarized themselves with the old ones. Teachers should also keep reviewing vocabulary items and patterns from previous lessons in a systematic manner. Finally they remind both teachers and students to avoid using English. In addition to introducing vocabulary items, a contextual narrative text and sample pattern sentences, they also provide translation exercises in most lessons. Their main aim in providing translation exercise is to make sure the students understand the grammatical structure of Cantonese and are to translate it in a flawless manner. It is evidence for using a "grammar-translation" approach similar to Chao (1947). Huang & Kok (1973a) suggest the learning of Cantonese could be divided into three
stages. In the first stage, teachers and textbooks focus on “essential sentence structure” (Huang & Kok 1975a, p.i). In the second stage, teachers should introduce “a few more patterns” and “more commonly used words” (Huang & Kok 1975a, p.i). The purpose in the second stage is to have the student use the words substantially in order to consolidate the sentence structure learnt. Lastly, the third stage emphasized the introduction of more idiomatic expressions and idioms heard in actual situations in daily life.


The development of Cantonese textbooks started from early phrase books, and then developed to a grammatical approach with the help of drills and audio-lingual methods. Drilling exercises have been a popular and important tool in teaching Cantonese since 1950 (Lee 1950, Chan 1951, Whitaker 1954, Lau 1972a, 1972b, 1975, Huang & Kok 1973a, Chik 1980, Chan & Hung 1994, Tong & James 1994). Cantonese textbooks have developed so as to use more dialogues and stories in addition to drilling exercises. More recently, the teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language has moved towards a situational-cultural syllabus (Chow & Chan 1997, Lee & Tanaka 2002). Most materials written between 1981-2003 (Chik 1980, Chan & Hung 1994, Tong & James 1994, Chow & Chan 1997, Lee 1998) are based on the framework of Huang & Kok (1973a) and Lau (1975). Every lesson provides contextual language situations followed by vocabulary explanations and grammatical drilling exercises and language activities. These materials are situational and introduced the language with lively conversations and stories. Certain cultural elements are also introduced in the textbooks. The development of TCFL was and still is influenced by that of TESOL, which put sociolinguistic competence and
cultural emphasis into consideration in recent years.

4.9 Towards a situational-cultural syllabus: Cultural elements in current Cantonese textbooks

Although there is a long history of debate over competence and performance in the linguistic field, studies on language teaching theories (Munby 1978, Canale & Swain 1980, Robinson 1988, Byram 1989, Kramsch 1993) have suggested that second or foreign language learners need to learn the target culture otherwise they might use their own cultural system to interpret target language messages or to produce culturally odd messages to the native speakers of the target language. A quotation from Byram (1989) shows this view about culture and language learning.

Thus [when] learners learn about language they learn about culture and as they learn to use a new language they learn to communicate with other individuals from a new culture. (Byram 1989, p.22)

4.9.1 Linguistic theories on the relationship between culture and language

Linguistic theories about language and culture, as well as pedagogical issues concerning culture and language teaching developed when Sapir and Whorf (Sapir 1921, Sapir 1929) made a hypothesis about the relationship between language and culture. Hymes (1972) explicitly states that the rules of grammar are useless without rules of language use. He emphasized the importance of socio-cultural knowledge and sociolinguistic competence when learning a foreign language. In order to understand language acquisition, not only grammatical competence but also
the ability to use language appropriately was required.

However, "culture" is a term with various meanings and is difficult to define. Different specialists have different focus when analyzing culture (Byram 1989, Robinson 1988). Hall's (1959) suggestion is quite abstract, he suggested, "culture is a sum total of a way of life of a people." Cortazzi & Jin (1999) suggest, "some language teachers use the term to refer to cultural products (e.g., literary works or works of arts). Others use it to refer to background information (e.g., facts about the history or geography of countries where the target language is spoken)" (p.197). However, when analyzing "cultural elements" in language teaching, "culture" includes not only the product and background information; but also the set of principles which affect people's world-view and their behaviour. Cortazzi & Jin (1999) follow Moerman's definition (1988) that "Culture is a set – perhaps a system – of principles of interpretation, together with the products of that system".

4.9.2 Intercultural communicative competence

Byram (1989) discusses cultural elements in foreign language teaching. His idea was further developed in Byram (1997) and Byram & Risager (1999). He suggests that the teaching of culture and cultural studies is an important part of a language syllabus. It includes "a descriptive analysis of a culture associated with the language of study and a series of statements about cultural phenomena which may be exemplified in the home and foreign cultures." (Byram 1989, p.19) Byram (1997) describes the ability to use culture of the target language and to compare that to the native culture as Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). He suggests that ICC works with linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence. The teaching of ICC in foreign language settings depends
The acquisition of ICC enables the learners to use the target language appropriately in real life situations, to appreciate the values of learning the target language as a means of communication with the native target language speakers, to expand their own cultural awareness, to gain access to their knowledge in various fields and to arrive at a livelier appreciation of both cultures.

Following this line of thought, Cortazzi & Jin (1999) suggest that in foreign language teaching even to integrate communicative competence was insufficient. They suggest that apart from grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence, intercultural competence should also be taken into account. Intercultural competence includes “social effectiveness (i.e., the ability to achieve instrumental and social goals) and appropriateness (i.e., suitable communication in a given situation in a particular culture)” (p.198). Intercultural competence also plays an important role in foreign or second language learning, especially when the L1 and L2/L3 have very different cultural backgrounds.

4.9.3 Cultural elements in Cantonese textbooks

How could the teaching of intercultural competence be reflected in language textbooks? To answer this question, Cortazzi & Jin (1999) analyze EFL and ESL textbooks and suggested that there are mainly three categories of cultural content in foreign language textbooks. One category consists of textbooks based on source cultures, i.e. the learners’ own culture C1. Another category includes textbooks based on target culture, i.e. the target language users’ culture C2. The third category is textbooks aimed at international target cultures, i.e. a wide variety of cultures seen in English-speaking countries or in other countries where English is not a first or second language, but is used as an international language. Then what is the
situation in Cantonese textbooks?

When Cantonese textbooks developed to use real life situations to illustrate the use of vocabulary items and grammatical points, cultural points were implicitly and explicitly placed into the textbooks. Although Lau (1972a) and Huang & Kok (1973a) put drilling exercises in an important position, there are a few examples showing how cultural elements were presented.

\[ \text{Wöhng sînsââng heui Méihgwok gaausyû. Ngôhdeih sài mûsái sungyêh bêi këuih a?} \]

[Mr. Wong is going to America to teach. Do we have to send him something as gift?]

(Lau 1972a, Lesson 9)

The above example shows one of the situations about sending a gift. However, it is quite unclear from the text to whether it is a habit in Chinese culture or it is a habit in many other cultures. It also does not suggest what kind of gift is welcomed by the target culture and what should not be sent in the target culture. There is no cultural remark to further elaborate or act as a reference point for learners to follow. Lau (1972b, 1975) also includes some aspects of cultural elements mentioned by Byram (1989). An example can be cited from Lau (1975), under the topic of “Invitation to dinner”

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10 The examples are shown in a two-line format. The first line (in italic) transcribes the Cantonese examples in Romanization and the second line shows the English translation. The Romanization used in this thesis to transcribe Cantonese examples is called the Yale Romanization system.
Conversation 1

A: Něihdeih jouhjö yāhnchihng meih a?
[Have you sent a gift?]

B: Ngōhdeih mhōu yisi jouh gūngga yāhnchihng. Ngōh yihgīng māaihjō yīhbaak mān lāihhyun, dāng yātjahn daai heui.
[It seems not suitable for us to give standard gift (or minimum amount of money). We already got some $200 banker's cheque (cash coupon), we will bring it with us.]

Conversation 1 presents a typical wedding party and what the guests should do in a wedding. The idea of “gūngga yāhnchihng” (standard gift) is a typical Hong Kong custom. It is a concept difficult to translate into other languages. Detailed explanation is required. However, it is a pity that no comment on the cultural differences or further elaboration of the cultural points is given. Huang & Kok (1973b) also have similar examples. Huang & Kok (1973b) have topics like “visit a friend”, “go to school”, and “go to Chinese teahouse”. Under the topic heading “Celebrating the New year”, the lesson texts include Chinese customs and cultural values. Sentences like the following one can be found. However, no further explanation is given in the text.

Jimmeih táigin Chāhn sīnāaih hāi go haaktēng syu gwaihāisyu baaiğān jōusīn.
[Jimmy saw Mrs. Chan kneeled down at the living room and she was praying for the ancestors.]

Chik (1980) also emphasizes grammatical points in his textbook. Apart from
grammatical substitution drills and sentence patterns drills, the conversations are based on some real life situations although they are sometimes outdate as noted by Smith (1997). Li & Richards (1995) appreciate that Chik (1980) presents the language of daily life situations (p.15). Conversation 2, 3 and 4 illustrates this point.

Conversation 2

(A shopping scene)

A: Neih yâuhmóuh máaih sãam a?

[Did you buy some clothes?]

B: Ngöh dōu máaihjó lêuhngsãamgihn sêutsãam bèi ngóhdì jainèui.

[I also bought two or three shirts for my children.]

A: Yâuhmóuh máaih yéh bèi néihge taaítdái a?

[Did you buy any thing for your wife?]

B: Ngôh máaihjó yájtjek yuhkgaajì bèi këuih, këuih hòu jëngyi.

[I bought a jade ring for her, she likes it very much.]

A: Neih jânhaih yátgó hòu sînsãang la.

[You are really a good husband.]

Conversation 3

(A dining scene)

A: Neih gam faai sìhkyuình ge la! Tîmfaahn la!

[You finish so quickly! Have more (rice)!]

B: mnsái høakhei! Ngóhdëih sîhkbáau la!

[That's ok! We are full!]

A: Gám! Ngóhdëih yâibihnh sîhk sãanggwo, yâibihnh kînghâh la.
[Then, we have some fruit and chat.]

**Conversation 4**

(Leisure chat)

A: *Pihngsih néih yáuḥ mātyēh sūuhin nē?*

[What do you have as leisure activities?]

B: *Pihngsih dōsou dāhāh màhjek, yámhāhchāh, tāihāh dīhnsih.*

[I play Majong, have dimsum and watch television programme.]

A: *Nēihge sāngwuht jānhaih sēyi la.*

[You have really an enjoyable life.]

In the above example, some values, habits of the Chinese culture are shown in the lesson texts. Conversation 2 presents a "Chinese" view of a good husband. Conversation 3 introduces some habits in a Chinese meal and Conversation 4 talks about some common entertainment of Hong Kong people. However, there is no cultural note or remark to explain the habit in detail. There is evidence that Chik's (1980) textbook conveyed (either intentionally or unintentionally) some of these values to the learners. The lack of cultural explanations inside the textbooks implies that teachers have to explain the values and customs inside the classroom to arouse or deepen the learners' knowledge of the target culture.

As suggested by Li & Richards (1995), textbooks published during 1970-1989 put lots of emphasis on grammar and sentence drills. Li & Richards (1995) even make a strong claim that, "while the motivation to learn Cantonese by expatriates in Hong Kong may indeed be low, even in instances where motivation is initially high, the learning opportunities provided in language courses appear to be deficient in
many aspects, thus leading to a high drop-out rate” (p.22). However, the examples show that Chik (1980) put some effort into including some cultural elements of the target language into grammatical drills and exercises.

In Tong & James (1994), more situational dialogues can be found and they claimed that the books were using functional-situational approaches. Surprisingly, not many elements from C2 (the target culture) can be found. On the other hand, C3, C4, i.e. cultures that are neither a source culture nor a target culture could be found in some chapters.

**Conversation 5**

A: *Néih júng mjúngyi Yahbún a?*  
[Do you like Japan?]

B: *Ngóh hóu júngyi Yahbún a. Yahbún dì júngging hóu leng, jāuwāih dōu hóu gönjeung, dì yáhn hóu hóu, hóu yáuh láihmaah, bātgwo máaihyéh hóu gwai.*  
[I like Japan very much. Japan has beautiful scenery, it is clean everywhere, people are nice and polite, but things are expensive to buy.]

A: *Dī yéh hóu mīhóu sikh a?*  
[Is the food nice to eat?]

B: *Māhmādei là, tūhngmáaih sikhvéh dōu hóu gwai.*  
[It’s just so so, and the food is very expensive.]

Conversation 5 is presented as a substitution exercise by substituting Japan with other countries. Apparently, it is a demonstration of other culture sources (C3, C4, etc.) It can also be used to discuss the source culture(s) (C1) of the learner. To use this exercise in the classroom, teachers can also introduce the target culture, although
the source of information relies mainly on teacher-learner interactions inside the classroom.

Similar to Tong & James (1994), Chan & Hung (1994) is also a situation-based textbook. The attempt to include a section of current slang expressions (more than 200 items), as indicated in the comment by Smith (1997), gives some cultural insight. However the cultural content seems to be restricted to a lexical level. No detailed explanation of the cultural differences is given. A large amount of place words in Hong Kong, Chinese food names, etc. are introduced to the learners. However most of the items are used for substitution drills or patterns drill. Except in one reading text, the climate and weather of Hong Kong are introduced with some cultural reference.

(Talking about weather and introducing terms in weather forecast)


[I don’t like Hong Kong’s weather, because the weather is rarely nice. Hong Kong’s weather, humid in March, always cloudy and rainy, really very troublesome. From May to September weather is very hot, it always rains. The weather of November is the best, but December, January are sometimes very cold. I don’t like cold weather.]
To sum up, textbooks for beginning learners (Lau 1972a, Huang & Kok 1973a, Tong & James 1994, Chan & Hung 1994) emphasize grammatical patterns and lexical items. Although some cultural elements can be found, no explanation and elaboration are made of the cultural differences between the source culture and the target culture. In textbooks written between 1990-2000, more cultural elements can be found. There is a tendency to deal with culture more explicitly. Teachers need to play the role to explain the cultural elements and foster discussions inside TCFL classrooms.

In Chow & Chan (1997), both situations and grammar drills are provided. Cultural notes are also provided, for example;

*yämjáu /飲酒* has two meanings. One is drink (alcoholic beverage),
the other is to attend a banquet of celebration. (p.150)

A Cantonese vocabulary item *yämjáu* (lit. drink wine) is introduced with cultural notes. The writers deal with culture explicitly. Similar notes can be found throughout the textbook. Its function is mainly to explain the conversations used in the text. The authors plan to explain the cultural points and provide learners with cultural references. Not only do they provide the lexical meaning of the vocabulary items, but also they explain the items using a cultural angle. Under the topic "Job interview", the following cultural notes can be found.

Hong Kong people change jobs (*jyungáng* 轉工) very often, especially for those employees in the lower ranks... Most of them do this for better pay or promotion prospects,... (Chow & Chan 1997, p.57)
Comparing Chow & Chan (1997) with the previous textbooks, it is obvious that Chow & Chan's (1997) text takes a great step forward in incorporating cultural elements in the textbooks and in the syllabus. Cultural points are explained explicitly which provide guidelines for the language teachers to include culture in classroom discussions and interactions. Language teachers can plan activities such as discussing the differences between customs and habits of different cultures in the language classroom. This shows textbook developers have increased their awareness of the target culture and tried to include this into the textbook and into textbook activities.

Another textbook written by Y. P. Lee (1998), has real life situations, in which Hong Kong culture and habits are presented. In Lee (1998), the following conversations can be found.

**Conversation 6**

A: *Yáu mhòuh gáa ucho a? Gam gwái séi chih ga!*  
[What's wrong? So late!]

B: *Di néuihjái, haih gam màfháahn ge la!*  
[Girls are so troublesome.]

C: *Sólíh lô, jeui dô chêng néih yâmyéh lá.*  
[Sorry, the best I can do is to buy you drinks.]

B: *Gám yauh míuhng.*  
[That's different.]

Conversation 6 and some similar conversations in Lee (1998) try to approach
the issue of appropriateness of social interaction in some language situations. Conversation 6 suggests some stereotyping of “girls” by a Hong Kong male (Both speakers A and B are male) by saying explicitly that “girls are so troublesome”. It also presents a case that when someone was late, that person could ease others’ anger by buying them a drink or a meal. The conversational texts present the values and customs in certain real life situations. Teachers can organize follow-up discussions and other language activities like role playing, which allow teachers and learners to compare and contrast different cultures and how people react to these difficult situations.

Lee & Tanaka (2002) also have some cultural insight. The following passage provides the scenario of a wedding banquet in Hong Kong and makes a comparison with a wedding banquet in Japan.


[The wedding ceremony in Hong Kong is different from that in Japan. The bride wears both western-style and Chinese-style wedding gowns. After the wedding ceremony, we went to a restaurant to have a wedding banquet. The bride and bridegroom were very busy. They needed to drink a toast in brandy at each of the tables, as well as welcoming all their friends in the restaurant. I thought that the bride and groom looked quite tired, but I was very happy to enjoy the many delicious dishes served at the banquet.] (Lee & Tanaka 2002, p.43)

Comparing intermediate and advanced level textbooks with the textbooks for beginning learners (Lau 1972a, Huang & Kok 1973a, Tong & James 1994, Chan &
Hung 1994), textbooks for intermediate and advanced learners (Chow & Chan 1997, Lee 1998, Lee & Tanaka 2002) include more culture content and deal with culture more explicitly either through more examples in conversations and texts or in providing cultural notes. It is obvious that the more cultural elements introduced, the more activities, like discussions and debates, can be organized by teachers inside classroom. It is easy to understand that textbooks for intermediate and advanced learners can provide more space for cultural explanation because the learner has already grasped the basic vocabulary items and the basic grammatical structure. However, it is worth considering whether cultural elements can be introduced when explaining basic grammatical structure and when introducing basic vocabulary items even at a beginners’ level. It is a current trend for TCFL textbooks to develop towards a Situational-Cultural syllabus.

From the above examples and discussions, there are several ways of presenting the target culture. One is to integrate the target culture into the texts, grammatical drills or exercises, conversations or readings. Another way is to explain the target culture or cultural differences between C1 and C2 by providing cultural notes or explanations. The third way is to provide hints for comparison between different cultures. Textbook writers can consider these different ways when preparing their Cantonese textbooks.

Looking at the textbooks analyzed, there are two phenomena regarding the presentation of cultural elements. One is that in the more recently published books (Chan & Hung 1994, Chik 1980, Chow and Chan 1997, Lee 1998, Tong & James 1994), there are more cultural elements included and more ways to present the target culture (e.g. in the dialogue, providing cultural explanations, etc.). This shows that
there is a growing attention to teaching culture in TCFL. Another phenomenon is that intermediate and advanced level textbooks are culturally richer. This may be due to the fact the intermediate and advanced learners have learnt more vocabulary items and grammatical patterns to talk about with the target culture. However, there is still space for elementary textbooks (Chan & Hung 1994, Chik 1980) to include the target culture.

Generally speaking, textbooks for intermediate and advanced learners provide more cultural elements and explanations. The cultural elements as illustrated in the above examples are not only traditional Chinese culture (Huang & Kok 1973a, 1973b, Lau 1975), but also local Hong Kong culture (Chik 1980, Chow & Chan 1997, Lee 1998). There are various studies on Hong Kong culture and Hong Kong identity. Many studies (Luke & Richards 1982, Cheung 1984, Gibbons 1987, Lai 1989) suggest that Hong Kong people have developed a unique identity - neither purely Chinese nor Western. When developing textbooks with cultural elements, developers also need to consider “what is the target culture?” To answer this question properly, the needs and reasons of the learners learning Cantonese as a foreign language should be carefully studied. From the above examples, it is difficult for the learners themselves to differentiate Chinese culture in general and specific Hong Kong culture without teachers’ elaborations. Zheng (1999), a textbook developed for Mandarin speakers in the Mainland China to learn Cantonese as a second language, provides an interesting insight about this issue. Zheng (1999) tries to present specific Hong Kong cultural elements. In his book, there are headings like “Eating in Hong Kong”, “Ocean Park” (one of Hong Kong’s theme parks), “immigration issues”, “Clean Hong Kong”, etc. Comparisons between Hong Kong habits and that of Mainlanders are sometimes given. The target culture
is better defined. It is not difficult to understand because it is obvious that there is less need to introduce general Chinese culture to Mandarin speaking learners, so the target culture can be more clearly set as “Hong Kong culture” in Zheng (1999). CFL textbooks designed for English-speaking learners also need a clear definition of the target culture. However, English-speaking learners need to learn the traditional Chinese culture as well as specific Hong Kong culture and clear explanations and elaborations are needed. It is useful to include both, but careful plans, designs and explanations are worth considering. Further research on content and how to build up a situational-cultural syllabus is necessary.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter presents the development of Cantonese textbooks and the approaches used in TCFL. Two research questions can be addressed.

4. Is there a development of textbooks used? What kinds of textbooks were published? How has the teaching emphasis of textbooks evolved over time?

5. What were the approaches used in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language?

Cantonese learning materials started from early phrase books and dictionaries, which listed the useful expressions and their pronunciation, then developed systematic approaches, such as the grammatical approach, grammar-translation approach, oral repetition and drilling approach. Recently situational and cultural syllabuses have been the major trends in TCFL. The recent development of textbooks indicates that the ability to communicate and the ability to recognize
cultural appropriateness in language situation are other important points which needed to be considered in TCFL. Most early learning manuals and textbooks stated that the major difficulties of learning the language were the lack of sufficient learning materials and, linguistically, the difficulties of Cantonese pronunciation. Learners and institutions nowadays have a wider choice of textbooks and teaching approaches. The question, "which type of teaching approach suits our learners", is an important question for Cantonese teachers to ask. The next chapter tries to investigate the current learners' needs. It tries to compare and contrast early scholars and recent learners in terms of their basic reasons for learning Cantonese as well as the difficulties they faced when learning the language. Chapter 6 discusses how well the textbooks available and teaching approaches used match the needs of current learners and which type of textbooks and teaching approaches are most suitable for the current learners.
5 Investigating Current Cantonese Learners’ Needs

Last chapter showed various teaching approaches adopted in TCFL. Chapter 3 presented the history of TCFL and showed that learners’ profiles have been and still are changing. Nowadays learners’ reasons for learning, learning habits and learning difficulties have become heterogeneous. Before looking at the research question of how well the teaching approaches and textbooks available match learners’ expectations and needs addressed in Chapter 6, this chapter attempts to study current learners’ needs by carrying out a needs analysis. The chapter can be divided into three parts. The first part discusses some research focusing on CFL learners’ needs in Hong Kong, and the second part discusses the research tools used for eliciting learners’ needs as well as the data collection processes used for the needs analysis in this thesis. The third part presents data about learners’ needs, expectations and their difficulties in learning Cantonese.

5.1 Studies of CFL learners’ needs in Hong Kong

In Hong Kong, Li & Richards (1995) carried out a study of Cantonese learners’ needs in Hong Kong and evaluated Cantonese course books. In their research, 400 questionnaires were sent to expatriates who were working in two Hong Kong tertiary institutions and in the business sector. 178 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of about 45%. They claim that there were three major groups of expatriates in Hong Kong with different attitudes towards learning Cantonese. The first group makes no attempt to learn Cantonese. They think that Cantonese is useful but difficult to learn, and not essential because they can get along fine without it. The second group focuses on Mandarin rather than Cantonese. They view learning
Mandarin as more prestigious and useful. The third group (with a significant number) makes an effort to learn Cantonese but with varying degrees of success.

This part of the thesis focuses on expatriates in Hong Kong who are learning Cantonese at the Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center. Chapter 3 already presented the history of the Center and its contribution to TCFL as well as the students' profiles over the past 40 years. This chapter takes an in-depth look at the needs of the learners learning Cantonese at the Center. This thesis has an instrumental purpose, which is to identify learners' needs in order to select or develop appropriate teaching materials and to adopt suitable teaching approaches. Being a Cantonese teacher, curriculum planner, materials developer and administrator of the Center, I think important to know learners' needs in order to help language teachers to match the available resources of the Center and the Center's developmental plans with learners' expectations and needs.

5.2 Research method and data collection

Richterich & Chancerel (1980) suggest that needs analysis could help curriculum planners, materials developers and administrators to understand learners' needs so that the objective of the courses could be more well-defined. By analyzing learners' needs and based on consideration of these needs, learning objectives can be selected and precisely defined, so that administrators of the language institutions and teachers can use the result as a basis to construct or modify existing systems in order to suit the learners the best. Cohen et al (2000) also point out that "needs analysis" or "needs assessment" has existed in the education field for over a decade. It is useful to identify learners' instructional needs, programme provision needs, and
weaknesses in learners' achievement. Needs analysis can provide information for the future plans of the language programme, including curriculum design, teaching material preparation and even expenditure for educational development. It is important to seek a compromise among the available learners' resources, objectives, curricula and methods of assessment (Munby 1978, Lakshmy & Lee 2002). As a result, needs analysis helps the learners to awaken their awareness of what they need and the teachers to adapt their teaching accordingly. It also provides valuable information for producers of the teaching materials to develop their materials to suit learners' needs, and administrators and teaching executives to plan language programmes and curriculums. The major purpose of this part of the thesis is to ascertain whether the textbooks and teaching methodology match learners' expectations, whether the objectives can be attained and what recommendation can be made for the future development of TCFL.

Needs analysis is a tool to understand students' needs and to help the implementation of educational policies (Munby 1978, Richterich & Chancerel 1980, Van Els et al. 1984). Richterich & Chancerel (1980) mention that there are many research tools to gather information for needs analysis. To study the needs and difficulties of the current CFL learners, the prime data for this thesis relies on three empirical research tools: questionnaire surveys, interviews and diary data. In addition, documents such as students' files and teachers' comments are used as supporting data. Johnson (1993) demonstrates the use of documentary research to check on interview data. He suggests that it was beneficial "to check the accuracy of data by using a combination of research tools" (p. 162). Researchers such as Cohen & Manion (1994) and Gillham (2000a) suggest using more than one research method in order to triangulate the result. The following sections provide discussions
This study aims at eliciting the needs of existing learners taking formal Cantonese courses. Students at the New Asia–Yale-in-China Chinese Language Center of the Chinese University of Hong Kong were selected to be the subjects, because, firstly, the Center has the largest amount of Cantonese learners in Hong Kong. Secondly, the Center has the longest history in TCFL as discussed in Chapter 3. Students of the Center were given questionnaires by the researcher and short interviews were held in order to understand their linguistic needs, objectives and the factors which may affect their learning. In order to triangulate the result, students were also invited to participate in a diary study. This part of the thesis attempts to study the needs, learning styles, learning difficulties and expectations of the students in the center. The result of the study not only helps teachers and administrators to understand the current trends in TCFL, but also gives valuable data in helping course development, classroom teaching, curriculum planning, and teaching method implementation of CFL courses.

5.2.1 Questionnaire survey

As suggested by several researchers (Oppenheim 1966, Isaac 1971, Flower 1984, Youngman 1984, 1994, Kane 1994, Gillham 2000a), questionnaire survey is an inexpensive way to research a large population. Questionnaire survey is a suitable tool to survey about 100 CFL learners in CLC since it can help to gather especially quantitative data about learners' needs and depict the reasons and difficulties involved CFL learning in general. In addition, the subjects can be made anonymous so that they are more willing to express themselves. Questionnaire survey is also an easy tool to administrate. Sending and analyzing questionnaires involve simple
clerical work and mechanical computation. However, researchers (Youngman 1984, 1994) state that questionnaire design requires a thorough understanding of the whole research context and careful design of the questionnaire. Most criticisms of the use of questionnaires are based mainly on the badly designed questionnaires, which would create problems, such as misunderstanding of the questions, poor data quality, difficulty in motivating respondents, etc. As a result, special attention is paid to the design of the questionnaires used in this thesis. Youngman (1984, 1994), Flower (1984) and other researchers (Oppenheim 1966, Kane 1994, Gillham 2000a) provide discussions on different techniques, including question types, question structure and wordings, length of the questionnaire, instructions, appearance, reminders of non-response and even the importance of storing the data. All these issues are considered and some pilot tests and interviews were carried out in the design phase to make sure the questions could gather relevant information and were comprehensible to the subjects.

The design phase of the questionnaire survey and the pilot study

Careful design of the questions is essential otherwise the questions are ineffective in gathering data. References are made to Li & Richards (1995), with some amendment to suit the research aims of this thesis. Before the main study, a pilot study and several interviews were carried out in order to set guidelines to designing the questionnaire in the main study. The pilot study was not carried out on the same scale as the main study. The pilot study in this survey aimed at testing the procedure to be used, but also showed that the analytical instruments used were valid and the research was feasible. As suggested by most researchers (Isaac 1971, Johnson 1994, Cohen & Manion 1994), pilot studies aim to ensure that the respondents understand the questionnaire; the researchers need to first try out the
questions. Subjects participating in the pilot study were invited to a casual unstructured interview. They gave comments and suggestions about the questionnaire which helped the researcher to finalize the questionnaire. The pilot study evaluated the questions and the follow-up interviews provided room for the subjects to give feedback about the questionnaire. It reduced errors and unforeseen problems in the main study and saved the researcher expenditure of time and money on the research.

The researcher planned to choose about 30 graduates of the center (they fit a profile similar to the research subjects) to do a pilot study. Unfortunately, because most graduates returned to their home countries or started working in Hong Kong, there were some difficulties in making necessary arrangements. Eventually eight graduates of the Center were identified to complete a set of pilot questionnaires and to attend a one hour one-to-one unstructured interview on the questionnaire with the investigator. The aim of the pilot study was to test initial plans, to try out the questionnaire, to see whether it was appropriate in length, whether the questions were understandable and whether the choice of words was appropriate. During the interview, data was also collected for formulating questions in the modified questionnaire.

A set of pilot questionnaires was sent to 8 graduates of the Center. The main purpose of the pilot study was firstly to make sure the questions were clear, secondly to make sure a reasonable time to spend when answering the questionnaire.

After the pilot study, a set of modified questionnaires was designed and sent out to students. With the help of the pilot study some problems were identified, for
example, wording that was difficult to understand, questions requiring long answers, and the overall length of the pilot questionnaire. A common issue for questionnaire survey is that it is always clear that a questionnaire survey with larger population and studies at different periods of time are always preferable to increase the data validity. These points were considered during the research. However due to the limitation of time and funding, a scale larger than the present survey could not be achieved. The result of the questionnaires was triangulated with interviews and diary study.

The Finalized Questionnaire

After the pilot study was finished, a set of finalized questionnaires was designed and sent to 98 learners (which was the total population of students in that semester) studying at the Chinese Language Center during the academic year 2003-2004. A set of sample questionnaires is provided in Appendix XV. The questionnaire consists of four A4 pages, and is divided into four major parts, (1) what language skills they think are most important (they were asked to rank skills such as reading, writing, speaking, listening, etc.), (2) why they learn Cantonese and situations in which they need to use Cantonese, (3) their comments about textbooks, curriculum and teaching approaches, (4) their personal data, which included whether they needed to use Cantonese at home, with whom they used the language, and other factors which might affect their learning attitude and motivation.

In part I, students were asked to rank the language skills they thought important and the domains in which they need to use the language. In part II, students were given various situations where they thought or they actually used Cantonese. In this part a four-valued scale was used, that was “always”, “most of the time”,
"sometimes" and "never". Part III consisted of open ended questions, which invited learners’ comments about textbooks, curriculum and teaching approaches and the role of culture when they learnt the language. Part IV consisted of questions about learners’ biographical data.

**Distribution of Questionnaires**

The questionnaires were sent out in class and in order to avoid disturbance during the lesson, the students were asked to complete the questionnaire at home and bring the completed questionnaire back the next day. Students came from Monday to Friday and the researcher, who is also the teacher, had personal contact with the students. Reminders were given after two days if a student did not return the questionnaire. It should be pointed out that no matter how much encouragement and how many reminders were given, there were still some non-returns of the questionnaires (Johnson 1993, Cohen & Manion 1994). Due to the day-to-day contact and a well-established teaching-learning relationship, the students appeared willing to cooperate. Eventually 82 questionnaires were returned, with a response rate of 83.76%, which was acceptable. Those that did not respond later said they were either too busy or had forgotten. As a follow up to the questionnaires, students were invited to a semi-structured interview. Volunteers put their e-mail addresses and phone numbers in the questionnaires. The students who consented to be interviewed were randomly selected. The questionnaire survey was carried out in the ninth week (a total of 12-15 weeks for each semester). Questionnaires collected were analyzed by using descriptive statistical tools, like frequency count with the help of SPSS.
5.2.2 Interviews

As mentioned above, at the end of the questionnaire students were invited to attend a semi-structured interview. 13 students consented to do the interviews but later one said that it was difficult to arrange a suitable time. Eventually 10 were randomly selected for the actual interviews and 2 were selected to do the piloting interviews. The interviews were used to check the results obtained from the questionnaire survey. Interviews could also give a chance for the subjects to further elaborate certain points in the questions through probing and prompting. Apart from the learners, teachers were also invited to participate in semi-structured interviews so that teachers' views about TCFL can also be elicited. As suggested by many researchers (Johnson 1993, Cohen & Manion 1994), "interviews were frequently used to flesh out the relatively slender data acquired by questionnaires" (Johnson 1993, p.43). Semi-structured interviews were used to give more room for the respondents to express their feelings (Hoinville & Jowell 1994, Johnson & Ransom 1994). Interview questions used included both closed and open questions, because they could supplement the questionnaire survey which had mostly "closed" questions. The interviewer clarified answers of some questions by probing when needed. It checked whether there was discrepancy from the questionnaires in order to show a clearer picture of the learners' needs being analyzed.

Research interviews, as defined by Gillham (2000b), are conversations between the interviewer and the interviewee(s). Interviewers seek responses to a particular research purpose from the interviewee(s), so that the researchers can "obtain information and understanding of issues relevant to the general aims and specific questions of a research project" (Gillham 2000b, p. 2). In this research, the reason for using interviews was to check and confirm the results from the questionnaires.
Interviews are also used to obtain more complete data and permit greater depth (Isaac 1971, Flower 1984, Oppenheim 1992, Johnson & Ransom 1994, Powney & Watts 1994, Gillham 2000b, Fielding & Thomas 2001). There are several types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Structured interviews use the same set of questions, including wording and style to interview various respondents. Interviewers are required to follow a pre-set interview "schedule". Unstructured interviews do not formally set questions, but several topics are set. Interviewers are free to phrase the questions as they wish. Semi-structured interviews are in-between the two types mentioned above. This research uses semi-structured interviews to elicit data supplementary to the questionnaire survey. There are a set of major questions and interviewers can alter the sequence and probe for more information whenever they think necessary. "Probing" or "prompting" encourages the respondent to clarify or amplify certain points. It can help researchers investigate deeper into the research issues which cannot be explored to the same extent in a questionnaire survey.

There are several important phases of interview research, namely designing, interviewing, analyzing, verifying and reporting (Cohen et al 2000). After formulating the purpose of investigation, researchers need to translate the research objectives into questions that make up the main body of the interview schedule in the designing phase. The interview schedule is attached in Appendix XVI of the thesis. The questions try to ask the subjects to elaborate further about the answers given in the questionnaire survey. The next phase, the interviewing phase, involves the actual interviews according to the interview schedule set. Researchers need to arrange training for interviewers and piloting if necessary. Training and piloting can help researchers make sure that the interviews could be run smoothly within the
pre-set time by the interviewers and make sure that internal validity among interviewers could be achieved if several interviewers are hired to undertake the research. These processes can also check the interview questions, the location where the interviews are planned to take place and the interpersonal skills of the interviewers. Before the data can be analyzed, transcribing is a very important phase; researchers should have the data transcribed (qualitatively and/or quantitatively). All the interview data in this thesis was transcribed immediately after the interview. A common belief is that data should be transcribed as early as possible.

Interviews also inevitably have advantages and disadvantages just like other research methods. Some researchers (Isaac 1971, Cohen et al 2000) point out that there are some disadvantages of using interviews: it is costly, time-consuming and subjectivity may be created by the interviewers. The very much discussed "observer's paradox" proposed by Labov (1972) in observational methodology can also apply to interview research. There is a paradox that when a researcher is observing certain linguistic behaviour, the presence of the researcher and recording equipment may affect and even distort the result. However, on the other hand, secret observations have an ethical problem. Labov (1972) suggests some solutions to overcome the paradox. Researchers need to "break through the constraints of the interview situation by various devices which divert attention away from the speech" (p.209). The subjects, being interviewed or observed, feel that they are not at that moment being interviewed. Whilst it is easy to say and difficult to practice, researchers should bear this notion in mind and should try to minimize the effect of the researcher and the recording equipment through practice and piloting.
Piloting Interviews

In order to minimize the effect of the researcher and increase the level of reliability and validity, pilot studies play an important role in interviews. Gillham (2000b) states clearly the importance of piloting the interview. He suggests "there is a lot more to interviewing than asking questions. And getting these elements – essentially how to manage an interview and make it work – under control so that you feel reasonably fluent and confident requires practice" (p. 53). It should be noted that "practicing" is different from "piloting". "Practicing" is an important stage for training interviewers. "Practicing" means to practice the skills of interviewers. "Piloting" is to try out the interview questions as well as to provide room for last minute adjustments and alterations. Like questionnaire surveys, piloting provides an opportunity to try out the questions or topics planned and revise the interview schedules if necessary. It can also provide an opportunity to rehearse the duration of the interview and check the appropriateness of the setting.

Piloting can find problems or defects concerning questions asked as well as the length and management of the interviews. Gillham (2000b) used the term "a dress rehearsal" as a metaphor for piloting interviews. In this thesis, both "practicing" and "piloting" were done before the actual interviews had been carried out. The pilot interview was done for "practicing" interview techniques. At the end of the pilot interviews, the researchers asked the interviewee for feedback and comments about the interview schedule, settings, and tones of the interviewers.

Doing the Interview Research (learners' group and teachers' group)

Two groups were invited to participate in the semi-structured interviews. They
were the learners' group (12 learners were arranged to participate) and the teachers' group (5 teachers participated). All interviews lasted for about an hour in a casual setting and took place in the students' cafeteria and canteen. The settings provided a casual atmosphere for carrying out interviews. The set of data was mainly qualitative. Before the interview began, the interviewer (the researcher) explained the nature of the research and the purpose of the interview to the interviewee. Interviewees were notified that the interviews were recorded by a tape-recorder and note were taken by the interviewer during the interviews for analysis; however no personal data would be disclosed. The interview recording was immediately transcribed at the end of the day. It was stated clearly from the beginning that the data was to be used for research purposes only and all the interviewees were assured of confidentiality. The interviewer talked to the subjects one by one and took notes in each interview.

The reason for choosing a casual setting was to avoid having the subjects feel nervous and to minimize the effect of the presence of the interviewer and recording equipment, so that the informants could express their feelings and attitudes freely. The questions in the interviews were about the reasons for learning Cantonese, attitudes towards Cantonese and the students' learning habits. Interviews were carried out in the tenth/eleventh week (a total of 12-15 weeks for each semester). Probing and prompting was used when necessary for explanation and clarification.

Learners' group

12 respondents from the learners' group participated in the interviews. 2 students did the piloting and 10 students (5 female, 5 male) did the actual interviews. Brief biographical data for the interviewees is shown in Table 5.
Table 5. Background information on interviewees

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<th>Interviewee</th>
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Teachers’ group

For the teachers’ group, 10 current teachers (with 10-30 years of experience) were invited to participate in another semi-structured interview in order to ask their views on the teaching methods, materials, syllabus, and curriculum used. 5 CFL teachers could participate in the interviews. The interview settings were same as that of the learners’ group. The researcher also tried to invite retired teachers and ex-teachers to participate in the interview research, but this did not prove possible. The interview lasted approximately an hour. The researcher emphasized that all the data was to be used only for research purposes but not for teacher evaluation or other purposes. A set of core questions is provided in Appendix XVII. As mentioned before, probing and prompting was also used during the interviews.

Problems encountered when doing interview research

One obvious difficulty of doing interviews was in arranging a time and place for
interviews. In the present research only 12 subjects from the learners’ group (including 2 for pilot interviews) could be arranged to participate in the interview, although it was obvious that the larger the number of subjects the more representative the results would be. Using an interview method was time-consuming in both the planning phase and in the phase of analyzing data. Additionally, another disadvantage of interviewing was that the interviewers needed to have a good control of the interview, such as how to get the respondents to start providing information, how to keep them on track, how to maintain the interest of the respondents and finally how to end the interview. Therefore time and effort had to be put on practicing the above-mentioned skills and so as to avoid bias during the interview. Bias might arise on the interviewers’ side or on the respondents’ side, or they might affect each other.

Secondly, it was quite difficult to record during the interview and transcribe afterwards. Of course researchers could use recorders or even video recorders, but as suggested by some researchers (Labov 1972, McDonald & Sanger 1982, Powney & Watts 1987), sometimes the presence of such apparatus would increase pressure and affect the respondents’ response and change the interview atmosphere. Thirdly, transcription of bulky data was another dreadful task of interviews before analyzing and categorizing them. “The role of transcriber is to provide a record as accurate as possible of the discourse, and preparing a transcript is undoubtedly an acquired skill. Full transcription is immensely time consuming” (Powney & Watts 1987). There are sometimes problems of having too much or too few data and sometimes body-language, facial expressions and other non-transcribed data may also affect the reliability of the result of the interview. Compared with questionnaire surveys, which require prudent planning (piloting, modifying the questions) before the
sending out of questionnaires, hard work was unavoidable in the transcribing phase and the analyzing phase of interviews.

5.2.3 Diary study

In this thesis, in addition to questionnaire surveys and interviews, a diary study was also used to elicit the learners' views, perceptions and learning habits. Diary study has not been used to study CFL learners' needs in the literature (Li & Richards 1995, Boyle 1997). Both Li & Richards (1995) and Boyle (1997) use only a single method to study the needs of CFL learners. The former relies heavily on a questionnaire survey while the latter only uses interviews. However questionnaire surveys and interviews each have their own methodological limitations. Questionnaire surveys do not provide a chance for the subject to elaborate certain questions. In interviews, subjects can be affected by the interviewers and the recording equipment presented. Diary study, since it is based on self-reported data, provides supplementary data to triangulate and check with the result of the questionnaire survey and interviews employed in this investigation. Diaries, logs and journals are considered "important introspective tools" (Cohen & Manion 1994) and provide valuable information about work patterns and activities (Burgess 1984, 1994, Bell 1987). Diaries are useful when studying language learning behaviour (Nunan 1992, Lakshmy & Lee 2002). Diaries provide interesting data and are simple to administer. This method of collecting data requires subjects to be cooperative, and it takes a long time to analyze the complete set of diaries.

Researchers (Burgess 1984, Morrison & Galloway 1996, Lakshmy & Lee 2002) have proved that the diary study is an effective tool to investigate students' learning processes and teachers' approaches in the educational field. Burgess (1984) states
that one of the benefits of diary research is that "informants may provide their own analysis of a situation which will provide researchers with a series of concepts that can be used in the study" (p.201). He also mentions that researchers always need a series of first-hand accounts of the informants' events and activities. However, it is always impossible to observe all the activities that occur, as a result, for example of denial of access to certain classrooms by certain teachers. As a result, the subjects of the research can act as co-researchers who keep chronological records of their activities. He further suggests that diary studies could be followed by interviews to obtain more detailed information on the topic in the multiple methodology approach.

Morrison & Galloway (1996) uses diaries to study the work of supply teachers in English schools. They focus on the qualitative and descriptive accounts on how the supply teachers handle their work as supply teachers. In their research, their use of diary accounts provides self-report "snapshots" of supply teachers' work in classrooms. The result is later verified in interviews and other survey research techniques. Although diary research is time-consuming, it can focus on daily activities which are considered as trivial. Diary accounts could, as they described, help make the "invisible" visible. It opens up a window to situations, like the situation of a supply teacher's class.

Lakshmy & Lee's (2002) study also demonstrates the importance of diary study in foreign language teaching. By using diary studies, teachers and course developers can involve learners in "decision-making" about course development, incorporate negotiated activities in the curriculum, and help learners to develop skills in self-planning and self-monitoring about their progress and handle problems which may appear in their process of learning. Learners, by keeping diaries, can be
trained to look into their own demand and adjust to other learners if needed.

Through the diary entries, teachers and course developers can have a better understanding of the individual learner's needs and expectations. In this way, the diary can be a tool to inform (future) course design, material preparation, and teaching methods. Therefore, if teachers and course developers spend time listening to the 'voices' of learners, perhaps language learning in the multicultural classroom can be a more pleasurable experience for all. (Lakshmy & Lee 2002, p.238)

Diaries are one of the most arduous forms of data to code and process. (Oppenheim 1992) They provide rich materials and researchers need to abstract relevant data for tabulation and analysis. However, diary studies may also provide distorted data since the subjects may also try to record something which they think may please the researcher. Diary studies needs to be supported by data from other research methods. Oppenheim (1992) suggests that researchers should bear in mind that diary studies were often part of a larger survey and the result must be linked to other data. People also criticize diary studies claiming that researchers intruded further into their informants' lives than when observations, interviews and questionnaires are employed. Burgess (1994) suggests that a trade-off has to be considered between the information required and the degree of intrusion when doing diary studies. As with other research methods, researchers should bear in mind ethical issues when doing research. Subjects should be made anonymous and researchers should obtain consent from the subjects before publishing the data.
In this thesis, the diary studies provide supplementary data which helped to triangulate the result from questionnaire surveys and interviews. Invitation letters were sent to the learners at CLC. They were given one week to decide whether they would participate. Briefing sessions were also organized so that all the participants knew the purpose and process of the research. It was stated clearly in the invitation letter that all the participants were made anonymous because diary study may involve data related to the subjects' privacy and the result would be used only for research purposes.

An invitation note was posted at CLC's notice board with the consent of the Center Director, and eventually 3 volunteer students were recruited. Aims and purposes of the study were clearly written in the note (cf. Burgess 1994 about the importance of clear guidelines). Volunteer students were asked to keep a diary for one month about their learning of Cantonese and to submit their diaries every Friday. A letter was given to each volunteer (Appendix XVIII). In the letter, some questions were set as guidelines for them to write about in their diaries.

1. What classes have you attended?
2. Did you enjoy the classes? If yes, what did you enjoy? If not, what did you dislike?
3. What do you think about the lesson presented in the textbook in today's lessons and what is your viewpoint about the teaching materials used?
4. Apart from classroom teaching, did you practice Cantonese after school? How and what instrument(s) and channel did you use? Did you like the instrument and why?
5. What did you think could help you learn Cantonese?
6. What were the difficulties you had encountered?

The subjects were asked to follow the format of the sample diary attached in the invitation letter. The letter was sent to the volunteers before they started writing. Diaries were collected at the end of the last lesson (Friday) every week. Reminders were given to the volunteers the day before. Oppenheim (1992) mentions that some researchers stressed the need for personal touch and they were "suggesting an interviewer should spend time persuading the respondents, instructing them in the details of recording process, perhaps calling in or telephoning once or twice during the diary period, and personally collecting the diary and thanking the respondents". (p. 253) In this case, personal touch was beneficial in the data collection process, in reminding the respondents, and in sustaining the respondents' motivation. The 3 volunteers recruited successfully completed the task. After the diaries were collected, short interviews were organized to verify the diary data. Although it was not a large number of subjects, hours of work were required to analyze the data collected.

5.2.4 Ethical issues

The needs analysis used questionnaire survey, interviews and diary research to elicit data. Questionnaires and diary studies try to elicit the subjects' habits, and to record their daily activities. It is extremely important to make all the subjects anonymous and untraceable in order to protect their privacy. Research data is used for qualitative or quantitative analysis or for both. These points were made clear at the beginning of the questionnaires or in the invitation letter of the diary study. Berger & Patcher (1994) state the importance of having informed consent and confidentiality. They suggest that researchers should also try their best to
minimize all possible harm to the subjects.

Researchers have an ethical obligation to protect their subjects and to act responsibly and morally. Ethical codes governing research involving human subjects require that subjects give informed consent for their participation, that subjects are not physically or psychologically harmed, that all information about subjects is kept confidential, and that researchers do not deceive study participants. (Berger & Patcher 1994, p.98)

Interviews require human interaction and produced information on certain persons or group attitudes and viewpoints towards a particular topic. Three basic areas of ethical issues are mentioned by Cohen et al (2000). They are “informed consent, confidentiality, and the consequences of the interviews” (p.292). They also mention a few questions when doing interview research, such as
1. Who should give the informed consent?
2. How might the result of the research help or harm any of the interviewees, and that it is the interviewers’ duty to clearly point out the consequences of the research data.

Morrison & Galloway (1996) mention the ethical issues of diary research. Since diary accounts might be affecting privacy, especially when recording activities outside schools, there should be agreement among researchers and diary-writers about the purpose of the accounts. Like other research methodology, the subjects should be represented by pseudonyms. In this way, diary-writers would not feel that they were victims, who opened up their lives and souls. In order to achieve this, researchers should have strategies to protect them and to minimize negative
Consent was given from the Director of CLC to undertake the research (questionnaire survey, interviews and diary study) and all the studies were made anonymous and non-identifiable after the data had been published.

5.3 Data analysis: Current CFL learners' needs and learning difficulties

It has been discussed (Munby 1978, Richterich & Chancerel 1980, Li & Richards 1995, Cohen et al 2000, Lakshmy & Lee 2002) that needs analysis is useful to study the needs of current learners, so that teachers of the target language can acquire more up-to-date information on the current learners and understand future trends. The discussion of this part focuses on the questionnaire data and interview data as well as information from diary studies on the following issues:

1. domains where the use of Cantonese is intended
2. language skills learners intend to acquire
3. situations where Cantonese is used in real life
4. attitudes towards Cantonese
5. learning habit of the learners
6. difficulties faced when learning the target language

5.3.1 Biographical data collected from the questionnaire survey

Biographical data collected in the questionnaire survey (Part IV) provides a general picture of who the current learners are. The data is collected for statistical analysis only, so no name of any individual learner is disclosed. According to the
biographical data, there is an even distribution of male (47.7%) and female (52.3%) participants. Japanese are the majority (52.6%), the next are Americans (13.8%). As suggested by Li & Richards (1995), the majority of the teaching materials are in English. The data reflects the fact that certain sets of materials or supplementary materials could be developed to fit particularly the Japanese student population, although the official medium of instruction is English.

38.4% of the learners are also working while studying the language. These consist of business people (15.4%), missionaries (12.3%), teachers (7.7%), civil servants (1.5%) and medical doctors (1.5%).

In terms of reasons for coming to Hong Kong, 19.9% come for employment, 13.8% because of the church sending them (also a job-related reason) and 13.8% are planning to find a job in Hong Kong. To sum up, about half (47.5%) of the students learn for job-related purposes.

Questionnaire survey also shows that the length of time living in Hong Kong ranges from 2 months to 33 years (with a mean of 2.85 years). The length of learning Cantonese ranges from 2 months to 12 years (with a mean of 1.67 years). 18.5% of the students had a family in Hong Kong. 16.9% of the learners' family members use Cantonese. 23.1% of the learners use Cantonese with their family members either in Hong Kong or in their home countries. When studying in Hong Kong, 86.2% of the learners use Cantonese after school (mostly talking with local friends). These factors affect learners’ motivation towards Cantonese language learning.
In the interviews, 80% of the interviewees indicate that the purpose of staying in Hong Kong is to find a job and learning Cantonese helps them in seeking a job. 60% of the interviewees in the interview suggested developing job-related courses in addition to the regular syllabus would be helpful. The courses they suggested included language for trading businesses, language for personnel in the financial field, Cantonese for salespersons and property agents, as well as Cantonese for religious personnel.

One interesting point from the interview data is that 90% of the interviewees indicate their willingness to continue learning the language even if they return to their home countries. The methods of continuing include, finding Hong Kong friends in their home countries, joining language exchange clubs, watching video tapes, getting a private teacher, using the internet to access Hong Kong homepages, and studying in language schools. However, interviewees all mentioned that there are very few language schools and materials available for further study if they leave Hong Kong.

5.3.2 Domains in which Cantonese is intended to be used

The majority of the students learn Cantonese for the working domain. This can be shown in the questionnaire survey (Part I) which shows that 56.9% of the respondents put working life as the first priority. That means more than half of the learners use or will use Cantonese at work. Private life is also important since 46.2% of the learners put private life as their second priority (Appendix XIX provides a detailed illustration). The result coincides with the result in the interviews and in the diary study.
The interview data provides further support for the fact that most students learn the language for job-related reasons. Five out of ten of the subjects’ main purpose of learning is job-related, while three out of ten learn because of cultural reasons. However all the interviewees said having acquired Cantonese made their life more interesting in Hong Kong because they were able to understand local culture, to communicate with Hong Kong friends and to express their feelings. In diary study, response comments such as “working in Cantonese environment”, “going to find a job in Hong Kong” and “interested in Hong Kong culture” can be found. These show that there are two main reasons for learning the language, one is job-related and the other is cultural related.

5.3.3 Language skills learners intended to acquire

The most intended language skill to acquire is the ability to speak the language. In the questionnaire data (Part I), 58.5% of the learners’ first priority is to be able to speak the language, 50.8% of the learners’ second priority is to be able to understand speech, 43.1% of the learners’ third priority is to understand written materials, 50.8% of the learners’ fourth priority is to be able to write the language and 47.7% of the learners’ fifth priority is to grasp translation skills. The priority of learning of each skill is presented in Table 6. This coincides with the data from interviews. All the interviewees emphasized that they learnt Cantonese because they wanted to communicate with Hong Kong people in daily life or in working situations. In diary study, sentences like “I would like to practice my speaking skills”, “I will practice Cantonese through talking to Hong Kong friends” can be found.
Table 6. Ranking of language skills intended to acquire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language skill</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding speech</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding written materials</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; priority</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3.4 Real life situations where Cantonese is used

Concerning the situations where Cantonese was used in real life, the result of the questionnaire survey (Part II) are summarized in Table 7. The result gives important data for material preparation. The more frequently used situations are the most important ones and need to be introduced with more depth and earlier in textbooks and in the classroom.

Table 7. Various real world situations where the target language was used by learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency of use</th>
<th>Real life Situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>Buying things in the market, taking a taxi, talking to children, talking to electricians, plumbers, etc., receiving phone calls, watching television, listening to radio &amp; concerts, using Cantonese related to the work or study, traveling within Guangdong Province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of the time</td>
<td>Buying things in stores &amp; supermarkets, ordering food, having casual talks, talking to colleagues &amp; neighbours,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>asking directions, watching movies, visiting friends, traveling inside Hong Kong, renting a house, doing business, asking information, giving orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>Taking public transport, talking to students, making phone calls, playing sports, making travel arrangement, visiting doctor or in hospital, arguing, explaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Visiting other parts of China, writing letters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the data, a few interesting points can be found. The data shows that the respondents used Cantonese very frequently in private life and when doing leisure activities, like ordering food, buying things, watching television programmes. The data also shows that some respondents (29.3%) used Cantonese when doing business.

In the interviews, these points were further verified. All the subjects responded that in formal situations or in situations where important information need to be conveyed, the subjects tended not to use Cantonese, such as in visiting doctors, making travel arrangements, arguing, explaining and writing letters (which coincides
with the result that writing is a skill with lower priority to learn). Looking at the
diary data, most situations where Cantonese was used were informal situations.
This coincides with the most frequently used Cantonese-situations reported in the
questionnaire survey.

5.3.5 Attitude towards Cantonese

Most students have a positive attitude towards the target language. Both the
interviews and diary study contain data on learners' attitudes toward Cantonese and
their learning habits. Descriptions like fascinating, lovely, full of local taste,
colourful, poem-like, rich, interesting, logical, useful, new, creative, fun to study, feel
good to learn, etc. can be found when they describe the target language. However,
the data in the interviews reveals that learners generally think that Cantonese is one
of the most difficult and complicated languages, it is hard to learn and a long
learning time is needed.

The majority of the subjects in the interviews think that the most difficult
aspects are learning pronunciation and tones. Sentence structure is another difficult
aspect and it is also difficult to remember vocabulary items, especially colloquial
expressions. As shown in the interviews and diary study, a large discrepancy
between written and spoken forms also creates problems for learners.

Both interviews and diary study suggest that teachers should help students
practice more, especially with respect to pronunciation and tones, develop
comprehension skills (in daily street talk), correct mistakes immediately, and practice
more in written Chinese and daily conversations. In the classroom it is better to
avoid using languages other than the target language. Teachers should also teach
useful materials and provide comprehensible interesting input. Teachers also need to listen patiently to the learners. Teachers also need to arouse learners’ interest to keep on learning. In the interviews, interviewees suggest that teachers should be facilitators, a friend with whom students can chat and a helper who can always help students.

5.3.6 Learning habits

Regarding learners’ learning habits, the data from the interviews shows that learners’ time spent on learning the language outside school ranged from 0 to 12 hours (with a mean of 2.78 hours). That can be related to the reasons of learning the language. Learners learning for job-related reasons devote a longer time for preparation and self-study, while learners learning for cultural reasons have different time allocation according to individual preference or individual study schedule. One thing in common, as shown in interviews and diary study, is that learners practice speaking Cantonese with Chinese friends outside the classroom and they all value the chances to use the target language in their workplace.

In the interview, 90% of the interviewees think that the materials available are not adequate. This implies a need for materials development. The interview data shows that learners like to listen to audio tapes, songs, radio broadcasts as well as television programmes, to read books and to practice with local friends outside the classroom setting. The interview data shows computer-aided teaching is a new trend but needs time to develop. This point implies that it is necessary to develop relevant computer-assisted teaching materials in order to give more varieties of

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11 Lee (2004b) is a computer input system for learners of Cantonese. It allows learners to input Chinese script by using the Yale Romanization system, the Romanization system used in most textbooks and dictionaries for TCFL.
5.3.7 Learning difficulties

Concerning the learning difficulties of recent CFL learners, Joseph Boyle¹² (1997) did some research and interviewed sixty people who were learning Cantonese in Hong Kong. He organizes group interviews with five people in each group. He compares successful learners and those who failed in learning the language. He tries to elicit factors for successful learning and to explain reasons for failure. Factors for success included Cantonese spouses, opportunity to use the language, a thick skin and a good ear, eagerness to watch Cantonese television programmes, a good audio memory, as well as interest in Chinese script and culture. However, there are very few explanations of how these factors worked. For example, he mentions that a Chinese girlfriend or boyfriend definitely fosters the learning of Cantonese and marrying into a Chinese family makes a big difference, but there are no explanations as to how these factors relate to language teaching and pedagogical issues. About reasons of failure, he lists that lack of respect, lack of time, lack of memory, lack of ability to read Chinese and old-fashioned teaching methods are the vital reasons which hinder learners' progress. He admits that the research "was in no sense meant to be a comprehensive study, but was merely a case-based, personalized look at an interesting question - why some people are successful at learning a very difficult language like Cantonese and why others are not" (Boyle 1997, p.86).

The data obtained from the interviews and diary studies shows more detail.

¹² Joseph Boyle is a retired linguist at the Chinese University. His wife, Elizabeth Boyle published several Cantonese teaching materials for the U.S. Government.
relating learning difficulties. Learners reported that there are several difficulties and barriers when learning Cantonese in interviews and diary studies.

The first type of difficulty or barrier relates to the learning of linguistic structures, such as the phonetic and grammatical structure of the target language. I call these “linguistic barriers”. Documentary data (anonymous 1839, Ball 1883, O'Melia 1938, Chao 1947) in Chapter 4 shows that most learners and teachers of Cantonese thought that Cantonese tones were one of the hurdles. In the diary study, comments from learners like the following can be found;

There are so many difficult tones and sounds in Cantonese. Mistakes in tones, vowel length and other difficult sounds made conversation and in class practice unintelligible and caused embarrassment. (Learner 1, diary study data).

The second type of difficulties includes the pressure created while the learners are learning Cantonese. Stress and pressure mostly occurs with adult learners and affects language learning. This kind of barrier includes the uneasy feeling when they or the teachers make comparison about learners' examination results with classmates and co-learners. Learners reported in the diary data that they felt pressure and stress in class because adult learners needed to rely on others in daily life and sometimes felt helpless and felt like a child. Frustration also comes from a mismatch between thinking on an adult level but having vocabulary on child's level. Lacking appropriate vocabulary items and sentence patterns to express one's meaning not only causes frustration inside the language classroom, but also creates
embarrassing situations and a feeling of helplessness outside the classroom. Stress also occurs when a learner is living in an environment, but he/she is not in command of the language spoken by the people. This feeling causes more trouble for learners from a professional field, such as professors, doctors, lawyers or priests. Another pressure is from examinations. Students of CLC need to take 4 to 5 quizzes, 2 written examinations and 2 oral examinations each semester. Most institutions in Hong Kong associate examination results and success in learning. Learners have a feeling that failure in examination means failure in learning and indirectly relates to their overall learning capability. Stress and pressure create psychological barriers which affect language learning.

The third type of difficulty appears when people in the surrounding social environment prefer not to use Cantonese to talk to learners. In Hong Kong, most learners in interviews and in the diary study complain that Hong Kong people prefer to use English to communicate with non-Chinese interlocutors. There are several reasons for Hong Kong people to use English rather than Cantonese to non-Chinese speakers. Firstly, they do not expect “foreigners” to learn Cantonese. Many educated Hong Kong people find it difficult to understand why foreigners want to learn to speak Cantonese for only transactional purposes, for example, shopping at the market and taking a taxi because most Hong Kong people can handle simple English conversation. Secondly, most Hong Kong people in the professional field use English in the working environment since English is the lingua franca in the business and educational fields. They think using English is more convenient for discussing work-related issues. The question whether learners are willing to practice the target language outside school largely depends largely on the socio-cultural environment. Learners’ comments found in the diary data show this
Working in a Cantonese environment and being the only member of staff not fluent in Cantonese, I had expected to acquire basic competence in Cantonese quite quickly but found that progress was very slow, despite attending Cantonese courses from time to time, including over a hundred hours and self-study from various textbooks.... No need to say anything to elaborate to colleagues whose English was much better than my Cantonese. (Learner 3, diary study data)

Apart from the above-mentioned difficulties and barriers, there are some other factors affecting learners' learning progress. The major factors are lack of time and learners' personality, as pointed out by Boyle (1997). Both “lack of time” and “heavy workloads” are common factors that hinder adult learners’ progress. Devoting time to do exercises and for oral practice is important for most foreign language learners.

An out-going personality can help learning foreign languages. Learners not only should use the target language with the fellow classmates and teachers, but also should use it outside the classroom with strangers. Boyle (1997) also suggests spending more time with people speaking the target language benefited foreign language learning. On the other hand, tame learners, have relatively less chance to speak and practice the target language. Psychological barriers, socio-cultural barriers and learners’ personality affect learners’ exposure to real life situations.
McDonough (1981) states that a "teacher's job is complicated by the hope that some of the barriers to learning can be broken down; in others, persistent failure may be explained by social factors rather than specific learning disabilities, or even in effective teaching" (McDonough 1981, p.94). Learners also find that the Cantonese spoken by native speakers can offer limited help to their language learning and the linguistic input from native speakers is not comprehensible to the learners until the learners have reached an advanced stage. A learner mentioned in the interview that he had no chance to use the target language in daily life and in working situations until he married a Cantonese. After getting married, he had more chance to speak Cantonese in family gatherings and has acquired more knowledge about Chinese culture which can enhance his ability in listening comprehension and can encourage him to speak out.

5.3.8 Conclusion

Needs analysis provides valuable information for Cantonese teachers, material developers and curriculum designers to understand learners' needs and attitudes of the target language. The questionnaire surveys and the interviews elicited the linguistic needs, objectives, the resources available, and some of the psychological factors which affected learning.

The result of the analysis is helpful for policy makers, curriculum planners, material designers, language teachers and those who are interested in the field to better understand the characteristics of the learners. Learners' needs analysis gives background information of the learners, learning habits, and expectations. The information is useful for class arrangement and materials development, for example the result of the language situations gives valuable information for textbook
developers. Since most of the learners intend to learn the language for working or finding a job in Hong Kong (which is reconfirmed in the interviews and in diary study), more job-related materials or courses need to be developed. In addition, learners also enjoy using the language and practicing the language in their daily life while living in Hong Kong apart from in classroom settings. The data also shows the three main factors affecting learning. They are the difficult linguistic structure, psychological factors and socio-cultural factors. Teachers' need to take into account these kind of factors which affect learning of the foreign language. Materials or curriculum should be developed with more cultural elements and more lively daily conversations. The next chapter discusses how well the textbooks available and teaching approaches used match the needs of the current learners. It also discusses the appropriate approaches to match the current learners' needs could be used and the future in textbook development.
6 Current Approaches to Teaching and Learning of Cantonese

This chapter discusses the research question of how well the textbooks available and teaching approaches adopted match the needs of current learners. It firstly attempts to discuss the "teaching content" and "teaching methods" in TCFL and secondly tries to match Cantonese teachers' and students' expectations in CLC. The third part discusses suggestions to future development of TCFL including teaching approaches and materials development and the fourth part tries to define teachers' and learners' role in TCFL.

6.1 "Teaching content" and "teaching methods" in TCFL

Before discussing learner's views about textbooks and teaching methods, it is necessary to distinguish "teaching content" and "teaching methods" in foreign language teaching. "Teaching content" in foreign language teaching is of course, the language itself. It includes the phonetic system, grammatical structure, discourse structure and even cultural contents of the target language. "Teaching methods" relates to how the "teaching content" is presented, for example through drilling exercises, communicative activities, etc.

Looking at the data from interviews and diary study, learners have comments about both the "teaching content" and "teaching method". Concerning their views on "teaching content", the major suggestion is to have more emphases on the cultural aspect of the target language in addition to the learning of the linguistic structure. In the questionnaire survey, 98% of the responses (Question 5, Part III) state that
culture plays an important role in learning Cantonese but is not presented in most textbooks. Differences in learners’ culture and the target culture make learning the foreign language difficult. CFL learners suggested that learning the target culture is as important as learning the language and that the two should go hand in hand. This resembles the discussions in Chapter 4 stating that the recent development of foreign language textbooks is towards a situational-culturally based syllabus.

Regarding teaching materials, there are some suggestions from the interviews and diary study. Textbooks should present the colloquial speech most students really need to master and learners in the questionnaire survey suggested that the use of video is beneficial to learning since videos are authentic materials and they present the actual use of the target language. Learners suggested that the vocabulary items and sentence patterns should be presented in context, either in stories or in situational dialogues. Passages should be interesting to read and should present information on local life and Chinese traditions, and also be enlivened with flashes of humour. About the situational topics of the textbooks, learners suggested in interviews and diary study that some topics were not useful in daily life and others were not interesting. Looking at the questionnaire data, 18 real life situations in which the learners reported to use Cantonese frequently are listed in Table 8. The result was reconfirmed in the interviews. Comparing these situations with the topics presented in some textbooks, language teachers could see how well the textbooks available can cope with learners’ needs. Four textbooks (O’Melia 1938, Huang & Kok 1973a, Chik 1980 and Chan & Hung 1994) are selected to compare with learners’ needs. These four textbooks are the major textbooks designed for Cantonese courses in Hong Kong. O’Melia (1983) was used in the Hong Kong Government training section. Huang & Kok (1973a) has been a standard textbook for the two-year
certificate course in CLC since 1970. Chik (1980) and Chan & Hung (1994) are used in some courses of CLC. The comparison is presented in Table 8. A tick (✓) represents a match while a cross (X) shows certain situational items do not appear in the textbooks. O’Melia (1983) only matches 4 items; Huang & Kok (1973a) matches 9. Chik (1980) matches 11 items; Chan & Hung (1994) match 5. This comparison gives some hints for revising existing textbooks and teaching materials. It also acts as a guideline for further development of textbooks, teaching materials and curriculum. It is also evidence to show that learners’ needs analysis can help materials developers to plan new textbooks and to review old ones.

Table 8. Comparison between learners’ needs and textbooks used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buying things in the market</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taking taxi</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to children</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to electricians, plumbers</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving phone calls</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching television</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to radio &amp; concerts</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using Cantonese related to work or study</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
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<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying things in stores &amp; supermarkets</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>having casual talks</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talking to colleagues &amp; neighbours</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asking direction</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watching movies</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visiting friends</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renting a house</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doing business</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

About “teaching methods”, learners made several points. Firstly, they appreciate “direct method” and suggest that teachers should present the new vocabulary items entirely in Cantonese, though English explanations are printed beside each item inside the book. Secondly, they appreciate the question-and-answer session which could exemplify the new vocabulary and reinforce learning. Thirdly, they also think that discussion sessions and role-playing classes provide activities which allow them to use Cantonese in a relaxed and natural fashion. Fourthly, they also appreciate drilling activities. They think that the whole class reading the comprehension passage aloud and answering oral comprehension questions in Cantonese fosters better learning. However, they think drilling exercises on lexical and sentence level are boring.
6.2 Matching teachers’ visions of TCFL and students’ expectation

This section summarizes teachers’ viewpoints about the teaching materials and about teaching methods. Teachers think that Cantonese teaching should focus on “Questions & Answers” and “Drilling” activities. This resembles the methods suggested by most textbooks (Lau 1972, Huang & Kok 1973a, 1973b) and some research on pedagogy in teaching Chinese as a second language (Peng 2003). Teachers also appreciate the importance of using Cantonese to give a five to ten minute speech every alternate week inside the classroom. In the speech class, every student prepares a script of a five to ten minute speech or oral presentation; the script is corrected by the teacher and students present it orally in class.

In relation to teaching materials, teachers all agree to teach vocabulary items and sentence patterns in a situational context and give up using translation exercises. They suggest the number of lessons on “story” or “dialogue” needs to be increased. However, teachers complain that it is difficult to use information-gap activities and role-playing situational activities. They also have doubts about picture description activities. The main question raised is about what the teachers should do when organizing group work and what the teachers’ roles are in these activities. Definitely the use of these interactive and communicative activities requires different roles for teachers and learners. The teachers’ role in activity-based classes differs from their role in the traditional grammatical or grammar-translation classes. Teachers in traditional grammar classes have responsibilities for explaining grammatical points, leading the drills and tackling problems. However, in activity-based classrooms, teachers need to actually
participate in the conversation and to act as a helper in the tasks. More discussion about teachers’ and learners’ roles will be given in the next section.

Cantonese teachers always have a dilemma. To some teachers, being able to produce grammatically well-formed sentences is a major concern in TCFL. To others, being able to communicate is a major achievement and this group of teachers appreciates communicative tasks and activities more than grammatical exercises and drill. Stevick (1982) discusses the use of sentence drills. He points out that language teachers should rethink the importance of drilling exercises and how the drilling exercises could work with other approaches, such as situational and communicative approaches. It is not whether to use drilling exercises, but it is how to use it that requires careful considerations. This is a difficult question for foreign language teachers to answer. Stevick (1982) suggests teachers should draw their own conclusion. I think before the teachers could answer the question properly, they should look at the comparison between students’ view and theirs. Table 9 summarizes the views from the two sides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching content</th>
<th>Learners’ data</th>
<th>Teachers’ view</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary items and sentence patterns should be presented in a context</td>
<td>Present vocabulary items and sentence patterns in situational context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need interesting stories and dialogues in textbooks</td>
<td>Give up translation exercises</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on target culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Comparison between TFCL learners' needs and teachers' view about TCFL
Table 9 is a summary of comparison between learners' expectations & learning difficulties and teachers' views in CLC. There are some perfect matches.
between teachers’ views and learners’ expectations. Both of them think that it is important to present vocabulary items and sentence patterns in a situational context. Introducing vocabulary items and grammatical rules alone without context inside the classroom is less useful in foreign language learning. On the other hand, putting vocabulary items and grammatical rules with lively examples and even in situational contexts can benefit the learning process. Both teachers and learners think that Cantonese sounds and tones are the major difficulties of Cantonese learning. Another perfect match is their views on “question-and-answer” lessons and “drilling activities”. Drilling exercises provide systematic training of the difficult Cantonese sounds and tones, as well as vocabulary items and sentence patterns. Corrections of sounds and tones errors in drilling exercises from teachers are helpful to CFL learning. “Question-and-answer” lessons can reinforce the learning of vocabulary items and sentence patterns. Corrections of pronunciation and grammatical errors are important for the learning process.

Apart from the above-mentioned perfect matches, Table 9 also shows some mismatches. The major mismatch in “teaching content” is that there is not enough examples and elaboration of the target culture. In addition, texts in the textbooks need to be more interesting and more multi-media materials are requested by learners. About “teaching methods”, the major mismatch is about role-playing activities. The learners appreciate them, but the teachers find them difficult to use and some teachers even report them useless. The mismatches show that some of the learners’ needs are not satisfied. The mismatches affect learners’ learning and sometimes cause problems in a language classroom. Matching learners’ beliefs and needs with that of the teachers relates to a large extent to the learners’ receptiveness to the teachers’ teaching style and vice versa. Perfect matches reinforce the beliefs of the
language teachers and strengthen the idea of what the learners require. On the other hand, mismatches give hints for further development of teaching methods, teaching materials and curriculum. Lakshmy & Lee (2002) believe that both teachers and learners had their own beliefs about how to learn a language, and what kind of activities and teaching methods they believed were useful. Teachers' beliefs are formed through their former experience as learners and their training and experience as a teacher. Their beliefs can be reflected in their classroom practices. In their study, learners' perceptions learning and their reactions to the teaching methods as well as teaching materials are shown in the diary entries. Lakshmy & Lee (2002) believe that successful learning environments required a match between teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning. However, conflicts may not always cause negative reaction, but required renegotiation. Needs analysis and this kind of comparison are important for language teachers, curriculum designers and materials developers in foreign language teaching.

6.3 An eclectic teaching approach to CFL teaching and learning

Looking at the data and the comparison between learners’ needs, textbooks used and teachers’ views about foreign language teaching, applying only a single established syllabus and teaching method to use seems inappropriate. It is more appropriate to use an eclectic approach in TCFL. The structural syllabus and drilling exercises have an important role in vocabulary and sentence teaching. The situational-cultural syllabus in combination with the communicative approach is appropriate to train learners with the communicative skills advocated by Hymes (1972) and intercultural communicative skills suggested by Byram (1997) and
Cortazzi & Jin (1999). A combination of these approaches is the developmental trend of TCFL in the future. As a result, there should be three layers in TCFL syllabus and curriculum. Syllabus and curriculum designers should consider all these layers, as shown in Fig. 5. The first layer, which is the foundation of foreign language learning, is the grammatical aspect of the target language. Considerations should be made on the allocation, presentation of grammatical items in a lesson either implicitly or explicitly. Material designers could work out the sequence of grammatical structure and sentence patterns, so that they know which pattern can be introduced first. This can seek advice from linguistic data or well-established list in previous textbooks. The second layer consists of real world language situations. This information can be gathered by needs analysis. Although learners’ needs are vital to the system, teachers’ input also plays an important role. Compromising the two ideas would be the ideal. The third layer is the presentation of cultural elements. Most of the time, cultural elements have a close relationship with the language situations. The main purpose of this layer is to foster learners' cultural awareness of the target language.

Fig. 5 A three layers model in syllabus design in TCFL
From the data, the major 'mismatch between learners' needs and teachers' expectations are the positioning of grammatical explanation, the relative importance of different language situations presented in a Cantonese course, the importance of cultural elements, and appropriate exercises & training methods used. Sometimes a mismatch also occurs amongst learners. This is another reason why one particular teaching method or syllabus cannot suit all the learners. A combination of approaches and an eclectic approach are more appropriate. A combination of classroom activities including drilling, comprehension, situational and interactive exercises can be put into the curriculum. The eclectic approach could address the issue of the multi-needs of learners from different backgrounds. It can also make Cantonese learning less monotonous and more interesting.

6.4 Discussing teachers' and learners' role

The trend of teaching Cantonese as a foreign language is moving towards a "learner-oriented" model, while the learners' needs are complex and changing, incorporated with a "culturally emphasized" eclectic approach of teaching. There is a change of teachers' and learners' role from the traditional relationship where teachers convey knowledge and students are passive receivers to a relationship where both teachers and learners have multiple roles to play in CFL teaching and learning.

Data from the interviews and diary study shows that CFL teachers' role must change from that traditional teacher who just conveys knowledge, to someone having multiple roles to play. They become "trainers" to help students practice their pronunciation and conversational skills. They also act as a "friend" to establish a language atmosphere which provides opportunities for communication.
should have an open-mind so that learners are not afraid of discussing different topics using the target language. School and teachers can also help learners by organizing field trips and providing opportunities for learners to use the language practically and convey the value of the target culture to learners, for example, by organizing field trips to the market and shopping mall so that learners can practice using the target language in real situations with the help and monitoring of the teachers. In order to increase the cultural awareness of the learners, teachers need to explain clearly cultural points and to help learners adopt the right way to express their feelings in different language situations. Schools can organize seminars on Chinese culture and Hong Kong culture. As a friend, teachers should also give encouragement. Teachers should appreciate learners’ progress. Language schools and teachers should allow learners to criticize, comment and complain. Schools should let the learners know the channels to comment and complain.

Not only does the “teachers”’ role become complicated, but learners also need to rethink their role. Being a student does not mean just following the teacher command and instruction. Especially adult CFL learners do not need someone to force them to learn. Learners sometimes act as “collectors” and become collectors of vocabulary items, grammatical rules, and discourse structures. They become also “utilizers” who use the target language in real life situations. They also act as “monitors” of and “commentators” on their own learning progress and difficulties. Learners should also be trained to realize their own mistakes and the mistakes made by their peers. There is no doubt that examinations are good indicators of learning problems and difficulties. Learners are not only evaluated by their teachers, but they should also be trained to evaluate themselves. Learners always complained that examinations are on what has been taught. If they are good at recitation, there
is no problem getting high marks in the examinations. Although reciting and memorizing are important in learning a foreign language, the aim of learning Cantonese is to communicate with local people. Examinations should be more situational and should be closer to the actual daily use. Emphasis should also be put on communication and discourse strategies, rather than just a test on merely pronunciation and grammatical knowledge. Learners are willing to and should be trained to be able to evaluate themselves. Being a "student" is passive, however a "learner", "collector", "utilizer", "monitor" and "commentator" are all active roles. Progress of CFL learning depends on learners themselves, rather than just depends on school syllabus, textbooks and teachers. A comment from a learner at CLC shows this fact.

Some classmates complained about having too many holidays, I thought having holidays could allow me to go outside and practice my Cantonese and participate in more local activities. (Learner 2, diary study data)

Learners should also be trained to be critical and able to raise their demand and needs. The system of the language school should also allow input from learners when making decisions and drafting developmental plans.
7 Conclusion

This chapter is the concluding chapter of the thesis. It revisits the research questions and discusses how well the research questions are answered. It also discusses some limitations of the research and suggestion for further research.

7.1 The research questions

This thesis endeavours to answer the six research questions set in the introduction chapter. They are,

1. How did the teaching of Cantonese develop?
2. Who were the learners in the past and who are they now? Were there changes in learners' profiles throughout the history of TCFL? What are the reasons for learning the language?
3. What were the difficulties of the learners when learning Cantonese?
4. What kinds of textbooks were published?
5. What were the approaches used in teaching Cantonese as a foreign language?
6. Do the textbooks available and teaching approaches used match the needs of the current learners? Is there any mismatch between the expectations and learning habits of the learners and the teaching approaches? If yes, what are the recommendations?

History and Development of TCFL

The historical research traces the history of TCFL. It shows that TCFL started in the 16th and 17th century by self-taught missionary scholars. Later it was
developed further by more missionaries and expatriate civil servants in Hong Kong. However, in the past 40 years learners’ profiles have changed. Apart from European and American students, learners are coming from all over the world. Learners from Asian countries, such as Japan and Korea are increasing. Reasons for learning Cantonese have become heterogeneous. Some learners learn the language not only for job-related reasons but also for cultural reasons. With the changing learners’ profiles, textbooks and teaching approaches have also been developed by sinologists, linguists and Cantonese teachers. After about two hundred years of development, various teaching materials, learning manuals and teaching aids have been developed. Different teaching approaches, such as the grammatical approach, grammar-translation approach, oral repetition and drilling approach have been developed, and the recent trend is to develop situational and cultural syllabuses.

Textbooks and Teaching approach of TCFL: Towards a situational-cultural syllabus

This research showed that when learners learn the target language, they not only learn the sound system and the grammatical structure but also they need to learn how to say something (or how not to say), when to say it (or when not to say), and to whom one could say it (or to whom one cannot say). This involves the issues of effectiveness and appropriateness. In order to achieve this, learners not only need the sociolinguistic rules, but also require understanding of the target culture. Learners can learn this type of knowledge or ability through various ways. Apart from traveling to encounter representatives of the target language or encounter members of the target cultural groups, one way is that target culture can be taught by language teachers either implicitly or explicitly through activities and via methods
used in the classroom. Another way is to learn it from the textbooks. Learners expect that second or foreign language textbooks should include cultural elements of the target language.

From the discussions about cultural elements in Chapter 4, Cantonese textbooks for beginning learners seem to focus more on grammatical structure and vocabulary building. However, elementary textbooks still have space to include cultural elements. Although culture comes through some of the elementary textbooks, there is not enough depth and no explicit explanation is given. This makes it difficult for learners to grasp the situations. More in-depth and explicit explanations foster the learners' awareness of the target culture as well as their own source culture so that they understand their own culture and the target culture through comparison and contrast. Cultural awareness helps them to communicate with the target language speakers. It is obvious for second or foreign language learners that to learn the grammar and basic vocabulary, sociolinguistic and intercultural competence are also important and it is helpful for the learners to have exposure to the target culture at the very beginning. Materials and course developers need to take this situation into consideration. From the examples discussed, there are various ways to present culture in language textbooks. Language teachers also need to incorporate their teaching method to convey cultural content to the learners. An observational research studying how and how much cultural elements are presented in a language classroom was the next step in the studies of culture and TCFL. From the above discussion, the importance of culture in foreign language teaching is showed in the recent development of Cantonese textbooks. Cortazzi & Jin (1999) suggest that "cultural focus on intercultural competence has communicative ends, but there are further important advantages: It may not only encourage the development of identity,
but also encourage the awareness of other’s identities.” (p.219) Follow-up research about theories and techniques to develop cultural syllabuses for TCFL needs to be done in the future.

Both historical research and empirical studies showed that Cantonese learners find Cantonese difficult because of the pronunciation and the ever-changing colloquial expressions. Teachers and teaching materials play an important role to help them solve various problems. Both teachers and learners should rethink their role. Teachers need to be able to arouse learners’ interests in learning the language, as well as to provide opportunities for language practice. Learners criticize that textbooks are inadequate and cannot meet some of their needs. A close investigation indicates that the complaints come from mismatch of both teaching approaches and teaching content between learners’ expectations and teachers’ view about TCFL. Concerning teaching approaches, learners expect to have oral repetition and drilling exercises as well as communication activities and interaction tasks; however, teachers only emphasize the former two. About teaching content, they request to have richer and more systematic cultural content in addition to grammatical explanations and language situations, but teachers admire drilling exercise on the sentence level. Last but not least, as with TEFL, the materials need to be authentic and up-to-date. The mismatches found in this thesis explains more about Li & Richards’ (1995) claim, which stated that there was a high drop-out rate of Cantonese courses due to the unstructured curriculum and old-fashioned textbooks. It also presents a clearer picture about learners’ difficulties and gives suggestions about materials preparation.
Materials preparation in TCFL

This thesis suggests that inputs from learners, teachers and the institution combined with established linguistic theories and language teaching pedagogy can form the skeleton and meat of the textbooks and curriculum which can lead to successful learning, teaching and training. A preliminary model is shown in Fig. 6.

Fig. 6 A model for curriculum and teaching material development of Cantonese as a foreign Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners' input</th>
<th>Linguistic theories</th>
<th>Textbooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers' feedback</td>
<td>Language teaching pedagogy</td>
<td>Teaching Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a nutshell, in order to provide suitable teaching materials and curriculum, inputs from learners, teachers and the language institutions are important elements in materials and curriculum development. Curriculum and materials developers need to incorporate the similarity between learners' needs, teachers' expectations and institutional culture and beliefs about TCFL. They also need to find an equilibrium point if there is a mismatch. When a mismatch occurs, it requires several mechanisms to compromise and find a balanced point. Language schools can organize workshops, seminars and teacher training sessions to discuss the disequilibrium between learners' needs and teachers' expectations. They also need to frequently discuss with learners and to research learners' needs because it is clearly shown that learners' needs are changing throughout the history of TCFL. Data gathered at CLC shows that major points of compromise includes the
positioning of grammatical explanation, the relative importance of different language situations presented in the Cantonese course, the importance and presentation of cultural elements, and the appropriateness of the exercises and training methods used. As research about these issues is limited in TCFL, it is suggested that more research on these topics could be done by researchers interested in TCFL and in the field of foreign language teaching.

Rethinking “Teaching” of Cantonese as a foreign language

Teaching of Cantonese as a foreign language is a term following the tradition of “Teaching xxx as a Foreign/Second Language”. However, TCFL has its own characteristics nowadays. Teaching Cantonese as a foreign language for adult learners can be divided into “teaching” and “training”. “Teaching” means to teach the phonetic and grammatical structure of the language to the learners by “chalk-and-talk”. It also includes explaining meanings of words and cultural points of the target language. The syllabus of “teaching” should include grammatical structure, communicative situations and cultural elements, which are the three major layers discussed in the previous section. “Training”, on the other hand, focuses on how the teachers can help learners to acquire the skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Since Cantonese is primarily a spoken language and most learners’ major purpose of learning is to communicate either in the workplace or with their family members and friends, “training” for speaking is predominantly important. Teachers can use drilling exercises and comprehension exercises developed from authentic audio-visual sources, situational activities, discussions, speech presentation, picture description activities, role-playing activities, information-gap and other interactive activities to “train” Cantonese learners to grasp the vocabulary items, grammatical structure, communication strategy and culture. Multi-media teaching
materials such as audio-visual materials and computer assisted learning materials are requested by the learners in the future. As discussed in previous chapters, current learners also need to be trained to play an active role in their learning. It is thus more appropriate to relate the three processes, "teaching", "training" and "learning". I will say, "Teaching, Training and Learning of Cantonese as a Foreign Language" seems to be a better description of the field according to its recent development.

7.2 The future of TCFL

Looking at the history of teaching and learning Cantonese as a foreign language, the overall trend is growing and developing in terms of number of learners, teaching materials and teaching approaches. What are changing are the composition of the learner population and the expectations of the learners. Recently, requests by university students from Mainland China for Cantonese courses have been increasing. This is another developmental trend in TCFL. This group of learners has a very different cultural and linguistic background from the non-Chinese learners. Teachers of TCFL need to think about suitable teaching approaches and to develop appropriate teaching materials to suit the needs of this group of learners. Further research can be done on this issue.

About two hundred years ago, learners were mainly missionaries and foreign government officials living or having a working relationship with Guangdong, Macao and Hong Kong. Nowadays, learners' backgrounds and needs are more complex. With its long history and with the economic status of the Guangdong province, it is worth learning Cantonese for economic and heritage reasons. Teaching and Learning of Cantonese as a Foreign Language is definitely important.
However, its future and development depend on the work of practitioners in the field, including language teachers, curriculum designers, material developers and the managerial level of the institutions. More serious research should be done in order to improve the situation stated by Li & Richards (1995) and to raise the status of TCFL.

7.3 Limitations

This thesis used historical research to collect data in order to describe the history of TCFL, the teaching approaches used and the difficulties of early scholars. Due to limited resources, funding and time, only attainable historical sources and archives can be accessed. Similar to other historical and archeological research, the current research result may need to be modified if new pieces of information are discovered. In view of this, specialists’ views were sought (Bolton 2002, Pfister 2003b), in order to minimize researcher’s bias and increase the reliability of the research result.

This thesis also used needs analysis and empirical research tools to study CFL learners’ needs, learning habits and difficulties. Questionnaire surveys, interviews and a diary study were used in the needs analysis. Each research method has its own advantages and disadvantages, which were discussed in the methodology section in Chapter 5. Questionnaire surveys can research a large population, however, they do not offer a chance for the subject to elaborate certain important points and researchers cannot ask follow-up question based on each individual questionnaire. Interviews have a disadvantage of the “researcher” or “interviewer” effect, which may distort the result. Diary studies rely heavily on self-reported data
and required full cooperation from the subjects. Since each method has its own limitations, different methods were used to triangulate the result and to find different supporting evidence in order to increase the reliability and validity of the data collected. Documentary data was also used to check the results. The needs analysis in this thesis only focused on a group of learners who studied in a particular term at CLC. As emphasized in previous chapters, the formation of learners' population was and is still changing. Longitudinal research on learners' needs is necessary in order to understand the changing needs and to provide more information for teachers, materials developers as well as administrators of Cantonese centers. Questions asked in the questionnaire survey and interviews should also be modified according to different sociolinguistic situations and different periods of study. Due to limited resources and time, large scale longitudinal studies could not be undertaken in this thesis. I believe on-going longitudinal studies need to be undertaken to closely monitor learners' needs. Any significant changes require modification of teaching content and teaching approaches in textbooks and in classroom teaching.
Appendices

Appendix I: Sample page of Ricci & Ruggieri (1584)

Sample page of Ricci & Ruggieri (1584) quoted in Lau 1994
Appendix II: Morrison’s (1827) “Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect”
Appendix III: Bridgeman (1841) "Chinese Chrestomathy"

CHINESE CHRESTOMATHY

IN THE

CANTON DIALECT.

By E. C. BRIDGMAN.

MACAO.

S. WELLS WILLIAMS.

M DCCCLXX.
Appendix IV: William’s (1856) "Tonic Dictionary"

The covering page of William (1856)
Appendix V: Draft of Cantonese examination drafted by Legge

Draft of Cantonese examination drafted by Legge (quoted in Wong 1996)

1. **Translate into English.**

2. **Render the same passage into colloquial.**

   If you can write it in Chinese characters, well.
   Jirst, write it in English letters, marking the tones over the word with our figures.

3. **Translate into English.**

4. **Render the same into colloquial in the same way as the former passage.**

5. **Render the subjoined notice in Chinese, in Chinese characters, if you can, if not express the Chinese by English letters.**
An agreement was made on the sixteenth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight, by and between the undersigned, one of the Crown Agents for the Colonies in London, in the County of Middlesex, acting for and on behalf of the Government of Hong Kong, and Reginald Fleming Johnston of 17 Grovenor Street, Edinburgh in the County of Edinburgh, of the one part, and Reginald Fleming Johnston of the other part:

WITNESSETH that the said Reginald Fleming Johnston, hereinafter called the person appointed, in consideration of receiving a free passage to Hong Kong and of his being provided with quarters, tuition, and books free of charge to enable him to learn the Chinese language as the Government may direct for such term as may be considered necessary from the date of his landing in the Colony and of the yearly sum hereinafter agreed to be paid to him by the Government (on his performing the agreements hereinafter expressed) hereby agrees and engages with the Government as follows, viz.:

1. The person appointed shall proceed to Hong Kong by the Steamer of the seventeenth day of November next.

2. The person appointed shall reside permanently in Hong Kong for the space of four years to be computed from the date of his landing in the Colony and shall during such term as may be considered necessary study and devote himself to the study of the Chinese language and place himself under the control and the supervision of the Government which will frame regulations for his hours of study and general conduct. The person appointed shall further subject himself to be tested by half-yearly or other periodical examination before such person or persons as may be named for such purpose by the Government and he shall not render himself liable to be dismissed from the engagement hereby entered into by reason of his conduct or progress being considered by the Government as unsatisfactory as to render such course necessary.

3. The person appointed shall not during the said term of four years either quit Hong Kong without leave or relinquish his engagement without being dismissed (except for illness) and in the event of his being dismissed he shall if required so to do by the Government repay to the Government or to the Crown Agents for the Colonies in London for the time being the cost of his passage to Hong Kong together with a further sum of fifty pounds for each year and the proportionate part of fifty pounds for the proportionate part of a year during which he shall have been so instructed as aforesaid.

4. The Government shall from the date of the person appointed arriving in Hong Kong pay to him during such term as he shall be studying the Chinese
language a Salary equal to Fifteen hundred dollars ($1,500) per annum by quarterly payments. Half this rate of salary only will be allowed during the time occupied on the voyage.

3. The Government shall so soon as the person appointed shall be declared qualified by a Board of competent Examiners cause him to be employed as a Government Interpreter or to be employed in such of the Departments as may require his services at a salary of Eighteen hundred dollars ($1,800) per annum, but without other allowances of any kind nearer such employment to continue so long only as the conduct and capabilities of the person appointed shall be deemed proper and efficient and he shall be subject to the conditions already mentioned as to conduct, and considered eligible by the Secretary of State for promotion in the higher Offices of the Civil Service of Hong-Kong on the occurrence of any vacancy which he may be deemed suitable to fill.

4. It shall be in the discretion of the Government in the event of the dismissal of the person appointed or his relinquishing his engagement within four years as aforesaid (except for ill-health) to direct that he shall defray his own passage home and return to the Government the cost of his passage out and he shall not be entitled to any compensation on account of such dismissal.

5. The Crown Agents for the Colonies shall not be in anywise personally liable for any matters arising out of this Agreement.

AS WITNESS the hands of the parties

Signed by ____________________________
(one of the Crown Agents for the Colonies)
in the presence of Sd John Boyd, S.W.

(Signed by the above-named)

Richard Fleming Johnston

in the presence of Name Sd Bernard T. Fuckle

Address The Guarantee Society

Occupation 19 Birchin Lane, E.C.

Signed sealed and delivered by the above-named

Reginald Fleming Johnston

in the presence of Name Sd W.T. Coles

Address 19 Birchin Lane, E.C.

Occupation

Signed sealed and delivered by the above-named

Walter Richard Tyes, Cathery Edgar

in the presence of Name Sd W. Stebbing

Address The Guarantee Society

Occupation 19 Birchin Lane, E.C.

Signed sealed and delivered by the above-named

in the presence of Name

Address

Occupation

Examined and Registered Intd A.D.
Appendix VII: Booney’s (1854) “Vocabulary with Colloquial Phrases of the Canton Dialect”
Appendix VIII: Lobscheid’s (1964) “Selected Phrases and Reading Lessons in the Canton Dialect”

Covering page of Lobscheid (1964)

SELECT PHRASES
AND
READING LESSONS
IN THE
CANTON DIALECT.
PREPARED FOR THE PRESS
BY THE
REV. W. LOBSCHEID.

HONGKONG
PRINTED AT WOOGONDA'S OFFICE.
1864.
Appendix IX: Devan’s (1858) “The Beginner’s First Book”

Covering page of Devan (1858)

THE

BEGINNER’S FIRST BOOK,

ON

VOCABULARY OF THE CANTON
DIALECT.

BY THE

REV. T. T. DEYAN, M.D.,
Of the American Baptist Missionary Union.

REVISED, CORRECTED, ENLARGED, AND TONED, BY THE
REV. WILHELM LOBSCHEID.

HONGKONG:
PRINTED AT THE “CHINA MAIL” OFFICE,
1858.
Appendix X: Eitel's (1877) "Chinese Dictionary in the Cantonese Dialect"
Advertisement of Eitel’s “A Chinese Dictionary in the Cantonese Dialect” in Hong Kong Government Gazette 1891.
Appendix XII: Ball’s (1883) “Cantonese Made Easy”

CANTONESE MADE EASY

A BOOK OF SIMPLE SENTENCES IN THE CANTONESE LANGUAGE, WITH FREE AND LITERAL TRANSLATIONS, AND DIRECTIONS FOR THE RENDERING OF ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL FORMS IN CHINESE.

THIRD EDITION.
REVISED AND ENLARGED.

BY

J. DYER BALL, M.R.A.S., ETC.,

OF HIS MAJESTY'S CIVIL SERVICE, HONGKONG.

Author of 'Easy Sentences in the Hakka Dialect with a Vocabulary,' 'How to speak Cantonese,' 'The Cantonese-made-Easy Vocabulary,' 'Readings in Cantonese Colloquial,' 'An English-Cantonese Pocket Vocabulary without the Chinese Characters or Tonic Marks,' 'Hakka Made Easy,' and 'Things Chinese,' etc., etc., etc.

KELLY & WALSH, LIMITED,
SINGAPORE—HONGKONG—SHANGHAI—YOKOHAMA.

1907.

[ALL RIGHTS RESERVED]

Covering page of Ball (1883)
Appendix XIII: Major learning manuals and published teaching materials (in English) in teaching/learning Cantonese as a foreign language

<table>
<thead>
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Appendix XIV: Numbers of CLC students from different countries.

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Appendix XV: (Finalized questionnaire, tested and adopted from Pilot study)

This questionnaire is used for the analysis of the needs and the learning styles of the Cantonese learners in Hong Kong. All the personal information will be kept confidential and be used for research purposes only.

Part 1

Please put (1,2,3,4,5) in the space provided to indicate your choice. 1 is the first priority while 5 is the least.

1. Areas in which Cantonese is intended to be used.
   _____ working life
   _____ private life (social contacts, cultural interest, etc)
   _____ others, please specify ________________

2. Language skills to be developed
   _____ understanding speech (listening)
   _____ understanding written materials (reading)
   _____ speaking
   _____ writing
   _____ translation skills

3. What do you think is the most difficult in learning Cantonese?
   _____ Pronunciation
   _____ Vocabulary
   _____ Grammar
   _____ Culture
   _____ others, please specify ________________

4. What are the things you like your teacher(s) to help you in learning?
   _____ Pronunciation
   _____ Vocabulary
   _____ Grammar
   _____ Culture
   _____ others, please specify ________________

5. What aspect(s), do you think, of the current textbooks you are using are not adequate?
   _____ Pronunciation
6. Do you think you will use any audio-visual aids in learning Cantonese?

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**Part II**

In what situations do you use Cantonese, or in which situation do you think Cantonese is useful.

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<td>6. Taking other public transport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Asking for directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Talking to colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talking to neighbours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Talking to friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Talking to children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Talking to students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Talking to electricians, plumbers, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Receiving phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Making phone calls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Playing sports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Joining hobby groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Watching televisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Watching movies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Part II

Please answer the following questions.

1. **What textbook are you using?**

   ____________________________________________________________

2. **Are you happy with your current textbook? If not, why not?**

   ____________________________________________________________

3. **How could you suggest improving the current teaching materials?**

   ____________________________________________________________
4. Are you happy with the current syllabus and curriculum? What suggestions do you have?

__________________________________________

Part IV

Please provide information by filling in the blanks.

Sex __________

Nationality __________

Age __________

Religion __________

Mother tongue __________

Present occupation __________

Previous occupation __________

Reasons for coming to Hong Kong ____________________________________________________________________

How long have you been in Hong Kong __________ months/yr(s)

Do you use Chinese/Cantonese outside school, if yes, with whom ____________________________________________________________________

How long have you been studying Cantonese? __________ months/yr(s)

If you are interested in doing an interview (a half-an-hour informal talk), please put your name and contact method (e-mail/phone no.) here ____________________________________________________________________

ALL THE INFORMATION IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE AND IN THE INTERVIEW ARE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL FOR RESEARCH PURPOSE ONLY

Thank you very much!! ☺

S. Lee
Appendix XVI

Interview Schedule for semi-structured interviews with Cantonese Learners

1. What is the main purpose of learning Cantonese?
2. Do you think your study can help you achieve this purpose? Why and why not?
3. After learning at school, how do you pursue your study?
4. Do you think you can use Cantonese outside school?
5. What are the five major situations that you use Cantonese?
6. Apart from the regular syllabus, what else you like to learn?
7. Do you think Cantonese can help you in your future plan?
8. Do you think the present textbook can help you achieve what you targets? If yes, in what aspect? If no, what are your viewpoints and suggestions?
9. Do you think the materials are adequate? If not, what are your suggestions?
10. Is Cantonese useful from your experience? Why or why not? And in what way?
11. Does Cantonese help you in your daily life? How?
12. What do you think is/are the most difficult and important when learning the language? Why? How do you think your teachers and textbooks could help you on these aspects?
13. What do you think the teachers' role is in your learning?
Appendix XVII

Interview Schedule for semi-structured interviews with Cantonese teachers.

1. What kind of textbooks you have used in your Cantonese teaching career?
2. How would you evaluate the textbooks you have used?
3. What teaching method have you used? What is(are) the teaching method(s) do you like to use?
4. Is there any change of teaching method since you first teach? If yes, why is there a change?
5. Any change in textbooks? If yes, why is there a change?
6. What is your opinion about the current teaching materials, teaching methods, syllabus and curriculum? Any suggestion?
7. Which aspect (speaking, listening, reading; pronunciation, grammar, voc., discourse, culture... Etc) is the most difficult to teach? And what will you do to help the students?
8. What is the role of culture in your teaching and in the teaching materials and how did you treat culture in your teaching?
Appendix XVIII (Invitation for diary writing and sample diary)

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am researching how students learn Cantonese in Hong Kong. Please kindly write your diary in the coming three month, every week. Your data is precious for us to know more about the topic. The attached sample provides you with the format of the diary and the following questions tell you what can be included in the diary.

What classes have you attended?
Did you enjoy the classes? If yes, what did you enjoy? If not, what did you dislike?
Apart from classroom teaching, did you practice Cantonese after school? How and what instrument(s) and channel did you use? Did you like the instrument and why?
What did you think could help you learn Cantonese?
What were the difficulties you had encountered?

Please hand in the diary to S. Lee (Rm 116) at the end of every week. Thank you for your help.

Best,
S. Lee

Attachment: Sample diary
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date/time</th>
<th>Main activities</th>
<th>Others comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 Mar, 2003 9:30-11:20 am</td>
<td>Attended 2 lessons of &quot;Vocabulary class&quot;, I enjoyed the class very much because my teacher could explain the vocabulary items with daily examples, sometimes with the help of pictures. But I think there were too many vocabulary items for one lesson (&gt;50), this made me difficult to memorize</td>
<td>Some of my classmates already knew some vocabulary items, so they felt quite bored. Their attitude sometimes made me uneasy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Mar, 2003 11:30 am - 12:30</td>
<td>&quot;Revision class&quot;, this class was not as interesting as the previous classes. The teacher repeated the example sentences with drill exercise. I looked forward to having more task-based activities.</td>
<td>My classmates felt even more bored, sometimes they made noise and talk with one another. They were good students but this made the teacher quite embarrassed and annoying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Mar, 2003 1:00 - 2:00 pm</td>
<td>Study at students' common room of the language center. But I cannot concentrate on reading, so I walked out of the room and found a Japanese (student of other level) to talk. Since she seemed to have a poor command of English. We used our common language, Cantonese to talk. It was fun.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix XIX: Questionnaire Data

**Part I**

**Domains where the target language will be used**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>1st priority</th>
<th>2nd priority</th>
<th>3rd priority</th>
<th>4th priority</th>
<th>5th priority</th>
<th>Not checking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working life (talk with people at work)</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private life (social contacts, cultural interest, etc)</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Language skills intended to acquire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Skills</th>
<th>1st priority</th>
<th>2nd priority</th>
<th>3rd priority</th>
<th>4th priority</th>
<th>5th priority</th>
<th>Not checked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>58.5%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding speech</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding written materials</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest percentages are highlighted.

**Part II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situations</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Most of the time</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buying things in the market</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use Cantonese related to your study</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to electricians, plumbers, etc</td>
<td>47.8%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to children</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Guangdong Province</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking a taxi</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to radio</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to Cantonese music/concert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use Cantonese related to your work</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching televisions</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving phone calls</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having casual talks with people</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering food in a restaurant</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving orders</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to colleagues</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking information</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>41.5%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling inside Hong Kong</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>41.5%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking directions</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting friends’ homes</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying things in stores &amp; supermarkets</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renting a house</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to neighbours</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>33.9%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching movies</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing business</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joining hobby groups</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguing</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to friends</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>49.1%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to students</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making travel arrangement</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing sports</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>41.6%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making phone calls</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking other public transport</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting doctor</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In hospital</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting other parts of China</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>44.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing letters</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest percentages are highlighted.
Part IV

The biographical data of the 65 respondents are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>19-57 (mean 30.7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male (47.7%) Female (52.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial Status</td>
<td>Single (75.4%) Married (20%) Co-habited (3.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband/wife uses</td>
<td>Yes (16.9%) No (4.6%) N/A (75.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantonese Missing data : 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>1. Japan 52.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. U.S.A 13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Philippines 6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. British 4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Mexican 4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. India 3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Peru 3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Spanish 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Norway 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Malaysia 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Chile 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Korea 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Swedish 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. French 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Australian 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>1. Roman Catholic 26.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Buddhism 12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Christian 10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Nil 50.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Tongue</td>
<td>1. Japanese 52.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. English 23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Spanish 12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Tagalo 3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Other Chinese dialects 3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Tamil 3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Norwegian 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Occupation</td>
<td>8. Korean 1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Student</td>
<td>58.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Business</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Missionaries</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teacher</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Housewife</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Civil servant</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Medical</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Occupation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Business</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Student</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Teacher</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Missionaries</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Medical</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Civil servant</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Housewife</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons of coming to Hong Kong</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Learn Cantonese</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Work</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Church service</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Find a job in HK</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cultural interest</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Married Hong Kong people</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Visit family members</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Accompany spouse</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Born here</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Exchange programme</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix XX: Sample data on diary study

Subject C:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week 1</th>
<th>I think my listening comprehension and have improved and vocabulary items have been built up.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Looking at the slogan on the side of a bus in Central, my eye was first caught by the characters as one of the characters formed part of my own name in Chinese. I next saw the next character and tried to guess the meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outside the classroom, instructors generally stuck to Cantonese but switches sometimes occurred when we were discussing complex matters.</td>
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<td>Staff in the Center office initially speaks to me in English, probably because I was a new face.</td>
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<td>Week 2</td>
<td>I listened to my wife talking on the phone from her mother with some words I can recognize and I guessed the rest. Since my wife had already mentioned that she was going to call her mother and told me some of the issues they were going to discuss, this made my estimation easier.</td>
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<td>Although I had my vocabulary items built up, I don not have confidence to use some of the items. There was one item I thought I had already grasped the usage and meaning of it, but when I notice the word on TV, I felt as if now I had to puzzle out something new.</td>
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<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Today, uninspiring pair-work session sought out some kinds of oral practice. I also found that my inability to understand the spoken language was the crux of my problem.</td>
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<td>I relied heavily on Romanization. I tried to concentrate more on listening rather than on reading. When people were speaking rapidly to each other and I was unaware of the background to the discussion I often had on idea what was going on. I could guess the general meaning from key words and from context, the “unknown” stretches were generally too long or insufficiently clear for me to learn from.</td>
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<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Listening to the instructors in class often provided me with materials which I could understand but some of them did tend to speak a little above the level.</td>
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<td>In structure drills, I had problems following the instructor's cue sentence. There was a similar problem for other oral repetition exercises.</td>
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<td>I felt my pronunciation was always likely to remain a problem whilst I already had a basic grasp of Cantonese structure. I regarded boosting my vocabulary as my most important task.</td>
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<td>Week 5</td>
<td>It was possible to use TV to learn the spoken form for words I had learned to recognize from newspapers or signboards but could not pronounce.</td>
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<td>Trying to speak Cantonese I would often need to search my memory to find the required word or phrase, but a few came to me spontaneously. This resulted in some well-known words becoming overused. I tried to speak, but what came to me was completely inappropriate. I also produced the intended word with the syllables in the wrong order.</td>
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<td>Week 6</td>
<td>Many of the problems when learning Cantonese, I could anticipate. But I had not expected the boredom, poor concentration and fatigue which plagued.</td>
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<td>Fatigue in lesson and lack of interest in some of the learning activities bordered me. I also dislike looking up words in the dictionary.</td>
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<td>Although I valued the structured environment provided by formal classes, I found that listening to fellow students answering display questions or reporting back on pair work was often tedious and reflected that I really preferred tasks like reading or translating from the target language into my own.</td>
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| Week 7 | In the classroom, I felt engaged and interested. Frustration was banished when we managed a reasonable discussion about something of genuine interest, whether our own experiences as language learners in Hong Kong or the status of women in Hong Kong and Japan. Introducing a note of humour helped and role-play was enjoyable if turned into a comic
sketch. I felt happier when I was playing a central role in the conversation.

I had run into an instructor in a canteen and we had spoken a little in Cantonese, but I decided not to try to join her.

I wanted to ensure that Cantonese became the lingua franca among members of our class when we were in the corridors, one Japanese classmate started speaking to me in English but, after I had explained (in Cantonese) that I was trying to avoid this, she accepted the arrangement. I tried to maintain the “Cantonese-only” rule outside the Center, was always a failure. I found it almost impossible to insist on Cantonese in the Center with native English-speaking students from other classes.

Week 8 Eating lunch with my colleagues, they were willing explain things to me in simplified Cantonese but when we were actually at work, I frequently had to initiate switches back to English myself to find out what was going on.

Not having fluent Cantonese sometimes made for inconvenience but it was never disastrous in the way that lack of fluency in English would be for many Hong Kong Chinese.

Week 9 In class, feelings of competitiveness towards classmates were rare. I felt competitiveness and anxiety when dealing with local bilinguals.

At the Post office on my way home I was rehearsing in the queue how to say “I want to send a letter to Nepal”. I started badly, not being sure which counter bell was ringing from and being directed “That way!” (in English) by a person behind me in the queue. The counter clerk, male and in his 20s, quite thick-set, responded coldly and firmly, “To Nepal? $2.2.” (in English). I switched to English to ask for local stamps. Neither of us was smiling and I was actually very angry. Having got the stamps I walked away but leaving the airmail ones behind. The clerk called me back, “Your stamps, Sir!” The clerk meanwhile seemed to be laughing with a Cantonese customer behind me.

Week 10 At lunch time, I went to a library. Came across Ms. X and
exchanged a few words in English on the difficulty of getting books. I ended up saying “The problem is a headache” (in Cantonese). She said, “Very Good”. I said, “No, I know very little” (in Cantonese) and we exchanged a few words in Cantonese. I felt that I had achieved some important task today.

Although participation in class provides a “language community”, I think one-to-one instruction or conversation exchange might be preferable. It gives the learners more chance to speak and also better chance of hearing suitable input.

Week 11

In class, I think recording examples of authentic language from daily environment will help. For those interested in current affairs, focus could be on the language of TV and radio news.

Discussions and presentations on topics chosen by students would be preferable to conventional role-play. Speaking from an outline rather than on writing a composition and memorizing it was more beneficial.

Talking to other learners in Cantonese is a low-anxiety method of getting more practice.

At the micro-level, pronunciation practice was the most important, however it should not involve too much drill of individual sounds. Concentration on phrases and sentences, if possible from humorous content was preferable.
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